This is a digital copy of a book that was preserved for generations on library shelves before it was carefully scanned by Google as part of a project to make the world's books discoverable online.

It has survived long enough for the copyright to expire and the book to enter the public domain. A public domain book is one that was never subject to copyright or whose legal copyright term has expired. Whether a book is in the public domain may vary country to country. Public domain books are our gateways to the past, representing a wealth of history, culture and knowledge that's often difficult to discover.

Marks, notations and other marginalia present in the original volume will appear in this file - a reminder of this book's long journey from the publisher to a library and finally to you.

Usage guidelines

Google is proud to partner with libraries to digitize public domain materials and make them widely accessible. Public domain books belong to the public and we are merely their custodians. Nevertheless, this work is expensive, so in order to keep providing this resource, we have taken steps to prevent abuse by commercial parties, including placing technical restrictions on automated querying.

We also ask that you:

+ *Make non-commercial use of the files* We designed Google Book Search for use by individuals, and we request that you use these files for personal, non-commercial purposes.

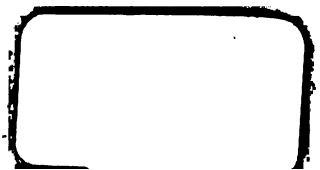
+ *Refrain from automated querying* Do not send automated queries of any sort to Google's system: If you are conducting research on machine translation, optical character recognition or other areas where access to a large amount of text is helpful, please contact us. We encourage the use of public domain materials for these purposes and may be able to help.

+ *Maintain attribution* The Google "watermark" you see on each file is essential for informing people about this project and helping them find additional materials through Google Book Search. Please do not remove it.

+ *Keep it legal* Whatever your use, remember that you are responsible for ensuring that what you are doing is legal. Do not assume that just because we believe a book is in the public domain for users in the United States, that the work is also in the public domain for users in other countries. Whether a book is still in copyright varies from country to country, and we can't offer guidance on whether any specific use of any specific book is allowed. Please do not assume that a book's appearance in Google Book Search means it can be used in any manner anywhere in the world. Copyright infringement liability can be quite severe.

About Google Book Search

Google's mission is to organize the world's information and to make it universally accessible and useful. Google Book Search helps readers discover the world's books while helping authors and publishers reach new audiences. You can search through the full text of this book on the web at `http://books.google.com/`



Digitized by Google

Digitized by Google

Digitized by Google

Digitized by Google

Digitized by Google

Digitized by Google

Digitized by Google

THE

ANNUAL REVIEW,

AND

HISTORY OF LITERATURE;

FOR 1803.

ARTHUR AIKIN, EDITOR.

VOL. II.

LONDON:

PRINTED FOR T. N. LONGMAN AND O. REES, PATERNOSTER ROW;

BY T. GILLET, SALISBURY-SQUARE.

1804.

Digitized by Google

ASTOR LIBRARY
OCT 1876
NEW-YORK

Digitized by Google

PREFACE.

THE Editor of the Annual Review cannot allow the second volume to appear before the Public without acknowledging, in his own name and that of the Proprietors, the grateful sense entertained by them, of the encouragement which has hitherto attended their undertaking. Animated by the testimonies of approbation that have been received from various quarters, and by the extensive circulation of their first volume, they have used every exertion to render the present not unworthy of the public patronage. Its literary merit must be wholly appreciated by the reader; for, on this head the Editor feels it his duty to be silent. He may be allowed, however, to remark, that a considerable advantage has been gained with respect to the time of publication, not more than eight months and a half having elapsed since the appearance of the first volume; and it is hoped that, in future, his annual labours will terminate by the latter end of March. In addition to the obvious advantages of an arranged over a miscellaneous History of Literature, it has been almost unexpectedly discovered, that even in priority of notice the Annual Review has an advantage over any monthly one; out of nearly Five Hundred Articles, which compose the present volume, not one-third have made their appearance in any other Review of Books.

Digitized by Google

A few letters have been received from anonymous correspondents, supplying omissions in our prospective list of books, that was circulated a few months ago; and we take the present opportunity of returning our thanks for these attentions.

The monthly booksellers' lists, the advertisements in the newspapers, the catalogues in the magazines, and other periodical works, are the only public registers, from which a list of books can be collected; and as these are all confessedly imperfect, any private communications will be gratefully accepted. Those, however, which relate to our first chapter, must be sent in good time, to be of any advantage.

A. A.

April 25, 1804.

Digitized by Google

TABLE OF CONTENTS,

With the Prices of the various Works in Boards, unless otherwise expressed, and the Publishers' Names.

CHAPTER I.—*Voyages and Travels.*

1 Burney's History of the Discoveries in the South Seas, illustrated with Charts, 4to. 1l. 4s. Payne — — — — — 8
2 Clarke's Progress of Maritime Discoveries, 4to. Vol. I. 3l. 8s. Cadell and Davies 12
3 Curtis's Travels in Barbary, 12mo. 4s. Longman and Rees — — 20
4 Golberry's Travels in Africa, 12mo. 2 vols. 12s. Jones — — — 28
5 Semple's Walks, &c. at the Cape of Good Hope, 12mo. 3s. 6d. Baldwins — 30
6 Winterbottom's Account of the Native Africans in Sierra Leone, 8vo. vol. I. 7s. 6d. Hatchard — — — — — 32
7 Percival's Account of the Island of Ceylon, 4to. 1l. 8s. Baldwins — — 35
8 Grandpré's Voyage in the Indian Ocean, 8vo. 2 vols. 15s. Robinsons — 48
9 Barrington's History of New South Wales, 8vo. 2 vols. 1l. 7s. Jones — 54
10 Davis's Travels in the United States of America, 8vo. 8s. Ostell — — ibid
11 Muirhead's Travels, 8vo. 7s. Longman and Rees — — — 59
12 A Non-Military Journal, made in Egypt, 4to. 1l. 1s. Cadell and Davies — 63
13 Wittman's Travels in Turkey, 4to. 2l. 12s. 6d. Phillips — — 66
14 Hunter's Travels through France, &c. 8vo. 2 vols. 16s. White — — 72
15 Butler's Travels through France, &c. 8vo. 7s. Keating — — — 73
16 Excursion among the Swiss Landscapes, 12mo. 3s. 6d. Murray — — 79
17 Hughes's Tour through France, 8vo. 6s. Ostell — — — 80
18 A Rough Sketch of Paris, 8vo. 6s. 6d. Johnson — — — 82
19 Maurice's Modern France, 12mo. 6s. and 8s. Hatchard — — 87
20 King's Letters from France, 8vo. 5s. Parsons — — — 88
21 Carr's Stranger in France, 4to. 1l. 1s. Johnson — — — — 90
22 Paris as it Was and Is, &c. 8vo. 2 vols. 1l. 1s. Baldwins — — 93
23 Weston's Praise of Paris, 8vo. 6s. 6d. Baldwins — — — — 94
24 Letters of a Mameluke, 2 vols. 12mo. 9s. Highley — — — 95
25 Karamsin's Travels, 3 vols. 12mo. 15s. Badcock — — — 97
26 Pallas's Travels through Russia, 4to. Vol. II. 4l. 4s. Longman and Rees — 101
27 Hockins's Supplement to the Account of the Pellew Islands, 4to. 15s. Robinsons 107

CHAPTER II.—*Theology and Ecclesiastical Affairs.*

1 Stock's Translation of Isaiah, 4to. 1l. 1s. Robinsons — — — 111
2 Good's Song of Songs, 8vo. 7s. 6d. Kearsley — — — 116
3 Willan's United Gospel, 8vo. 5s. Phillips — — — 120
4 Warner's English Diatessaron, 8vo. 6s. Robinsons — — — 122
5 Bulkeley's Notes on the Bible, 3 vols. 8vo. Johnson — — — ibid
6 Bryant's Observations upon Scripture, 4to. 12s. Mawman — — 125
7 Findlay's Divine Inspiration, 3s. Cadell and Davies — — — 127
8 Marsh's Illustration of the Hypothesis, 8vo. 5s. Rivington — — 129
9 M'Conochie's Dissertation on the 4th Gospel, 8s. Longman and Rees — 133
10 Blunt's Six Letters to Sharpe, 8vo. 4s. Johnson — — — 135
11 Marriott's Elements of Religion, 12mo. 4 vols. 18s. Rivingtons — — 137
12 Mendham on the Lord's Prayer, 8vo. 4s. Rivingtons — — — 141
13 Robinson on Revealed Religion, 8vo. 6s. Baldwins — — — 144
14 Porteus's Evidences, (in French) 12mo. 2s. 6d. Dulau — — 146
15 The Mild Tenor of Christianity, 12mo. 3s. Clarke — — — ibid
16 Letter to a Noble Duke on Christianity, 12mo. 2s. 6d. Robson — — 148

Digitized by Google

		Page
17	Crighton on the Origin of True Religion, 8vo. 1s. Baynes	148
18	Priestley's Socrates and Jesus compared, 8vo. 2s. 6d. Johnson	ibid
19	Hill's Theological Institutes, 8vo. 7s. 6d. Longman and Rees	149
20	Vidler's Letters to Mr. Fuller, 8vo.	152
21	Hales' Methodism Inspected, 8vo. 2s. Spragg	153
22	Verax's Vindication of Unitarianism, 8vo. 3s. Johnson	154
23	Bentley on the Divine Logos, 12mo. 3s. 6d. Hurst	ibid
24	Rees's Account of Christianity, 12mo, 1s. Sael	ibid
25	Brown's Sermons, 8vo. 7s. Longman and Rees	ibid
26	Gleig's Sermons, 8vo. 7s. Rivingtons	158
27	Shepherd's Sermons, 8vo. 6s. Mawman	160
28	Warner's Practical Discourses, 8vo. 7s. Robinsons	162
29	Gilpin's Sermons, vol. 3, 8vo. 7s. Cadell and Davies	163
30	Nares' Sermons, 8vo. 7s. Rivingtons	165
31	Tayler's Sermons, 8vo. 7s. Longman and Rees	166
32	St. John's Practical Sermons, 8vo. 6s. 6d. Longman and Rees	167
33	Buddo's Essays and Sermons, 3s. 6d. Longman and Rees	169
34	Sermons, by a Layman, 8vo. 6s. Robinsons	ibid
35	Estlin's Sermons, 8vo. 7s. 6d Johnson	170
36	Wrangham's Sermon, 1s. Mawman	172
37	Wellbeloved's Sermon on Cappe, 1s. Johnson	173
38	Skurray's Sermon, 1s. Longman and Rees	ibid
39	Leigh's Sermons, 1s. Hatchard	173
40	Kentish's Review of Christian Doctrines, &c. 8vo. 1s. Johnson	174
41	Sturch's Letter to Kentish, 1s. Johnson	ibid
42	Kentish's Nature, &c. of the Christian Ministry, Johnson	ibid
43	Overton's Duty of Britons, 1s. Mawman	175
44	Bulmer's National Defence, 8vo. 6d. Spragg	ibid
45	Broadhurst's Sermon, 6d. Johnson	176
46	Joyce's Sermon, 1s. Johnson	ibid
47	Hughs's Fast Sermon, 1s. Williams	ibid
48	Wellbeloved's Fast Sermon, 1s. Johnson	177
49	Madan's Fast Sermon, 1s. Longman and Rees	178
50	Jervis's Fast Sermon, 1s. 6d. Johnson	179
51	W. Evans's Fast Sermon, 1s. Longman and Rees	180
52	Butler's Fast Sermon, 1s. Longman and Rees	ibid
53	Rees's Fast Sermon, 1s. Longman and Rees	ibid
54	Disney's Fast Sermon, 1s. Johnson	ibid
55	Belsham's Fast Sermon, 1s. Johnson	ibid
56	Parr's Fast Sermon, 2s. 6d. Mawman	ibid
57	Naylor's Fast Sermon,	183
58	Bates's Rural Philosophy, 8vo. 7s. Longman and Rees	ibid
59	Fellows's Supplement to the Christain Philosophy, 1s. White	186
60	Eaton's Familiar Conversation	187
61	Address to the Society for the Suppression of Vice, Part I. 2s. Hatchard	ibid
62	Transactions of the Missionary Society, 8vo. Button	ibid
63	Miles's History of the Methodists, 12mo 5s. Baynes	201
64	Daubeney's Vindiciæ Eccles. Angl. 8vo. 8s. Hatchard	213
65	Bishop of Lincoln's Charge, 2s. Cadell and Davies	215
66	Winchester on the Seventeenth Article, 2s 6d. Rivingtons	216
67	A Reply to Anguis in Herba, 2s. Mawman	217
68	A Word to Reformation-mongers, 1s. Hatchard	ibid
69	An Appeal to the Archbishops and Bishops, 6d. Hatchard	218
70	Freeman's Epistle to the Quakers, 8d. Johnson	ibid

CHAPTER III.—*History, Politics, and Statistics.*

1	Turner's Anglo-Saxons, vol. 2 and 3, 8vo. 16s. Longman and Rees	220
2	Vindication of the Celts, 8vo. 5s. Longman and Rees	223
3	Roberts's History of the Ancient Britons, 8vo. 5s. Williams	227
4	Coote's History of England, 8vo. vol. 9, 8s. Kearsley	230
5	Bisset's Hist. of the Reign of Geo. III. 8vo, 6 vols. 2l. 12s. 6d. Longman and Rees	239
6	Hay's Insurrection in Wexford, 8vo. 10s. 6d. Cuthell	244
7	Plowden's History of Ireland, 4to. 3 vols. 4l. 4s. Egerton	248
8	Millar on the English Government, 8vo. 4 vols. 1l. 12s. Mawman	254

Digitized by Google

		Page
9	Stephens's History of the Wars, 4to. 2 vols. 3l. 13s. 6d. Phillips	258
10	Ritchie's Memoirs of Europe, 8vo. 3 vols. 1l. 8s. Longman and Rees	264
11	Adolphus's History of France, 8vo. 2 Vols. 1l. 4s. Kearsley	266
12	Williams's Correspondence of Louis XVI. &c. 8vo. 3 vols. 21s. Robinsons	275
13	Tinseau's View of France, 8vo. 10s. 6d. Longman and Rees	279
14	Card's History of the Revolutions of Russia, 8vo. 12s. Longman and Rees	280
15	History of the Invasion of Switzerland, 8vo. 7s. Longman and Rees	285
16	Dallas's History of the Maroons, 8vo. 2 vol. 1l. 1s. Longman and Rees.	ibid
17	Malthus on the Principles of Population, 4to. 1l. 11s. 6d. Johnson	292
18	Pownall's Memorial, 8vo. 3s. Debrett	301
19	Carke's View of Europe, 8vo. 6s. Cadell and Davies	303
20	Account of Leibnitz's Memoir to Louis XIV. 8vo. 2s Hatchard	306
21	The French considered as a Military Nation, 8vo. Egerton	308
22	Sketches, &c. of France and Russia, 8vo. 12s. Budd	310
23	D'Ivernois' Five Promises, 8vo. 7s. Ginger	318
24	Orr's Importance of Malta, 1s. Ginger	321
25	Wood's Importance of Malta considered, 4to. 5s. Stockdale	322
26	Orr's Possession of Louisiana considered, 8vo. 1s. 6d. Ginger	ibid
27	Brougham's Colonial Policy, 8vo. 2 vols. 18s. Longman and Rees	ibid
28	Chalmers on the War in Saint Domingo, 8vo. 2s. 6d. Rivingtons	326
29	A Letter on Manumission, 8vo. 1s. Mawman	329
30	Fox's Speech, May 24, 1803, 3s. 6d. Debrett	ibid
31	Addington's Speech, December 10, 1802, 1s. Hatchard	330
32	Earl Moira's Speech, March 9, 1803, 6d. Stockdale	331
33	Bishop of Llandaff's Intended Speech, 8vo. 1s. 6d. Cadell and Davies	332
34	Adolphus's Reflections on the Rupture with France, 8vo. 3s. 6d. Hatchard	ibid
35	Appeal to the People of the United Kingdom, 4s. Mawman	335
36	The Question, "Why do we go to War?" 1s. Wallis	337
37	The Reason Why, &c. 1s. 6d. Stockdale	340
38	Observations suggested by ditto, 1s. Hatchard	341
39	A Reply to two Pamphlets, in Answer to ditto, 2s. Wallis	342
40	Thoughts on Invasion, 8vo. 2s. Longman and Rees	ibid
41	Tucker on Invasion, &c. 3d. Longman and Rees	343
42	Proceedings of the Loyal North Britons, 8vo. 1s. Longman and Rees	344
43	Cartwright's England's Ægis, 12mo. 4s. 6d. Phillips	ibid
44	Parallel between England and Carthage, 1s. Murray	345
45	Cursory Remarks, &c. by a Near Observer, 8vo. 2s. 6d. Hatchard	ibid
46	A Plain Answer to ditto, 2s. 6d. Stockdale	ibid
47	Elements of Opposition, 8vo. 2s. 6d. Hatchard	347
48	Cobbett's Four Letters, 8vo. 2s. Harding	349
49	The Day of Alarm, 8vo. 4s. Hatchard	350
50	Reply to Financial Mistatements, 1s. 6d. Hatchard	351
51	Morgan's Supplement to a Comparative View, 8vo. 1s. Longman and Rees	352
52	Royal Letters, &c. 8vo. 6d. Badcock	353
53	Winter on the Temper of the Irish, 1s. 6d. Longman and Rees	354
54	Hints, &c. on the Catholic Clergy of Ireland, 1s. 6d. Ginger	355
55	Whateley's Hints on the Irish Fishery, 1s. Hatchard	356
56	Essays on the Population of Ireland, &c. 2s. Baldwins	357
57	Howison on Paper Money, 1s. 6d. Stockdale	359
58	Lord King on the Bank Restriction, 8vo. 3s. 6d. Debrett	ibid
59	Wheatly on Currency and Commerce, 8vo. 6s. Cadell and Davies	362
60	Burn on Stock Jobbing, 8vo. 2s. 6d. Boosey	365
61	Colpitt's Letter on the Police, 1s. Jones	367
62	Anstie on the Woollen Manufactory, Egerton	369
63	On the Propriety of Exporting Cotton Twist, 1s. 6d. Debrett	370

CHAPTER IV.—*Geography.*

1	Pinkerton's Modern Geography abridged, 8vo. 12s. Longman and Rees	371

CHAPTER V.—*British Topography and Antiquities.*

1	Dickinson's Nottinghamshire, 4to. 1l. 11s. 6d. Cadell and Davies	374
2	History of Colchester, 2 vols. 12mo.	380
3	Lane's Students Guide	383

Digitized by Google

		Page
4	Gough's History of Pleshy, 1l. 11s. 6d. 4to. Nicholls — — —	385
5	Gazetteer of Scotland, 8vo. 10s. 6d. Longman and Rees — —	389
6	Sibbald's History of Fife and Kinross, 8vo. 9s. Longman and Rees — —	393
7	Wilson's Memorabilia Cantab. 8vo. 10s. 6d. Harding — —	394
8	The Swansea Guide, 18mo. Lackington — — —	395
9	The Gloucester New Guide, 12mo. — — —	396
10	Hutchin's History of Dorset, Folio, 2 vols. 4l. 4s. Nicholls — —	397
11	Polwhele's History of Cornwall, 4to. 2 vols. Cadell and Davies — —	398
12	Murray's Guide to the Highlands, 8vo. vol. 2, 10s. 6d. Nicols — —	402
13	Bristed's Tour in Scotland, 8vo. 2 Vols. 1l. Wallis — —	408
14	Crerie's Scottish Scenery, 4to. 3l. 3s. Cadell and Davies — —	409
15	Barber's Tour through South Wales, &c. 8vo. 7s. and 1l. 5s. Cadell and Davies —	412
16	Hutton's Remarks on North Wales, 8vo. 7s. 6d. Seeley — —	417
17	Luffman's Pocket Atlas, &c. 12mo. Luffman — — —	418
18	Sarratt's New Picture of London, 3s. 6d. Tegg — — —	ibid.
19	A View of London, 1s. Crosby — — —	ibid.
20	Patterson's Roads of England and Wales, cr. 8vo. 7s. 6d. Longman and Rees —	419
21	Cary's British Traveller, 12mo. 4s. 6d. Cary — — —	420
22	Wallis's Pocket Itinerary, 18mo. 5s. Wallis — — —	421
23	Kearsley's Traveller's Guide, 8vo. 7s. Kearsley — —	ibid.
24	Beauties of England and Wales, 8vo. vol. 4. 18s. Longman and Rees —	422
25	Aikin's England Delineated, crown 8vo. 7s. Johnson — —	427
26	Guide to the Watering Places, 12mo. 12s. Phillips — —	ibid.
27	Evans's Juvenile Tourist, 12mo. 4s. 6d. Hurst — — —	428

CHAPTER VI.—*Ancient Classics.*

1	Forster's Anacreontis Odaria, &c. 12mo. 15s. Miller — —	430
2	Preston's Apollonius Rhodius, 3 vols. 12mo. 1l. 1s. Longman and Rees —	ibid.
3	Girdleston's Odes of Anacreon, 12mo. 3s. 6d. Robinsons — —	437
4	Lyrics of Horace, in English Verse, 12mo. 2 vols. 15s. White — —	438
5	Testimonies respecting the Colossal Statue of Ceres, 8vo. 5s. White —	439
6	Faber on the Mysteries of the Cabiri, 8vo. 2 vols. 15s. Rivingtons —	440
7	Valpy's Elegantiæ Latinæ, 12mo. 3s. Law — — —	445
8	Pye's Dictionary of Ancient Geography, 3vo. 7s. Longman and Rees —	ibid.
9	Mythological Dictionary, 18mo. 3s. Crosby — — —	446
10	Cary's Skeleton of the Latin Accidence, 1s. 6d. Longman and Rees —	ibid.
11	Progressive Exercises, 12mo. 2s. 6d. Sael — — —	ibid.

CHAPTER VII.—*Modern Languages.*

1	Graglia's Guide to Italian, 12mo. 5s. 6d. Longman and Rees — —	447
2	——— Exercises, 12mo, 3s. 6d. Longman and Rees — —	ibid.
3	——— Raccolta di Lettere, &c. 12mo. 3s. 6d. Longman and Rees —	448

CHAPTER VIII.—*Education and School Books.*

1	Badger's Admonitions to Parents, 8vo. 6s. Cadell and Davies — —	449
2	Hatfield's Letters on the Female Sex, Vernor and Hood — —	ibid.
3	Mrs. Crespigny's Letters to her Son, 8vo. 8s. Cadell and Davies — —	450
4	Cowan on Education, 12mo. 2 vols. 8s. Wallis — — —	ibid.
5	Lancaster on Education, 8vo. 2s. Darton and Harvey — — —	451
6	An Essay on the Universe, 12mo. 3s. Hurst — — —	452
7	Holidays at Home, 12mo 3s. 6d. Mawman — — —	ibid.
8	Somerville's Preludes to Knowledge, 2s. Jones — — —	453
9	The History of Man, 2s. Crosby — — — —	ibid.
10	The Life of Moses, 1s. 6d. Button — — — —	ibid.
11	The Elegant Preceptor, 1s. 6d. Crosby — —	ibid.
12	Levisac's Lessons of Fenelon, 12mo. 4s. 6d. Hurst —	ibid.
13	Evenings Rationally Employed, 12mo. 3s. 6d. Hurst —	ibid.
14	An Introduction to Philosophical and Physical Geography, 8vo. 5s. Hurst	ibid.
15	Bruce's Geography and Astronomy, 12mo. 4s. Longman and Rees	454

Digitized by Google

Page
16 Grammar of Geography, 12mo. 2s. 6d. Phillips — — — 454
17 Richards's Arithmetic, 12mo. 2s. 6d. Seeley — — — 455

CHAPTER IX.—*Biography.*

1 Hayley's Life of Cowper, 4to. 2 vols. 2l. 12s. 6d. Johnson — — 457
2 Godwin's Life of Chaucer, 4to. 2 vols. 3l. 13s. 6d. Phillips — — 463
3 Good's Life of Dr. Geddes, 8vo. 10s. 6d. Kearsley — — 473
4 Life of General De Zieten, 8vo. 2 vols. 14s. Phillips — — 480
5 Owen's Cambrian Biography, 12mo. 7s. 6d. Williams — — 494
6 Public Characters of 1803-4, 8vo. 10s. 6d. Phillips — — — 495
7 A Defence of M. W. Godwin, 12mo. 3s. 6d. Wallis — — ibid.
8 Mason's Life of Earl Howe, 8vo. 4s. Cadell and Davies — — 499
9 Fenelon's Lives of Ancient Philosophers, 12mo. 2 vols. 8s. Longman and Rees 501
10 Eccentric Biography, 18mo. 4s. Hurst — — — — ibid.
11 Naval Biography, 18mo. 8s. Hurst — — — — ibid.
12 Works of Lady Mary Wortley Montague, 12mo. 5 vols. 1l. 5s. Phillips — 502
13 Aikin's General Biography, vol. 4. 4to. 1l. 11s. 6d. Johnson — — 507
14 Stewart's Life of Reid, 8vo. 5s. Longman and Rees — — 509
15 Revolutionary Plutarch, 12mo. 2 vols. 12s. Murray — — 510
16 Barré's French Consulate, 8vo. 10s. 6d. Hurst — — — ibid

CHAPTER X.—*Poetry.*

1 Turner's Vindication of the Ancient British Poems, 8vo. 6s. Williams — 512
2 Ritson's Ancient Romances, 8vo. 3 vols. 1l. 7s. Nicols — — 515
3 Scott's Minstrelsy, 8vo. 3 vols. 1l. 11s. 6d. Longman and Rees — — 533
4 Ellis's Specimens, 8vo. 3 vols. 1l. 11s. 6d Nicols — — — 538
5 Warton's Poetical Works, by Mant, 8vo. 2 vols. 14s. Rivingtons — 543
6 Bayley's Poems, 8vo. 7s. Millar — — — 547
7 White's Clifton Grove, 12mo. 3s. 6d. Vernor and Hood — — 552
8 Maurice's Select Poems, 8vo. 7s. 6d. White — — — 554
9 Coleridge's Poems, f. c. 8vo. 5s. Longman and Rees — — — 556
10 Walker's Defence of Order, 8vo. 6s. 6d. Longman and Rees — — 557
11 The Inquiry, Part I. 12mo. 2s. Hatchard — — — ibid
12 Rhode's Epigrams, 12mo. 3s. Miller — — — 558
13 Woodhouse's Norbury Park, 12mo. 3s. Symonds — — ibid
14 Tytler's Voyage, 4to. 5s. Hatchard — — — 559
15 Grant's Poems, 8vo. 10s. 6d. Longman and Rees — — ibid
16 Cartwright's Poems, 12mo. 5s. Murray — — — 561
17 Saver's Nugæ Poeticæ, 12mo. Cadell and Davies — — — ibid
18 Marriott's Poems, &c. 12mo. 3s. 6d. Darton and Harvey — — 562
19 Jones's Poems, 8vo. 4s. 6d. Peck — — — ibid
20 Cassano's Selection of Italian Poems, 2 tom. 12mo. 10s. 6d. Dulau — ibid
21 Leyden's Scenes of Infancy, 12mo. 6s. Longman and Rees — — 563
22 Crawford's Poems, 12mo. 2 vols. 7s. Becket — — — ibid
23 Henderson's Petrarca, 12mo. 7s. 6d. Baldwins — — — 564
24 Booker's Calista, 4to. 2s. 6d. Button — — — — ibid
25 Ethelston's Suicide, 12mo. 5s. Cadell and Davies — — — ibid
26 Holloway's Scenes of Youth, 12mo. 4s. Longman and Rees — — ibid
27 The Pleader's Guide, 12mo. 6s. Cadell and Davies — — — 565
28 Mayne's Glasgow, 12mo. 2s. 6d. Cadell and Davies — — — 567
29 Syr Reginald, 12mo. 4s. 6d. Vernor and Hood — — — 568
30 Ireland's Rhapsodies, 12mo. 7s. Longman and Rees — — ibid
31 Kenney's Society, 12mo. 4s. Longman and Rees — — — 569
32 Lord Strangford's Poems, from Camoens, 12mo. 6s. Miller — — ibid
33 Edmond's Poems, 8vo. 3s. Coventry — — — — 577
34 D'Israeli's Narrative Poems, 4to. 4s. Murray — — — ibid
35 Warren's Beneficence, 4to. 2s. 6d. Rivingtons — — — 579
36 Leyden's Scottish Descriptive Poems, 12mo. 7s. Longman and Rees — ibid
37 Poetical Register, 8vo. vol. 2d. 9s. Rivingtons — — — 580
38 Bowles's Pictures, 4to. 2s. Cadell and Davies — — — 582
39 Robertdeau's Fugitive Verse and Prose, 8vo. 4s. 6d. Hurst — — ibid
40 Cambridge's Work, 4to. 2l. 12s. 6d. Cadell and Davies — — 583

Digitized by Google

		Page
41	Carey's Pleasures of Nature, 12mo. 4s. 6d. Vernor and Hood — —	585
42	Hubbard's Triumphs of Poesy, 4to. 1s. Nicols — — —	ibid
43	Nathaniel Bloomfield's Poems, 12mo. 4s. Hurst — — —	ibid
44	H. Moore's Poems, 4to. 10s. 6d. Johnson — — —	586
45	Sewell's Poems, 12mo. 7s. Longman and Rees — — —	591
46	M'Creery Press, 4to. 12s. Cadell and Davies — — —	ibid
47	Seymour's Powers of Imagination, 4to. 1l. 1s. Longman and Rees —	ibid
48	Darwin's Temple of Nature, 4to. 1l. 5s. Johnson — —	592

CHAPTER XI.—*Plays.*

1	Holcroft's Hear both Sides, 8vo. 2s. 6d. Phillips — —	595
2	Reynold's Delays and Blunders, 2s. 6d. Longman and Rees — —	ibid
3	Boaden's Voice of Nature, 2s. Ridgway — — —	ibid
4	Siddons's Tale of Terror, 2s. Ridgway — — —	ibid
5	Boaden's Maid of Bristol, 2s. Longman and Rees — — —	ibid
6	Allingham's Hearts of Oak, 2s. 6d. Ridgway — — —	596
7	——— Mrs. Wiggins, 1s. 6d. Ridgway — — —	ibid
8	Kenney's Raising the Wind, 1s. 6d. Longman and Rees — — —	ibid
9	Reynolds's Caravan, 2s. Robinsons — — —	ibid

CHAPTER XII.—*Romances and Novels.*

1	Rose's Amadis de Gaul, 8vo. 6s. Cadell and Davies — —	597
2	Southey's ditto, 12mo. 4 vols. 1l. 1s Longman and Rees — —	600
3	Sappho, 12mo. 3s. 6d. Cuthell and Martin — — —	603
4	Porter's Thaddeus of Warsaw, 12mo. 4 vols. 14s. Longman and Rees —	604
5	Lathom's Very Strange but Very True, 4 vols. 12mo. 14s. Longman and Rees —	605
6	Genlis's Depraved Husband, 12mo. 2 vols. 8s. Hurst — —	ibid
7	Florian's Estelle translated by Maxey, 12mo. 6s. Boosey — —	ibid
8	Helme's St. Clair of the Isles, 12mo. 4 vols. 14s. Longman and Rees —	606
9	Letters of Miss Riversdale, 12mo. 3 vols. 13s. 6d. Johnson — —	ibid
10	Amelia Mansfield, 4 vols. 12mo. 14s. Gameau — — —	611
11	Delphine, 12mo. 3 vols. 15s. Robinson. — — —	616

CHAPTER XIII.—*Philology and Criticism.*

1	Astle's Origin of Writing, 4to. 2l. 10s. White — — —	629
2	Pegge's Anecdotes, 8vo. 6s. Nicholls — — —	631
3	Green on the Drama, 8vo. 2s. 6d. Cadell and Davies — —	635
4	Critical and Philosophical Essays, 12mo. vol. 1. 5s. Wallis — —	638
5	Urquhart on Classical Learning, 8vo. 7s. Cadell and Davies — —	641
6	Stael on Ancient and Modern Literature, 8vo. 2 vols. 14s. Cawthorne — —	643
7	Aikin's Letters on Poetry, 12mo. 4s. Johnson — — —	650

CHAPTER XIV —*Miscellanies.*

1	Account of the Orders of Knighthood, 8vo. 2 vols. White — —	654
2	Arms of the United Kingdom, 4to. 2l. 2s. Rivingtons — —	661
3	Boccacio's Decameron, 8vo. 2 vols. 16s. Longman and Rees — —	662
4	Segur's Women, 12mo. 3 vols. 12s. Longman and Rees — —	ibid
5	Pratt's Gleanings in England, 8vo. vol. 3. 12s. Longman and Rees —	666
6	Essays by Students of Fort William College, Bengal, 8vo. Debrett —	672
7	Cowper's Malachi Meldrum, 2 vol. 12mo. 10s. 6d. Longman and Rees —	679
8	Fothergill's Wanderer, 2 vols. 12mo. 10s. Wallis — —	684
9	The Pic Nic, 12mo. 2 vols. 10s. Hughes — — —	ibid
10	Cowper Illustrated, 8vo. 10s. 6d. Vernor and Hood — —	ibid
11	Obervations on Duelling, 12mo. 1s. Fairburn — — —	ibid
12	Verulamiana, 12mo. 4s. 6d. Dutton — — —	ibid
13	Beauties of Moore, 12mo. 5s. Crosby — — —	685
14	Addisoniana, 12mo. 2 vols. 10s. 6d. Phillips — — —	ibid
15	Polyanthia, 8vo. 2 vols. 16s. Budd — — —	ibid
16	Flowers of Literature, 12mo. 6s. Crosby — — —	ibid

Digitized by Google

Page
17 Narrative of the Lady Hobart, 1s. 6d. Stockdale — — 685
18 British Essayists, 45 vols. royal 18mo. 9l. Longman and Rees — — 686
19 Bibliotheque Portative François, 6 vols. 8vo. 2l. 8s. Dulau — — 688
20 York's Annals of Economy, 8vo. 2 vols. 12s. Ostell — — 689
21 Castle of the Tuilleries, 8vo. 2 vols. 14s. Longman and Rees — — ibid

CHAPTER XV.—*Commerce.*

1 Montefiore's Commercial Dictionary, 4to. 3l. 3s. Montefiore — — 691

CHAPTER XVI.—*Military Tactics, &c.*

1 Walsh's History of the Campaign in Egypt, 4to. 3l. 3s. Cadell and Davis — 691
2 General Money on the Use of Balloons, 4to. Egerton — — ibid
3 Manual for Volunteer Infantry, 12mo. 2s. Egerton — — 697
4 British Volunteer's Guide, 1s. 6d. Vernor and Hood — — ibid
5 Defence of Picquets, 18mo. Egerton — — — ibid
6 Colonel Herries's Cavalry Instructions, 12mo. 5s. Egerton — — ibid
7 Smirke's Review of a Battalion of Infantry, 8vo. 6s. 6d. Longman and Rees — ibid
8 Hood's Elements of War, 18mo. 5s. Hurst — — 698
9 Treatise on the Art of War, 12mo. 5s. 6d. Vernor and Hood — — ibid
10 Macdonald's Tactics of the French Army, 2 vols. 12mo. 16s. Egerton. — ibid

CHAPTER XVII.—*Rural Economy and Gardening.*

1 Hunter's Georgical Essays, 8vo. 4 vols. 2l. 2s. Mawman — — 699
2 Farmer's Magazine, 8vo. vol. 1 to 4, 1l. 15s. Longman and Rees — 700
3 Findlater's Agriculture of Peebles, 8vo. 7s. Longman and Rees — — ibid
4 Lord Somerville on Sheep, &c. 8vo. 4s. Miller — — 705
5 Lester on Hay and Straw, 8vo. 5s. Symonds — — — 707
6 Taplin's Sporting Dictionary, 8vo. 2 vols. 1l. 1s. Longman and Rees — 708
7 Anderson on Hot Houses, 12mo. 5s. Longman and Rees — — ibid
8 Forsyth on Fruit Trees, (3d. Edit.) 8vo. 12s. Longman and Rees — 718
9 Prize Essays of the Highland Society, 8vo. vol. 2, 8s. Longman and Rees — 710

CHAPTER XVIII.—*Medicine, Surgery, &c.*

1 Duncan's Annals, 1802, 8vo. 8s Robinson — — 714
2 Winterbottom's Directions for Hot Climates 12mo. 3s. 6d. Phillips — 717
3 Moseley on Tropical Diseases, 8vo. 12s. 6d. Longman and Rees — — 718
4 Percival's Medical Ethics, 8vo. 5s. Bickerstaff — — 619
5 Walker on Women, 3s. 6d. Phillips — — — 720
6 Practical Rules for Negro Slaves, 8vo. 8s. Vernor and Hood — — 721
7 Edinburgh Practice of Medicine, 8vo. 5 vols. 3l. 15s. 0d. Kearsley — 723
8 London Practice of Midwifery, 12mo. 6s. Wallis — — — 724
9 Feltham's Popular Anatomy, 12mo. 7s. Bent — — — ibid.
10 Fox's Medical Dictionary, 12mo. 7s. Longman and Rees — — 725
11 Fogo's Observations, 8vo. 3s. Wallis — — — — ibid
12 Ford's Letters, 2s. 6d. White — — — — — — 726
13 Trotter's Medicina Nautica, vol. 3. 8vo. 9s. Longman and Rees — — ibid
14 Power on Ophthalmia, 8vo. 2s. 6d. Murray — — — — 731
15 Dewar on Diarrhœa, 8v. 4s. 6d. Murray — — — — 732
16 Falconer on Influenza, 8vo. 1s. 6d. Robinsons — — — 734
17 Pearson on ditto, 8vo. 1s. 6d. Seeley — — — — 735
18 Herdman on ditto, 8vo. 2s. Longman and Rees — — — — 736
19 Nott on ditto, 1s. ditto, Longman and Rees — — — 737
20 Hooper on ditto, 8vo. 1s. 6d. Murray — — — — ibid
21 Beddoes' Hygeia, 8vo. 3 vols. 1l. 7s. 0d. Phillips — — — 738
22 Pearson's Report of the Vaccine Institution — — — — 748
23 Ring on Cow Pox, 8vo. 2 vols. 1l. 1s. 0d. Johnson — — — 745
24 Simmons on Cow Pox, Highley — — — — 748
25 Fordyce on Fever, 8vo. 5th part, 2s. 6d. Johnson — — — ibid
26 Cheyne on Diseases of Children, part 2, Longman and Rees, 12s. 6d. — 750

Digitized by Google

		Page.
27	Hume on Diseases of Children, 8vo. 5s. Hurst	758
28	Beddoes' on new Medicine for Gout, 4s. Johnson	ibid
29	Buchan's Advice to Mothers, 8vo. 6s. Cadell and Davies	754
30	Richerand's Physiology, 8vo. 9s. Murray	755
31	Burdin's Medical Studies, 3 vols. 8vo. 1l. 1s. 0d. Cuthell	758
32	Fox on the Teeth, 4to. 1l. 1. 0d. Cox	760
33	Barclay's Anatomical Nomenclature, 8vo. 5s. Longman and Rees	761
34	Foot on Vesicæ Lotura, 2 parts, 8vo. 4s. 6d. Becket	764
35	Hooper's Plates of the Viscera, &c. 12mo. 5s. Murray	766
36	Diagram of the Eye, Murray	ibid
37	Map of the Human Ear, ditto	ibid
38	Bell's Anatomy, royal 8vo. vol. 3. 16s. Longman and Rees	ibid
39	Bell on the Nerves, 4to. 1l. 1s. 0d. Longman and Rees	771
40	Walter's Plates of Nerves, 4to. 18s. Murray	772
41	Timbrel on Ruptures, 12mo. 3s. Hurst	ibid
42	Monro on Hernia, 8vo. 7s. 6d. Longman and Rees	773
43	Blair's Soldier's Friend, 12mo. 5s. Murray	774
44	Blair's Anthropology, 8vo. 5s. Longman and Rees	ibid
45	Tyre on Diseases of the lower Extremities, 4to. 6s. 6d. Murray	775
46	Home on Stricture in Urethra, Vol. II. 8vo. 7s. Nicols	776
47	Blegborough on Vapour Bath, 12mo. 3s. 6d. Lackington	779
48	Hey's Surgery, 8vo. 10s. Caddell and Davies	780
49	Jackson's Army Staff, 8vo. 7s. 6d. ditto	785
50	Blackburne on Scarlet Fever, 8vo. 4s. Johnson	788
51	Carpue on Galvanism, 8vo. 4s. Longman and Rees	792
52	Birch's Medical Electricity, 2s. 6d. Johnson	ibid
53	Henderson on the Bit Noben	793
54	Johnstone on Mineral Acids, 1s. Mawman	794
55	Gibbs on Bath Water, 12mo. 3s. 6d. Robinsons	795
56	Jameson on Cheltenham Water, 8vo. 6s. Murray	796
57	Wilkinson on Cort. Salicis, 8vo. 4s. 6d. Longman and Rees	ibid
58	La Grange's Pharmacie, 8vo. Dulau	797
59	Pharmacop. Edin. 8vo. 6s. Robinsons	798
60	Lambe on Spring-Water, 8vo. 4s. Johnson	800
61	Duncan's Edinburgh Dispensatory, 8vo. 9s. Robinsons	802
92	La Fosse's Veterinarian's Manual, 2s. 6d. Badcock	804
63	Blaine's Diseases of Dogs and Horses, 12mo. 4s. Boosey	805
64	Fearon's Farriery, 4to. 1l. 1. 0d. Johnson	ibid

CHAPTER XIX.—*Law.*

1	Swinburne on Wills, &c. by Powell, 3 vols. 8vo. 1l. 11s. 6d. Clarke	808
2	Fisher on Copyhold Tenure, 8vo. 9s. Butterworth	ibid
3	Williams's Digest of the Statute Law, 4to. vol. 3, 3l. Robinsons	ibid
4	Rowe on the Rules of Descent, 8vo. 3s. 6d. Clarke	ibid
5	Dicken's Reports in Chancery by Wyatt, 2 vols. 8vo. 1l. 10s. Butterworth	ibid
6	East's Pleas of the Crown, 2 vols. 8vo. 1l. 18s. 0d. Butterworth	809
7	Montague's Digest of the Bankrupt Laws, 8vo. 10s. 6d. Butterworth	811
8	Compendium of the Poor Laws, 8vo. 6s. 6d. Butterworth	812
9	Hands's Solicitor's Practice in K. B. 8vo. 10s. 6d. Butterworth	ibid
10	Horne's Compendium of Admiralty Laws, 12mo. 4s. 6d. Clarke	813
11	Collier on the Law of Patents, 8vo. 10s. 6d. Longman and Rees	ibid
12	Tidd's Practice of the Court of K. B. 2 vols. 8vo. 1l. 4s. 0d. Clarke	814
13	Lee on Captures in War, 8vo. 9s. Clarke	ibid
14	Colquhoun's Duties of a Constable, 8vo. 3s. 6d. Mawman	815
15	Evans's View of Lord Mansfield's Decisions, 2 vols. 4to. 2l. 14s. 0d. Butterworth	ibid
16	Williams's Law Cases, 8vo. vol. 5, 16s. Robinsons	ibid
17	Pott's Law Dictionary, 12mo. 10s. 6d. Ostell	816
18	Montefiore's Law of Copyright, 8vo. 2s. 6d. Wallis	ibid
19	Peltier's Trial for a Libel against Buonaparté, 8vo. 12s. Jones	ibid
20	Select Criminal Trials, 8vo. 9s. Longman and Rees	817

CHAPTER XX.—*Mathematics.*

1	Montucla's Histoire des Mathematiques, 4to. 4 vols. Dulau	818
2	Carnot's Geometrie de Position, 4to. Boosey	821
3	Maseres's Tracts on Equations, 8vo. 12s. White	824
4	Small's Account of Kepler, 8vo. 7s. 6d. Mawman	825

Digitized by Google

Page.

5 Connoissance des Temps, 8vo. Dulean — — — — 827
6 Hutton's Recreations, 8vo. 4 vols. 3l. 3s. 0d. Kearsley — — — 828
7 Morgan's Price on Annuities, 8vo. 2 vols. 18s. Cadell and Davies — — 829
8 Young's Natural Philosophy, 8vo. 10s. 6d. Robinsons — — — 830
9 Edward's Perspective, 4to. 1l. 14s. 0d. Leigh and Sotheby — — ibid
10 Frend's Evening Amusements, 12mo. 2s. 6d. Mawman — — 832

CHAPTER XXI.—*Natural History.*

1 Shaw's Zoology, 8vo. vol. 4. 2l. 12s. 6d. Kearsley — — — 834
2 Daniel's Rural Sports, 3 vols. royal 8vo. 4l. 4s. 0d. Longman and Rees — 843
3 Montague's Testacea Britannica, 4to. 2l. 2s. 0d. White — — 853
4 Goldsmith's Natural History abridged, 8vo. 9s. Vernor and Wood — — 863
5 Trimmer's Hist. of Quadrupeds, 12mo. 3s. Tegg and Castleman — — 864
6 Spallanzani's Tracts, 2 vols. 8vo. 15s. Longman and Rees — — 865
7 Dictionnaire d'Histoire Naturelle, vol. 1. Dulau — — — 867
8 Turton's Linnæus, 8vo. vol. 1. part 2. Lackington — — — 871
9 Thornton's Illustration of Linnæus, folio, Symonds — — — 873
10 Lambert on the Genus Pinus, atlas folio, 10l. 10s. 0d. White — — 882

CHAPTER XXII.—*General Science.*

1 Philosophical Transactions for 1803, 4to. Nicols — — — 889
2 Ditto abridged by Hutton, &c. 4to. vol. 1. 2l. 2s. Baldwins — — 898
3 Asiatic Researches, vol. 7. 8vo. 12s. and 4to. 1l 4s. 0d. Longman and Rees — ibid
4 Rees's New Cyclopœdia, vol. 2. 4to. 1l. 18s. 0d. Longman and Rees — — 908

CHAPTER XXXIII.—*Experimental Philosophy.*

1 Cavallo's Elements of Natural Philosophy, 4 vols. 8vo. 2l. 2s. Cadell and Davies 917
2 Aldini on Galvanism, 4to. 1l. 1s. 0d. Cuthell and Martin — — 919
3 Johnson's History of Animal Chemistry, 3 vols. 8vo. 1l. 4s. 0d. Johnson — 922
4 Accum's System of Chemistry, 2 vols. 8vo. 18s. and 24s. Kearsley — — 923
5 Black's Lectures on Chemistry, 2 vols. 4to. 3l. 3s. 0d. Longman and Rees — 924

CHAPTER XXIV.—*Mineralogy.*

1 View of the Huttonian and Neptunian Systems, 8vo. 5s. Longman and Rees — 926
2 Sowerby's British Mineralogy, 8vo. No. 1 to 11, 2s. 6d. each, Sowerby — ibid

CHAPTER XXV.—*Architecture and the Fine Arts.*

1 Daniel's Oriental Scenery, &c. imperial folio, 1st, 2d, and 3d Series, 90l. White 927
2 Elsam on Rural Architecture, 4to. 2l. 2s. 0d. Taylor — — — 931
3 Repton on Landscape Gardening, 4to. 5l. 5s. 0d. Taylor — — — 932

CHAPTER XXVI.—*Bibliography.*

1 Ritson's Bibliographia Poetica, crown 8vo. 9s. Nicol — — — 938
2 Bibliographical Dictionary, 12mo. Vol. 2, 3, 4, 5s. each, Baynes — — 939

Digitized by Google

Digitized by Google

THE

ANNUAL REVIEW;

AND

HISTORY OF LITERATURE.

CHAPTER I.

VOYAGES AND TRAVELS.

ON comparing the books of voyages and travels, and foreign topography, which have been published during the last year, with those that are noticed in the former volume of the Annual Review, there will be found a small increase in number, on account of the short cessation of hostilities between Great Britain and France. As soon as the treaty of Amiens was signed, multitudes of our countrymen were induced by interest and curiosity to visit a nation, doubly striking from the political changes that it had undergone, and the gigantic energies that it had displayed; in whose capital were concentrated all those luxuries and elegancies that native ingenuity could invent, or of which an unexampled series of victories could compel the surrender from Italy and Germany. Itineraries and guides, maps of the roads, and plans of Paris, were the first publications that indicated the new direction of our moveable population, which during the war had passed the summer months among the watering-places, and the mountains of Wales, Cumberland, and Scotland. The eagerness of those who remained at home to hear the remarks of their countrymen upon the state of France and its metropolis, was first gratified by the "Journal of a Party of Pleasure to Paris," noticed in our former volume: this publication was soon succeeded by others of various merit, and the number would doubtless have much increased, if the sudden recommencement of the war had not again closed the ports of France to British visitors. Among the works on this subject which fall within the limits of our present volume, the "Rough Sketch of Modern France" deserves particular distinction: the information communicated is great in quantity, and most judiciously selected; the advantages and inconveniences, the circumstances of pleasure or disgust, the vices and the virtues of modern France are stated in an able and

Digitized by Google

truly candid manner. To the visitor of Paris, it would have proved an excellent manual, and those who have missed the opportunity of personal inspection, may here obtain a correct and interesting representation of that great metropolis. Mr. Carr's "Stranger in France" is also a book of much and peculiar merit, as its author seems to have enjoyed freer access to the society of Paris than most other British travellers. Mr. Weston's Praise of Paris, and Mr. Morris's View of Modern France, are entitled to notice; the former as a light elegant sketch, and the latter as containing all that kind of information which it is essential for a traveller, a stranger, and especially an Englishman, to be acquainted with. The travels of M. Karamsin, a young Russian, have been translated into English: from Moscow he traversed Prussia and Germany to Swisserland, whence he proceeded to Paris and London. The principal objects of his attention seem to have been the manners and state of society in the various countries which he visited; but without a perfect command of the language, a long residence, and numerous introductions, it is in vain to hope for accuracy in these important, complicated, and highly interesting investigations. Mr. Muirhead has presented the public with the result of his observations on a journey through Holland, the Low Countries and part of Germany. It is a work that indicates the good sense of the author, and will be read with satisfaction by those who are not so unreasonable as to expect much novelty of description in a route that has been so long worn by the wheels of British travellers. Mr. Hunter has republished his travels, with some additional letters relative to Hungary; but they are more calculated to interest his private friends than communicate information to the scientific or general reader. The late Mr. A. Butler's journey through the Low Countries, France and Italy, in the years 1745-6, has been published, we know not why, except perhaps to inform the catholics in this country of the religious foundations established by their ancestors on the continent, and to prop up the declining reverence for relics and monastic institutions. The second volume of Professor Pallas's tours in the Crimea has made its appearance, and compleats our knowledge of this celebrated and interesting country.

Egypt being restored to its former anarchy, is no longer in a situation to excite the hopes and fears of any European state; and the two warlike nations who so lately made it the theatre of their furious contentions, are mustering their forces for nearer and more desperate enterprizes. The memory however of our Egyptian campaign has not yet lost its interest. Captain Walsh's "History of the Military Proceedings," (which, on account of its technical nature, we have referred to chap. xiv.) is a most valuable and authentic document. The author of the "Non-military Journal" sketches, with a light though faithful pencil, the principal occurrences and objects that presented themselves in the casual intervals from active service. Dr. Wittman, presuming on the indiscriminate curiosity of the public, has risked his character, by allowing his name to be prefixed to a work copied, for the most part, from Maundrel and other travellers.

Our acquaintance with Africa has not been much increased during the last year. Those, however, who read with discrimination may collect some particulars worth knowing from Dr. Winterbottom's "Account of the Settlement of Sierra Leone;" from Mr. Curtis's travels in Barbary, and the translation of M. Golbery's observations on the country about the Senegal. The

Digitized by Google

"Walks about the Cape of Good Hope" give, in a short compass, many interesting pictures of the immediate vicinity of that settlement, and of the manners of its inhabitants.

The Pelew Islands, so advantageously introduced to notice by the narrative of the late Mr. Keate, have been again visited, and have experienced the munificent gratitude of the East India Company, the particulars of which are subjoined as an appendix to a new edition of Mr. Keate's work.

But the most valuable publication, in this department of literature, which the last year can boast of, is Mr. Percival's account of the Island of Ceylon. We have seldom seen a book so uniformly excellent; every page is pregnant with information: the judicious selection of facts, the plain and unaffected language in which they are communicated, and the humane and generous spirit which breathes through the whole, are truly honourable to the abilities and principles of the author.

No modern voyages of discovery have been recorded during the last year, but two historiographers of former expeditions have offered themselves as candidates for public approbation.

Mr. Clarke has undertaken, with dubious success, to illustrate the expeditions of the Portugueze on the coast of Africa and the East Indies; and Captain Burney has commenced, with more favourable auspices, a History of the Discoveries in the South Sea.

ART. I. *A Chronological History of the Discoveries, in the South Sea or Pacific Ocean.* Part I. *Commencing with an Account of the earliest Discovery of that Sea by Europeans; and terminating with the Voyage of* SIR FRANCIS DRAKE, *in* 1579. *Illustrated with Charts. By* JAMES BURNEY, *Captain in the Royal Navy.* 4to. pages about 400.

THE plan and object of this work are explained by the author in a dedication to Sir Joseph Banks: "it is intended as a contribution towards the advancement of a plan for the digest of maritime geographical discovery; a work which has long been wanted, and which every addition to the general stock, renders more necessary."

"The utility of method and compression, to prevent irregular exuberance in so important a branch of science, is evident beyond contradiction. The manner in which the attempt may be made with the best prospect of success, seems the only object of enquiry. Various modes of reducing the voyages into methodical order present themselves; and probably each so far eligible as to possess some peculiar advantage.

"To place the whole in the order of time, would be attended with this great inconvenience, that to obtain a satisfactory account of any one subject, it might be requisite to consult every volume in the collection, however extensive.

"To distinguish the discoveries of different nations, making a distinct class of the voyages of each, is liable to the same objection.

"A third method, which seems to me to possess many, if not the greatest advantages, is that of classing the voyages according to some hydrographical division of the globe. This has been attempted, but in few instances with any tolerable degree of success. If the divisions have been judiciously allotted, they have not been strictly preserved. The same irregularity has prevailed in collections which consist wholly of republications, where it is difficult to imagine that any good reason could exist against an adherence to correct arrangement.

"It is not to be supposed that any mode of arranging the subject could be devised, which would obviate every inconvenience. The following division is proposed as one which appears capable of preserving its classes in a great measure distinct from each other.

"The first class may contain the voyages to the north of Europe; those in the North Seas, and towards the North Pole.

"The second, those along the West coast of Africa to the Cape of Good Hope; and the discoveries of the Atlantic islands.

"The third, East from the Cape of Good

Digitized by Google

Hope to China, including the Eastern Archipelagos between New Holland and the coast of China. Japan might have a section to itself as a supplement to this class.

"The fourth might contain the whole of the discovery of the East side of America, except the Strait of Magalhanes and of Le Maire, which are more connected with the voyages to the South Sea.

"The fifth class may comprehend the circumnavigations and voyages to the South Sea. With these, the discoveries on the West coast of North America are so much interwoven, that they cannot without disadvantage, be separated.

"The discoveries made by the Russians in the seas near Kamtschatka, and from thence to the North, would appear not improperly as a supplement to the fifth class.

"New Holland might form a sixth class. This country would naturally have divided itself between the third and fifth, had not its importance so much increased within the few last years, that it now requires a distinct class to itself.

"For the subject of the present work, I have chosen the discoveries made in the South Sea; to which my attention has been principally directed, from having sailed with that great discoverer and excellent navigator, the late Captain Cook; under whose command I served as Lieutenant in his two last voyages."

Upon this plan Captain Burney has condensed into one volume, the history of the discoveries in the South Sea, from the time when it was first known to Europeans, to the voyage of Sir Francis Drake.

Nec mole dum decrescit, usu fit minor,
Quin auctior jam evadit, & cumulatius
Contracta prodest erudita pagina.
Sic ubere magis liquor e presso effluit;
Sic pleniori vasa inundat sanguinis
Torrente cordis Systole; sic fusius
Procurrit æquor ex Abylæ angustiis.

Three centuries ago the whole of the Pacific Ocean, and even its existence, was unknown to Europeans; the geographers of that time believed that one open sea extended from the western shores of Europe and Africa, to the eastern part of Asia. Upon this error Columbus proceeded; mistaken as the Portugueze were in their estimate of the talents of the adventurer, perhaps the greatest man and the most blameless whom modern times have produced, their reason for rejecting his offered services was well founded, and actually in consequence of their superior science; he proposed to reach Japan, the Cypango of Marco Paolo, by sailing westward. Joam II. referred his project to the Bishop of Ceuta, Mestre Rodrigo and Mestre Josepe his cosmographers, and they with good reason pronounced it impracticable; they affirmed that they were seeking India in the true direction, and they were right. Columbus persevered, and his discoveries received the name of India from his accredited error. When it had been ascertained that America was not a part of Asia, its extent was not supposed to be such as to obstruct a western passage to the eastern Indies. At the very time when Vasco da Gama was on his voyage, the two Cabots sailed from England, in quest of a way to the north of the Spanish discoveries. In 1500 Gaspar Corte-Real sailed from Lisbon or the Azores in the track of the Cabots: he discovered the Labrador coast, and sailing a second time to prosecute his discovery, was heard of no more. His brother Miguel sailed with two ships in search of him, and they also were lost. King Emanuel, who was attached to the brethren, for they had been brought up in his household, sent out two vessels to seek them, but no tidings were ever obtained; the province which they had discovered and called Terra Verde, was called, in remembrance of them, Terra dos Corte-Reaes. The third brother, Vasco Eannes, would have followed in their search, but Emanuel forbad him, being now warned by experience.

The first Europeans who saw the main land of America were the English under Cabot, but the whole glory is due to Columbus. It has been idly regretted that Americus Vespucius should have affixed his name to the new world, as if any real honor had accrued to him from the success of his falsehood. When America is named, who thinks of its derivation from Americus or Amerigo, or Aymerique? Next to the bible, no history is so generally known as the voyages of Columbus: Vespucius is now never mentioned but to be censured; by perpetuating his name, he has only obtained a perpetuity of disgrace.

In a chart printed at Rome 1508, Brazil, or Terra de Santa Cruz, as it was then called, is delineated as being separate from the northern continent. But now every year furnished new discoveries, for never at any period was the human race so persevering and desperate in enterprize. The Europeans were certain that a sea existed to the west of the new continent, because they knew that the eastern parts of China were

Digitized by Google

washed by the ocean; but the first actual information of this sea which they obtained,

"Was given to the Spanish conquerors by the native Americans. Basco Nunnez de Balboa, a Spanish commander at Darien, to verify the intelligence he had received, marched with a body of Spaniards, and with Indian guides, across the isthmus. He was opposed in the passage by the natives. They demanded who the bearded strangers were, what they sought after, and whither they were going? The Spaniards answered, 'they were christians, that their errand was to preach a new religion, and to seek gold; and that they were going to the southern sea.' This answer not giving satisfaction, Balboa forcibly made his way. On arriving at the foot of a mountain, from the top of which he was informed that the sea he so anxiously wished to discover was visible; he ordered his men to halt, and ascended alone. As soon as he had attained the summit, he fell on his knees, and with uplifted hands returned thanks to heaven, for having bestowed on him the honour of being the first European that beheld the sea beyond America. Afterwards, in the presence of his followers, and of many Indians, he walked up to his middle in the water, with his sword and target; and called on them to bear testimony that he took possession of the South Sea, and all which appertained to it, for the King of Castile and Leon.

"The particular position of the coast of that part of the American continent from whence the sea on the other side was first discovered, appears to have stamped on it the denomination of the South Sea. The isthmus of Darien lies nearly east and west; consequently, there the two seas appear situated, the one to the north, and the other to the south. If the new sea had been first discovered from any part to the south of the bay of Panama, it would probably have received some other appellation. A consequence resulting from the name thus imposed has been, that the Atlantic ocean, by way of contra-distinction, has occasionally been called the North Sea, even in its most southern part."

Only two years after this discovery the court of Spain sent Juan Diaz de Solis to explore the southern coast of America, and seek out a passage into the South Sea and to the Spice Islands. Juan Diaz was one of the most able navigators of his time; but he was slain by the natives near the Rio de la Plata, and upon his death the remainder of his people returned. The next expedition was under the command of Fernam de Magalhaens. Captain Burney we believe is mistaken in the orthography of this name; he says,

"The Spanish authors call him *Magallanes*, and generally with the christian name *Hernando*. *Galvaom*, *De Barros*, and others of his countrymen, write the name *Fernando de Magalhanes*, and this orthography has been adopted by Mr. Dalrymple. The strange practice (for it is one of those which custom cannot familiarise) of translating proper names, even when composed of words which have no descriptive or second meaning, has not been neglected in that of *Magalhanes*. In Spanish it is *Magallanes*; in Italian, *Mugaghanes*; and the English of *Magalhanes* has been *Magellan*."

In the last edition of Barros the name is spelt *Fernaõ de Magalhães*, which the Portugueze, when they disuse the til, write *Fernam de Magalhaens*. When they call him *Magalhanes*, they represent the sound of his Spanish name in Portuguese orthography, *Castilianizing* it, as he expatriated himself. Captain Burney is so very accurate a writer, that we are sure he will be pleased to see the minutest errors of his volume pointed out. He should write Galvam, not Galvaom, Barros, or Joam de Barros, never *De* Barros.

"Fernando de Magalhanes, by birth a Portuguese, and of a good family, who had served five years with reputation in the East Indies, under the celebrated Albuquerque, thinking his services ill requited by the court of Portugal, banished himself from his native land, and solicited employment from the king of Spain. He was accompanied by one of his countrymen, Ruy Falero, who was esteemed to be a good astronomer and geographer. They offered to prove that the Molucca islands fell within the limits assigned by the pope to the crown of Castile, and undertook to discover a passage thither, different from the one used by the Portuguese. It is said that they first presented their plan to Emanuel, king of Portugal, who rejected it with displeasure; probably, being of opinion that it would be prejudical to the interests of the Portuguese, who were then quietly suffered by the rest of Europe to possess exclusively the advantages of the East Indian navigation, to encourage the discovery of a new route to those seas. An enterprize of such a nature, undertaken by one of their countrymen, for the benefit of foreigners, must naturally have excited great indignation in the Portuguese; and to this sentiment may be attributed several anecdotes which the writers of that nation have related to the disadvantage of Magalhanes."

The Portugueze accuse him of peculation; that when a large booty had been made from the Moors in Africa, he and one Alvaro Monteiro who kept the

watch, sold four hundred head of the cattle whom they had taken, back again to the Moors; and when they had been safely driven off, gave the alarm that they were stolen. The circumstances of this knavery are singular, but the crime has been common. Cortes plundered his own soldiers, and the history of prize money, from the first conquest in the West Indies to the last, seems to contradict a common adage. Ruy Falero's character has been defamed with less appearance of reason; they say he knew nothing of astrology, astronomy, or geography, and that whatever came from him upon these sciences was by the help of a familiar spirit. Ruy Falero wanted to bring the Moluccas on the Spanish side of the line of demarcation. If the devil had any thing to do with that line, it must have been that he was concerned with the Pope in drawing it; a geographical dispute may be carried on without his assistance. But whatever may have been the former crimes of Magalhaens and Falero, it is certain that in this project they acted as enemies to their own country, and the ineffaceable blot must remain upon them.

"There yet exist accounts of the navigation of Magalhanes that have not been published. In Biblioth. Pinelo de Leon, two manuscripts are mentioned under the title of Navegacion de Magallanes; one of them with the name of Duarte de Resendi, at one time governor or agent for the Portuguese at the Moluccas (Factor de las Malucas) of whom Argensola says, that he was 'a curious man,' and that he preserved likewise the papers of Andres de San Martin."

These papers of the unfortunate astrologer, Andres de San Martin, were given by Duarte de Rezende to the historian Barros; he says that the observations were purposely falsified by Andres to favour the Spanish claim; this circumstance was confessed by one of the crew, who died afterward on his way to India in a Portugueze vessel. Barros calls this man Bustamente, and the name appears in Herrera's list of the eighteen Europeans who returned. It is certain that Rezende wrote an account of the voyage and dedicated it to Barros, who was his kinsman. This manuscript, if it could be recovered, would probably be very valuable.

On the 20th of September 1519, Magalhaens sailed from San Lucar, with a squadron of five ships and 236 men; he had scarcely passed Teneriffe before his officers began to murmur at the course he held. At Rio Janeiro they purchased provisions, &c. for slaves; it was then a cheaper market than it is now, for the natives gave six fowls for the king out of a pack of cards, and thought they had made a good bargain. It was Easter before they reached a port which they called San Julian, in latitude 49° 18′ south; here the commander determined to pass the winter season; his people wanted to return: the traitor is never trusted; they argued that Magalhaens wished to purchase his pardon from the king of Portugal by destroying a Spanish fleet. Nothing could be more absurd than such a supposition, but there is no absurdity which, if it heightens fear, the fearful will not believe. The officers deeply hated their general, thinking it was a disgrace that Spaniards should be commanded by a Portugueze. The manners of Magalhaens were ill calculated to conciliate their hostile spirits, he was a resolute and even headstrong man, conscious of his natural superiority, and provoked to the full exercise of his power by the thwartings of envy and mutinous pride. Three of his captains conspired against him; he possessed the confidence of the inferior officers and seamen, among whom were several of his country, and lost no time in quelling these enemies. On board the one ship he sent a man with a letter to the captain, and a dagger to stab him while reading it; this assassination restored his authority there. He boarded the second ship and secured the mutineers, and then the third submitted. One of the captains was hung and quartered, the other set on shore with a French priest and left there. While Magalhaens remained here, one of his ships was wrecked, in an attempt to explore the coast; the crew was however saved.

"The fleet had lain two months in Port San Julian, without any natives having been seen. One day, when it was least expected, a man, of a gigantic figure, appeared on the beach nearest the ships. He was almost naked: he sung and danced, at the same time sprinkling dust upon his head. A seaman was set on shore, with orders to make gestures similar to those of the Indian, intended for signals of amity, which was so well performed and comprehended, that the 'giant' accompanied him to the captain general. He pointed to the sky, as if to enquire whether the Spaniards had descended from above. The object which most astonished him, was his own figure in a looking-glass; at the first

Digitized by Google

sight of which he started back so suddenly as to overturn four Spaniards who were behind him. "This man," says Pigafetta, "was so tall that our heads scarcely came up to his waist, and his voice was like that of a bull." More of the natives shewed themselves on the shore near the ships, making signs that they wished to come on board; and, says a Spanish author, 'greatly marvelling to see such large ships, and such little men.' A boat was sent, and they were taken to the Capitana. The description given by Herrera of the size of these people, has more the appearance of truth than that given by Pigafetta. Herrera says, the least of the men was larger and taller than the stoutest man of Castile They had bows and arrows, and were clothed in clokes made of the skins of some animal neatly sewed together. A kettle of pottage was made with biscuit for them, sufficient to have satisfied twenty Spaniards, which six Indians entirely eat up. When they had finished their meal, and satisfied their curiosity, they desired to go, and a boat carried them to the shore.

"The next day, two of the natives brought some venison (which was the flesh of the animal whose skin served them for clothing). In return they received each a present of a red jacket, with which they were much pleased. The day after, one of the Indians brought more venison The same man visited them several days following. He was taught to pronounce the Lord's prayer, and at length was christened by the name of Juan Gigante."

English sailors would certainly have christened this man Little John, or rather indeed have given him the name without the ceremony. The account of this interview in Harris has many circumstances not to be found in Captain Burney; we transcribe it on this account, and also because it is an admirable specimen of narrative, such as our forefathers wrote, when men regarded what they were to write, and not how they should write it.

"At last to put an end to the solitude, a certain giant of the neighbouring parts came up to give them a visit; a brisk, jolly, frolicksome fellow, very merrily disposed, singing and dancing all the way as he came. Being got to the haven, he stood there and threw dust upon his head; which they observing sent some ashore to him, who making the like signs of peace, upon that assurance he came along with them to the ship, without any thing of fear or scruple. His bulk and stature was such as would easily allow him the character of a giant; the head of one of their middle-sized men reached but to his waist, and he was proportionably big. His body was formidably painted all over, especially his face; there were a couple of stags drawn, one upon each cheek, and great red circles about his eyes, his colours were otherwise mostly yellow, only his hair was done with white.

"For his apparel, he had the skin of a certain beast, clumsily sewed together; but a beast as strange as that was that wore it; every way unaccountable, neither mule, horse, nor camel, but something of every one, the ears of the first, the tail of the second, and the shape and body of the last. 'Twas an entire suit, all of one piece from head to foot; as his breast and back were covered with it above, so his very legs and feet were wrapped up in the same beneath. The arms that he brought with him were a stout bow and arrows; the string of the former was a gut, or sinew, of that monstrous beast, and the latter instead of iron heads, were tipped with sharp stones.

"The admiral made him eat and drink, and he enjoyed himself very comfortably a shipboard, till he happened to peep in a great looking-glass that was given him among other trifles. This put him into a fright that he could not easily recover from; the dismal face he saw there, stared him quite out of all countenance and courage, and he started back with such violence, that he tumbled a couple of the men that stood by him to the ground. This was a sign that he was thoroughly and effectually frightened; but no doubt, the thing that appeared to him, will be thought sufficient to do it, if the foregoing description be well considered. A pair of great stags with branched horns and the flaming circles drawn about the eyes: what hobgoblin could have a worse look then this? a damon's face in a vizzard mask, with a set of long teeth, and a nose of half a yard, could not have more power over the imagination, and give a man a worse shock of a sudden, than such a sight."

It is remarkable that so many circumstances should appear in this account, which are not noticed in the volume before us, for Captain Burney is in general so excellently minute that he leaves nothing to be gleaned from his documents. Harris's narrative is "taken out of Anthony Pigafetta," of course either from the abridged translation made by order of Louisa of Savoy, or from the version in Ramusio. The present author has followed the copy lately discovered

Digitized by Google

in the Ambrosian library, and being reasonably satisfied with the fullest and most authentic copy, did not think it necessary to examine an abridgment. But it is very probable that Pigafetta's original manuscripts differed from each other, that in writing one he recollected particulars which he had forgotten, or from haste or indolence had omitted in another, and that thus the abridgment of one copy may supply what is wanting in the entire text of another.

The conduct of the Spaniards to these unoffending people was truly abominable. "They filled their hands with toys and little things that pleased them, and in the mean-time put iron shackles upon their legs, which the wretches thought were very fine play-things as well as the rest, and were pleased with the jingling sound of them, till they found how they were hampered and betrayed." Pigafetta says they worshipped the devil; the Patagonians had more reason to say the same of their visitors, judging them by their works.

Toward the latter end of October they came to the Cape called De las Virgines, in honour of the eleven thousand companions of Saint Ursula, on whose festival they had discovered it. On examining the strait, little doubt remained that it would lead them to the South Sea; but it appeared on enquiry that they had only provisions enough for three months left: upon this Magalhaens summoned a council. One of his pilots voted for returning to Spain, the majority were for proceeding, and the commander himself affirmed, that, were it even certain they should be reduced to the necessity of eating the hides that were on the ships yards, his determination was to proceed and make good his promises to the emperor. He then gave orders that no one, on pain of death, should speak of returning, or of the shortness of provisions.

The account given by Joam de Barros differs materially from this. Captain Burney has not noticed it; it is however drawn from such documents as entitles it to credit. He says, that, after one of the ships had deserted (an event which the other histories represent as subsequent to the council), Magalhaens, knowing that the greater part of his people were hostile to him and his plans, was exceedingly perplexed. For his own justification he was obliged to ask the opinion of his officers, and yet feared to call a council, lest they should break out into mutiny. He therefore sent a written paper to the two other ships, requiring the written opinion of the officers in reply. Barros affirms that he had a book in his possession, in which Andres de San Martin, the astrologer and cosmographer of the voyage, had entered this paper and his own reply to it, and he gives both at length. In this Magalhaens says, that he is a man who never rejected advice, though since the mutiny at Port San Julian they had all been afraid to declare their opinions; that he knew they thought it wrong to proceed, but he commanded them in the name of the emperor, and by virtue of his own authority, each to give him his written opinion whether to advance or return, and the reasons for such conclusion. San Martin in his answer advises the commander to go on till the middle of January, for though he himself doubts whether they should find a passage to India through that strait, still they were bound to examine it. After that time he thought they should return, because of the terribleness and tempestuousness *(terribilidade e tempestuosidade)* of the seasons, the sickly condition of the crew, and the scarcity of food. Andres also recommends that during the five hours of darkness they should lie to, for the sake of avoiding danger and of giving the men some rest. These papers are dated November 22. On the 27th they found themselves in an open sea, and Magalhaens is said to have wept for joy at the discovery.

The adventurers now suffered dreadfully in their voyage. Magalhaens was reduced to that extremity of hunger which he had declared himself ready to endure; they actually were compelled to eat the leather from off the rigging, to swallow saw-dust, and to mix sea water with their fresh. Twenty men died of the scurvy. Happily the weather continued so uniformly mild that they gave the sea its appellation of the Pacific: for it appears peculiarly unfortunate, that in crossing so large an expanse of sea, in which so many fruitful islands are numerously scattered, they should see only two solitary and desert islands, so destitute of any thing to relieve them, that they named them Las Desventuradas, the Unfortunate. Captain Burney conceives that they passed very near Otaheite.

On the sixth of March they came in

Digitized by Google

sight of the Ladrones, so named by them on account of the thievish disposition of the inhabitants. When the Spaniards landed to chastise them, the sick requested, if any of them should be killed, to have their intestines, which they were persuaded would cure them in a short time. Pigafetta, who records this circumstance, has not explained how the medicine was to have been administered. It may perhaps be elucidated by a fact repeatedly mentioned in Bernal Diaz. The wounded Spaniards in Mexico for want of oil, used to melt the fat of the Indians and cauterize their wounds therewith. Boiling oil was the remedy for gun-shot wounds, at a much later period, upon the hypothesis that it killed the venom of the wound. It is probable that the Spaniards with Magalhaens designed to apply the same medicine to their scorbutic sores. Why human fat should have been preferred to any other animal grease does not immediately appear, but that the preference was given to it is evident from the facts in Bernal Diaz.

They next reached the archipelago of St. Lazarus, now called the Philippines. Here the inhabitants appear to have united the customs of Hindostan and the South Sea Islands, chewing betel and areca, and tattowing their bodies. Several of the Indian languages were understood at Mazagua, believed to be the island marked Limasava in some of the present charts. A Sumatran slave on board was able to interpret. The Rajah is said to have had each tooth ornamented with three spots of gold. To impress him and his people with a dread of European superiority, a Spaniard in complete armour made his appearance, who sustained the attack of three men, their swords and daggers not making the slightest impression. From hence Magalhaens sailed to Zebu, where with little difficulty he converted the king and queen.

"The new christians were regular in their attendance at the chapel, and the number of proselytes daily increased by the arrival of people from other parts of the island, as well as from other islands, who desired to be baptized. Magalhaens was careful to explain to the King of Zebu, if not the duties required, the many benefits that would accrue to him in becoming a christian; one amongst which, he assured him, would be the power of vanquishing with ease his enemies. The desire of possessing such an advantage, a motive very distant indeed from the spirit of christianity, appears to have been a strong inducement with the king to attach himself with zeal to a religion he was so little able to comprehend. Trusting to the promises of Magalhaens, that he should be rendered the most powerful among the princes of the islands, he acknowledged himself to be a vassal of the crown of Spain. The general, to prove to him the value of the friendship of the Spaniards, and how much it was his interest to continue firm in his allegiance, summoned a meeting of the other chiefs, four of whom attended. These were required formally to submit themselves to the new christian king as their sovereign, and threatened that their refusal to obey him as such, would be punished with death, and confiscation of their possessions. This menace drew from all the chiefs the promise demanded of obedience, and a full acknowledgment of the authority of the christian king. But two of the chiefs, as soon as they were more at liberty, made light of the command. Against one of these the general went with two boats and forty of his men: and coming up with him in the middle of the night, plundered and burnt one of his villages, and set up a cross there."

This spirit of aggression found its merited reward. Magalhaens sent to the king of Matan, a little island near Zebu, to claim tribute for the emperor, and submission to his friend the christian king. The chief of Matan being a brave man, replied that he desired to be on good terms with the strangers, and sent them a present of provisions that he might not be accounted inhospitable; but as to obedience and tribute, he could owe none to those of whom he had never before heard, neither would he submit to do reverence to those he had long been accustomed to command. Magalhaens, notwithstanding the dissuasions of the king of Zebu, and of Serrano one of his own officers, determined to go and punish this contumacy. He landed with about fifty men, being so fully persuaded that no number of Indians could withstand that European force, that he ordered the christian king to remain quietly with his people in their boats, and see how the Spaniards fought. A kind of missive battle took place during the greater part of the day, till

"At length, the ammunition of the Spaniards began to fail, and their fire slackened, which being observed by the islanders, they pressed on, and Magalhanes found it necessary to order a retreat. The christian king, during the whole of this time, had paid the most exact obedience to the commands he had re-

Digitized by Google

ceived from the general; he and his men looking quietly at what was passing, without moving from their canoes. Early in the retreat, Magalhanes was wounded in the leg by an arrow; his person being known to the Indians, their efforts were principally directed against him. The boats were still at a distance, the shore being flat and rocky; and many of the Spaniards, instead of making an orderly retreat, hastened towards them with precipitation. The helmet of Magalhanes was twice beaten off with stones; his right arm being wounded, he could not use his sword; and being closely pressed on by multitudes, he was brought to the ground. When he was down, an Indian killed him with a lance."

The king of Zebu now determined to make his peace with the chiefs whom he had offended, by sacrificing the Spaniards who had encouraged him to acts of ambitious aggression. He invited the two new commanders and officers to an entertainment ashore, that they might receive the presents designed for the emperor; they went, and were all murdered at the banquet, except Serrano, who was much in favour with the Indians. Him they led down, manacled and naked, to the shore, for the ships had begun to fire upon the town. He begged his countrymen to desist from firing, for his sake, and intreated to be ransomed, the Indians demanding two pieces of ordnance for his release. Carvallo, who was the principal officer remaining, affected to apprehend farther treachery, hoisted sail and fled, leaving Serrano to their mercy: from his cries, which were heard on board, it was believed that he was immediately put to death. Carvallo acted this base and cowardly part, because he expected to be chosen commander in chief, as in fact he was.

Their number was now reduced to 115 men, too small a company for the management and defence of three ships, the oldest was therefore burnt. At the different islands whereby they passed they enquired for Borneo, knowing that there they should obtain notice of the Moluccas. They reached this island in July.

Here also the Spaniards were treacherously treated, not from any misconduct of their own, but from that justifiable hostility with which all the Asiatics regarded Europeans, after the arrival of Vasco da Gama in India. Three of their little company were made prisoners, and by some unaccountable mismanagement were left in the king of Borneo's power, though the Spaniards in reprisal carried away nineteen of his subjects.

In November they reached Tidore, thus accomplishing their outward voyage. Here they formed alliances with the native kings, which occasioned many an after dispute with the Portugueze, and here they took in a cargo of spices. As they were departing the Trinidad sprung a leak; the king of Tidore sent divers to examine her bottom, they dived with their long hair loose, because they imagined that the water entering the ship would draw the hair to that part and indicate the place of the leak. It was found necessary to careen her, and as this would be a work of time, it was determined that the Vitoria should proceed without delay to Europe by the Cape of Good Hope. On their homeward voyage they found at Mallua a people, "more resembling brute beasts than men;" so they are described, yet the absurdity of their fashions is peculiar to humanity: before and behind they wore pieces of goats-skin made into the form of tails; they wrapped their beards up in leaves and kept them enveloped in reed-cases. A Molucca pilot told them of a stranger race whose ears were so long, that one served the purpose of a mattress to sleep on, and the other for a coverlid. It must have been amusing to see one of these gentlemen take up his bed and walk. They suffered severely on their passage, losing in all 21 men. We observed, says Pigafetta, when the dead bodies were cast into the sea, that the christians descended always with their faces toward heaven, and the Indians with their faces downwards.

On the sixth of September 1522 the Vitoria arrived at San Lucar, the number of Europeans remaining in her being only eighteen. Magalhaens had sailed from the same port with five ships and 236 men. Three years within fourteen days were employed in this voyage, which Captain Burney well calls, "one of the most extraordinary and eventful that has ever been undertaken, a voyage so forcibly conveying those impressions which can only be communicated by a first discovery, that it will always be contemplated with interest. While the advancement of science shall continue to interest mankind, Magalhaens, whose enterprize and perseverance first practically demonstrated the form of our planet, will be remembered with admira-

Digitized by Google

tion and gratitude." On this account we have been particular in our examination, and also because so accurate and scientific a history of this most important expedition has never before been presented to the public.

The second expedition, by the same course, under Garcia Jofre de Loyasa, was still more unfortunate than the first. The Straits of Magalhaens were then neglected for so many years, that there was a saying that the passage had closed up. The many unfortunate expeditions to the Pacific created a superstitious prejudice against the discovery, and it was asserted that a judgment had fallen upon all who were principally concerned in it. Vasco Nunez de Balboa, the first who saw the South Sea, was beheaded. Magalhaens was killed by pagans. Ruy Falero died raving, and De Lepe, the sailor who first discovered the strait from the top-mast, turned renegado, and so perished eternally for a Mahommedan. But though this course was for a while abandoned, the South Sea was explored with ability and perseverance, from Panama and the other Spanish settlements on that coast. California was discovered by Cortes, and its gulph examined. The discoveries to the north of Mexico, the expeditions to the Philippines, the discovery of the Salomon Island, and the various smaller groupes or single isles are detailed accurately and scientifically. Captain Burney examines the reports concerning the discovery of a southern continent; they exhibit, he says, a curious mixture of the probable and the fabulous, and he thinks that if any such land was seen by Juan Fernandez, it must have been New Zealand.

The voyage of Sir Francis Drake is the last event related in this volume. It would exceed our limits to follow the author through this interesting detail; its conclusion we will copy, in honour to our great navigator, who while he possessed skill and perseverance equal to what Magalhaens displayed, discovers, by his humanity as well as his courage, a true English heart.

"The conduct of Drake in this expedition is, in many particulars, highly to be extolled. Among the commendations which are due to him, the humanity with which he treated the natives of uncivilized countries is not the least. To strangers in general his behaviour was affable and hospitable: towards the Indians, his forbearance, and the various instances of his kindness, were the spontaneous effects of genuine good will. He has been censured for ignorance as a navigator; but there is no evidence to establish such a charge, and much to refute it. A Spanish writer says, that his ignorance is fully manifested in the scarcity of information which appears in his journal. This can only have been said from misapprehension, in attributing to him the defects of others. The accounts published of his voyage, it is true, are as erroneous and defective in the geographical particulars, as those of any of the early navigations: but none of these accounts were written by Drake. The purposes of discovery, or the advancement of science, were not among the motives of his voyage. Whatever journal or account he kept himself, the doubtful complexion of his undertaking would render him more solicitous to conceal than to make public. In the attachment of his people towards him, is evinced the full confidence they placed in his abilities: and among those who most censured his expedition, he is praised 'for conducting it so discreetly, patiently, and resolutely:' and certainly, whatsoever may be said of his undertaking, the character of his abilities may be pronounced superior to attack. It is said of Drake, that he was a willing hearer of every man's opinion, but commonly a follower of his own. If he had not been a well qualified navigator, as well as an expert mariner, it is not to be imagined that he would have projected, and, being under no controul of orders from any superior, would have attempted the execution of so arduous a plan as the seeking for a passage, from the Pacific Ocean to the Atlantic Ocean, by the North of America: upon which attempt, it is justly observed in the Biographia Britannica, that 'his coasting North America to the height of 48 degrees, and endeavouring on that side to find a passage back into our sea, is the strongest proof of his consummate skill and invincible courage."

The fine old epigram upon Sir Francis Drake has not been omitted by this author:

Si taceant homines, facient te sidera notum,
Sol nescit comitis non memor esse sui.

The Stars above will make thee known
If men were silent here,
The Sun himself cannot forget
His fellow traveller.

Old Owen the epigrammatist has one of his mongrel conceits upon the same worthy,

Ambitio Draki nullo reticebitur ævo,
Ambivit Terras per mare Drakus Anas.

There is a still quainter conceit which has somewhat strangely escaped Captain Burney's notice, though his volume evinces a

Digitized by Google

genuine taste for the oddities of our excellent old writers.

O Nature to Old England still
Continue these mistakes,
Give us for our Kings such Queens
And for our *Dur* such Drakes.

The volume concludes with an account of the charts belonging to it, and observations on the geography of the 16th century. An appendix is added, containing remarks on the projection of charts, and the degree of curvature proper to be given to the parallels of latitude.

We consider this work as a very valuable addition to our maritime history. To execute it well required extensive knowledge, diligent research, and great professional skill, and these rare requisites the author evidently possesses. There is nothing superfluous in the volume; whatever is not generally interesting, is either necessary to historical precision, or to practical science. The remaining parts of the work we may reasonably expect to rise in value and in interest, when Captain Burney comes to relate what he himself has seen.

ART. II. *The Progress of Maritime Discovery, from the Earliest Period to the Close of the Eighteenth Century: forming an extensive System of Hydrography. By* JAMES STANIER CLARKE, F. R. S. *Domestic Chaplain to the Prince.* Vol. I. 4to. 980 pages, 13 plates and 5 maps.

FROM the preface to this bulky volume we copy Mr. Clarke's account of his work:

"The introduction to this volume will be found to contain a progressive memoir of maritime discoveries by the Cuthites, and Phenicians, the Greeks, Carthaginians, and Romans. The work itself, after some illustrations of commercial history, in which, among other subjects, the doubtful progress of the Norman mariners is glanced at, proceeds to review the early periods of Portuguese history prior to the fifteenth century; an account is then given of their most distinguished writers on Portuguese Asia and America; and the history of their discoveries follows, from the reign of John the first in 1385, to the arrival of da Gama in 1498 on the coast of Malabar; which completes the first great division of my labours. In the appendix are many curious and scarce tracts respecting navigation, which are intended to elucidate the preceding pages."

Mr. Clarke's introduction fills 230 quarto pages; he entitles it an historical memoir of ancient maritime discoveries. This is altogether a work of supererogation; the antient discoveries are fit subjects for curious enquiry, for antiquarian research: but the dissertation here is misplaced. Whatever they may have been, they were forgotten; they have no more connection with modern discoveries than the history of the Roman republic with the history of the popes.

This memoir commences with a long discourse, for which a text may be found in old Thomas Fuller: "Was not God the first shipwright? and all vessels in the water descended from the loins, or rather ribs, of Noah's Ark? or else who durst be so bold with a few crooked boards nailed together, a stick standing upright, and a rag tied to it, to adventure into the ocean?" The discourse thus opens:

"Imagination has delighted to trace the origin of navigation from the instinct of boyant Nautili, or the appearance of a floating oak, which amidst the sudden ravages of inundation supported the animal that had reposed beneath its shade. The celebrated fragment of Sanchoniatho the Phenician, which Eusebius has preserved, declares that Ousous one of his country, was the first that formed a canoe from a tree half consumed by fire: but the more enlightened historian will desist from the accustomed repetition of Pagan fables, and refer his readers to more sublime and authentic records. He will recal to their attention that stupendous act of divine mercy and immutable justice, by which the human race was punished and preserved; by which the earth was purified throughout its most distant extent: he will affirm, and appeal to heaven for the truth of his opinion, that the great archetype of navigation was the ark of Noah, constructed by divine direction.

"The pagan sage ignorant of that sacred history, was urged by an unpardonable impulse of vanity, to augment the obscurity which time and apostacy had cast over the earliest ages: he therefore assigned with no sparing hand to his own nation, whatever tended to give an idea of high antiquity to its annals; and employed the scattered events of postdiluvian history, as fair spoil, to enrich the splendid tissue of his own narration. Even the insigne of the triads of God, which eastern superstition had distinguished as the trident of the Indian Seeva, was given by a strange infatuation to the Pagan Neptune; whose throne is described as placed in that abyss, which had been employed to destroy the impiety of preceding ages.

"The plausible tale of Grecian mythology being once fabricated, was continued

Digitized by Google

and adorned by succeeding generations. The great masters of history even in our own times have confused themselves and their readers, by referring the important events of the earliest periods, to Osiris and Sesostris, to the Argonauts and Hercules: when at length a sage appeared, who arrested the progress of fable, and vindicated the cause of truth.—The fame of the venerable Bryant needs no eulogium, but enjoys an elevation which succeeding centuries will support. By pointing out a path which all preceding writers had neglected, he recalled his countrymen from the legends of that mythology which had disgraced their writings. Admired and abused, imitated and blamed, Mr. Bryant has preserved the even tenour of his course, and given a new impulse to the literary world."

When the blind lead the blind it is no marvel that they go astray. Mr. Clarke has chosen Jacob Bryant for his guide in antient history; he calls him *a judicious sceptic*, and says that the scarcity of his valuable work will excuse long and frequent citations. Mr. Maurice is another of the author's oracles, but he seems to be unacquainted with the writings of General Vallancey, the great master of the erudite and the confused. He himself partakes the *judicious scepticism* of his school, which consists in disbelieving whatever thwarts their own hypotheses, and quoting the most absurd legends of the most suspicious writers with full faith.

"M. Bailli, in his history of astronomy, after describing its connection with agriculture, chronology, geography, and navigation, takes a general view of the inventors and origin of this science; and, in his third book, considers the state of astronomy before the flood. He scruples not to assign a knowledge of the mariner's compass, and of the clepsydra, to the antediluvians; and also seems inclined to add the use of the pendulum. Mr. Maurice, with considerable ingenuity, supports the same opinion in his valuable history of Hindostan; and after invalidating many of the extravagant and dogmatical assertions of M. Bailli, introduces a sketch of such arts and sciences as may reasonably, and without exaggeration, be presumed to have been cultivated by mankind before the flood. Though Mr. Maurice does not particularly contend for the existence of an antediluvian sphere, he expatiates on the probability of many invaluable astronomical records having been preserved by Noah, among the remains of the wisdom of the antient world; and cites the few passages in profane history, from Josephus, Manetho, and Diodorus Siculus, that seem to illustrate this opinion. But the most curious attestation of this occurs in the oriental philosophy of Mr. Stanley, who gleaned it from the old Chaldean and Arabian authors. Kissæus, a Mahomedan writer, asserts that the Sabians possessed not only the books of Seth and Edris, but also others written by Adam himself; for Abraham, after his expulsion from Chaldea by the tyrant Nimrod, going into the country of the Sabians, opened the chest of Adam; and, behold, in it were the books of Adam, as also those of Seth and Edris; and the names of all the prophets that were to succeed Abraham."

Who can doubt the astronomical knowledge of the antediluvians? nay, who does not hope to see an edition of the works of Adam printed from the original manuscript, after this attestation of the learned Kissæus? But Mr. Clarke does not bow in passive obedience to the authority of his worthy predecessors; he cannot believe, notwithstanding the authority of M. Bailli and Mr Maurice, that the magnet was discovered previous to the flood: for "this," says he, "would argue a degree of skill in science among the antediluvians, sufficient to have counteracted, or opposed, the overwhelming chastisement of the deluge."

Mr. Clarke proceeds to a history of the general deluge, "the universality of which the Arabians to this day strikingly express by their appropriate term of Al Tufan." Al Tufan! who does not perceive the striking and appropriate beauty of the term?* "the word is well-cull'd, choice, sweet and apt, I do assure you, Sir!" Next come the dimensions of the divine Thebath, that Thebath, commonly, yea vulgarly, not to say pulpitetically, nor yet tea-tabellically, and moreover among the speciallest species of porter-drinking, oxyphonic, puppet-show rhetoricians, called, appellated, as

* Yet surely even Al Tufan must yield the palm of expression and appropriate beauty to the Tomogkog of the Catawbas. Mr. Clarke, we perceive, has a true sense of the sublime in language. How is it that he has overlooked the history of the Tufan or Tomogkog in the impressive diction of that great people? Wame tohkékomuash quogkononogkodtash pohquodchuwanash, kah tomogkonne squoantamash kesukqut pohquaemoouk. Here are words worthy to employ the lips, larynx, and lungs of Stentor! what a mouthful for Garagantua! what a gem to have hone among the jewels of Mr. Clarke's Arabian, Hebrew and Sanscrit nomenclatur.

Digitized by Google

the saying is, and annominated Noah's Ark. This is followed by a dissertation upon the mount Ararat, a happy subject, which enables Mr. Clarke to transcribe page after page from Sir Walter Raleigh's History of the World, and from the Asiatic Researches; he carries us not only to Armenia, but to Cashgar, Cashmir, Castwar, C'hasgar and C'hasagar; to Sheybar-Tag or Sheybar-Tau; to Vami-Nagari or Vami-Gram; and to Buddha-Bamiyan, whose venerable title has been maliciously distorted by the Mussulmans into But-Bamiyan; that Bamiyan which is called Sharma-Bamiyan or Sham-Bamiyan, for in Sanscrit Sharma and Shama are synonimous; as in this volume are Sanscrit and Sham. He travels between Bahlac and Cabul, as far as Bahlac and Badacshan, to Balikh and Balkh Bamiyan, to Cala Roh or the Black Mountain, and to Tuct Suleiman or the throne of Solomon; he astonishes us by the depth and darkness of erudition, we must not say *his* erudition, and he overpowers us by the authority of the Puranas and the books of the Banddhists, of the Pharangh-Jehangeri, and the Buddha-dharma-charya-sindhuh.

Yet more *Arkana* of *Arkaiology*, for upon the principles of this great school this must be the true orthography. The historian of maritime discovery returns to the ark, the Thebath or Theba of the learned Theban: the Mundane Egg, the Argo, the Boutus, the Cibotus, the Centaurus, the Archeius, the Amphiprumnais, the Laris, Isis, Rhea and Atargatis of the antients, thus the author informs us; to which we add, from the stores of our own knowledge, the Arkut of the Ohios, the Shawanoes, the Utewas, the Nadouessians, the Messegagues, the Chickasaws, the Cherokees, the Choktaws and Catawbas. He adduces new proofs of the universality of the deluge, and supports the veracity of Moses by the evidence of Mr. Maurice, who personally examined two teeth of an hippopotamus, and the entire tusk of an elephant, which were found buried thirty feet under ground by some workmen of Mr. Trimmer, at Brentford, six miles from London. He gives us also an account of ships actually built after the proportions of the ark, which proved the most complete and perfect models ever constructed for vessels of burthen.

Surely the admiralty will not permit so valuable a hint as this to be lost We trust they will refer it to general Bentham, and that we may soon see a royal Noah in the navy. But we must confess, we doubt the prudence of Mr. Clarke in publishing so important an idea during war; we will not suspect the loyalty of this gentleman, yet the times are serious, we are threatened with invasion, and a fleet of arks would be far more formidable than rafts or gun-boats, especially if it be considered how peculiarly they are adapted for transporting the enemy's cavalry.

Mr. Clarke has got into the labyrinth of fabulous history, and he mistakes every spider's thread for a clue. Here is a great quagmire through which no road has been made; Messrs. Bryant, Maurice and Co. have thrown down waggon loads of rubbish in it, and here comes this labourer and stirs about the dust. We will pass over the remainder of his historical memoir, this miserable patchwork of quotations, and examine the body of the work.

The first section gives a brief sketch of maritime history to the commencement of the fifteenth century. A more accurate account of the northern pirates might have been obtained from Mr. Turner's history of the Anglo-Saxons, a book, which, notwithstanding its defects of style, is assuredly the most laborious and praise-worthy historical work which this country has yet produced. A passage is quoted from Ossian, after Dr. Henry, to inform us "of the name of the daring prince who first invented ships and led a colony into Ireland." Surely it is no longer allowable for any, but a Scotchman, to quote Ossian as authority; moreover it interferes with Noah's claim, and we are therefore surprized to find Larthon placed at the head of the antient company of ship-carpenters. Of the naval power of Catalonia Mr. Clarke has gleaned a scanty knowledge from a French history of Genoa, which is like consulting a French historian for the victories of the English. These defects however are of little import: the progress of maritime discovery, not of maritime power, is Mr. Clarke's subject, and whatever preceded the age of the infant Don Henrique should have been condensed as prefatory matter. But some omissions we must notice and censure. Why are we referred to an unpublished appendix for the discovery of the Canaries? Was the volume already so stuffed with transcription that no

Digitized by Google

room could be found for the extracts from the admirable work of Glas? Beyond a doubt the Canaries were the first discoveries of naval enterprize, and yet in a history of maritime discoveries they are past over! We have to charge Mr. Clarke with a far worse omission: *he has made no mention whatever of the state of naval architecture or of nautical science.*

In the second section begins a sketch of the history of Portugal, compiled from compilations; this also is a work of supererogation, if that name can be applied to works which are not good. We can excuse no superfluous matter in a quarto volume, price three pounds eight shillings, which is to be the first of seven. This section is interlarded with the travels of Benjamin of Tudela, John de Plano Carpini, and William de Rubruquis: these travels are thus introduced as events which "*as they interested the whole attention of modern Europe, could not fail to produce a considerable effect on the minds of the most enterprising and best informed among the Portuguese.*" This is a curious passage; the journal of a Jew's travels in the year 1173 interested the whole attention of modern Europe! "The marvellous narrative of a traveller of Navarre *must have soon excited* the curiosity of Alphonso." By an easy alteration of mood and tense the conjectures of the historian pass into the perfect indicative affirmation of history; he naturally *sought and obtained* a copy of the curious manuscript, and Alphonso *thus received* a new fund of geographical information, which had been hitherto concealed from the general attention of the western world, and the wanderings of a Jew, notwithstanding their eccentricities, may be considered as having opened a path for the enterprising spirit of a more distant age. Mr. Clarke indeed has through the whole section made vigorous deductions from the potential mood; "the manuscripts of learned travellers *must have been* a principal object of research to such a monarch as king Dennis," for so after his French authorities he misnames Diniz; "the expedition of count Henry to the Holy Land *is a point of much importance* in the progress of maritime discovery: *if he actually made such a voyage*, he *probably* obtained some account of the seas and of the geography of India, and *might thus have contributed* to awaken a spirit of commercial enterprize among his countrymen, which at length *effected the developement* of the Indian ocean by the Cape of Good Hope:" the fact is, that count Henry's crusade is a mere fiction, of which we could *effect the developement* if this were the fit place, or if the *developement* had not been sufficiently *effected*. To the end of this section is subjoined what the author calls a concise account of the most distinguished Portugueze writers; in this catalogue there is scarcely a Portugueze name spelt aright, or a Portugueze title printed intelligibly.

The second chapter commences with the reign of John I. the father of prince Henry, whom Mr. Clarke every where calls duke of Viseo: duke of Viseu he was, as the prince of Wales is duke of Cornwall, and it is equally absurd to call either by his inferior title. By the duke of Viseu every Portugueze would understand dom Diogo, who was stabbed by John II. We proceed to the commencement of the discoveries, without dwelling longer upon the blunders which precede it: Mr. Clarke may correct them from Neufoille, or La Clede, or the Universal History.

"John the first, of Portugal, was eminently happy in the abilities and amiable disposition of children, who supported and adorned his throne: the spirit which animated their valour, never encroached on either the honour, or the affection, that was due unto a parent. The liberal education enjoyed by their father, rendered him anxious, that his sons should not alone depend on their rank for respect; and they repaid this solicitude by a generous emulation of his fame. Edward, prince of Portugal, was deeply versed in the laws and constitution of his country, under the immediate eye of his parent; the history of the different kingdoms of Europe, taught him at an early age the difficult, though glorious duty of governing a free people. John distinguished himself both in the camp and cabinet, and united in an uncommon degree the talents of the military character, with the keenness or versatility of the statesman. The fatal expedition to Tangier, which ended in the perpetual captivity of his noble brother Fredinand, never received his suffrage, but from the first was opposed by every argument he could devise. Pedro, duke of Coimbra, was endowed by nature with a quick, yet solid understanding; in whatever light his character is beheld, its brilliancy attracts and gratifies the beholder. His eloquence, the voyages which he had made, and his travels both in Asia and Africa, induced the historian Castera, with others, to style him the Ulysses of his age. Pedro was admired in all the

Digitized by Google

courts of Europe; and, under the standards of the emperor Sigismond, the sword of don Pedro had been seen and dreaded in Germany by the Turks. When called to the helm as regent, he gave the whole of his charts and geographical manuscripts to the Duke of Viseo; who to kindred genius and talents, united the most determined and patient resolution. The religion of this prince, who was grand master of the order of Christ, blessed and elevated his designs; the propagation of the gospel was the sublime object of all his enterprizes: the words that were emblazoned on the shield of this illustrious knight, TALENT DE BIEN FAIRE, prove that he had imbibed the generous virtues of christianity.

"Three years before the reduction of Ceuta, the duke of Viseo had sent, in 1412, a vessel to explore the coast of Africa, which was the first voyage of discovery undertaken by the Portuguese. This attempt, rude as it now appears, was then pregnant with a series of alarm, particularly adapted to depress the resolution of seamen, who are always well versed in legendary horrors. Africa, from time immemorial, has been the land of wonder or fairy illusion; and though the industry of the eighteenth century may have removed many of the plausible theories that darkened the beginning of the fifteenth, we still have gained little more than a knowledge of its coasts. The philosophic ideas of Cicero, who collected whatever had been approved by the antients, were now become the errors of the vulgar; the arguments that convinced the reason of Pliny, may be allowed to have possessed some weight on the minds of Portuguese seamen: they believed, therefore, that the middle regions of the earth, in the torrid zone, teemed with scorching vapours; and that the unexplored southern continent of Africa, after extending in breadth towards the west, diverged with an unbroken sweep to the east; and having joined the continent of Asia to the eastward of the Golden Chersonese, the peninsula of Malacca, was not surrounded by sea, but stretched in breadth to the south pole.

"This first voyage of the Portuguese was annually followed by others; as the duke sent every year some ships to the coast of Africa, they gradually advanced beyond Cape Nam, which extending itself from the foot of Mount Atlas, had hitherto been the impassable limit of European navigation, and accordingly received its name from a negative term in Portuguese. But the mariners, who sailed with every instruction and encouragement their prince could furnish, were arrested in their course by the sight of a tremendous cape; which, at the distance of sixty leagues from the former, stretched boldly out towards the west, and formed the coast, they had hitherto passed from Cape Nam, into an extensive bay. With considerable alarm and disappointment, they beheld a frightful sea raging on the shoals, which agitate its waves for six leagues: the terrors of the torrid zone were not forgot; their imagination presented its fiery flames and scorching vapours, and suggested that they might already have advanced too far. On their return, the dangers of the newly discovered cape were not diminished by narration; and the Spanish term of Bojar was given to the barren and dreary promontory of Bojadore.

"The systems which the narrow faculties of men frame in every age, and substitute for the sublime truths of nature, would here probably have repressed, at least for many years, the daring exploits of navigation, if the unprejudiced and clear mind of the Portuguese prince, had not dared to question the validity of the antient sages, the most enlightened philosophers, and the most accurate geographers, which Greece or Rome had produced. With a judgment matured by the converse of various scientific men, whom his patronage had attracted in Africa; and with a mind enlarged by the perusal of every work, which illustrated the discoveries he had in view, the conqueror of Ceuta returned to Portugal. The high land of Cape St. Vincent, as he approached the coast, displayed the extensive command of an ocean hitherto unexplored; and probably a view of its cliffs, at a time when his mind glowed with future projects of discovery, might suggest the first idea of constructing his romantic town of Sagres, on the *promontorium sacrum* of the Romans. Here, as Faria says, the view of the ocean inspired his hopes and endeavours: removed from the hurry of a court, from the fatigue or indolence of a military life, the prince indulged that genius for mathematics and navigation, which he had hitherto been obliged to neglect. At Sagres, his arsenals and dock-yards were constructed; whilst the industry or skill of the ship-wrights were improved, by the presence of their royal master. Under such auspices, the mariner's compass was brought into general use; a knowledge of the longitude and latitude, and the means by which they could be ascertained by astronomical observation, increased the skill of his seamen. The sea astrolabe, which derives its name from the armillary sphere, invented by Hipparchus at Alexandria, was improved, and introduced into the Portuguese service. Skilful mariners from all countries found encouragement to settle at Sagres. A public school and observatory was opened by the prince, in which an inhabitant of Majorca presided, of the name of James, whose experience in navigation, and the construction of charts, had reached the ears of this promoter of science."

It would be needless to point out the groundless assertions and mistakes of this most inaccurate writer. There is no sufficient authority for affirming that a public school and observatory were

Digitized by Google

opened by prince Henry; the astrolabe was not introduced into navigation till long after that prince's death: if Mr. Clarke will refer to Barros, dec. i. liv. iv. cap. 2. he may there see when and by whom. Proceeding to the discovery of Porto Santo, he says, "the inhabitants were described by the discoverers as being in an intermediate state of civilization, that neither their conduct nor disposition betrayed any signs of ferocity." But it cannot be inferred from Barros that the island was peopled, and from the after history of the place it must be inferred, that like Madeira it was uninhabited. The settlers were compelled to abandon it, because the rabbits whom they had carried there, devoured every vegetable which they attempted to raise. What then became of the natives? did they eat the rabbits? or the rabbits eat them?

The discovery of Madeira is narrated with all the exaggerations of romance:

"It was the firm belief both of the inhabitants of Puerto Santo, and of the most enlightened among the Portugueze, that the sea to the westward beyond that island, which had originally been discovered by Juba, was not navigable on account of weeds and mud; that the course of a ship would also be arrested by concealed rocks, and dreadful whirlpools. This idea had originated with the antients, and was supported by a strange appearance in the horizon, that perplexed the minds of our navigators: to the south-west of Puerto Santo, a thick impenetrable cloud continually hovered on the waves, and thence extended to the heavens. Some believed it to be a dreadful abyss; superstition traced amidst the gloom, the inscription and portal of Dante; whilst the learned pronounced that it could only be the island of Cipango, where Spanish and Portugueze bishops had retired, with other Christians, from the persecuting Moors, and that no one could approach under the penalty of death."

"The Spanish pilot, with the Portugueze who accompanied Gonzales, were now shewn the dreadful shade, which continued to hover in the horizon to the south-west of Puerto Santo. Morales defied the terrors which appalled the greater part of the company; declaring it as his firm opinion, that what they beheld could only be the land they were in search of. After a consultation, it was determined, that the expedition should at least be delayed until the change of the moon, when probably some alteration might take place in this alarming spectre: its tremendous form however still continued; and the whole design would most likely have been frustrated, had not Morales insisted, that the ground of the concealed island being shaded from the sun by thick and lofty trees, a vapour was continually exhaled, which spread itself throughout the sky: he also added, that according to the information he had received from the English seamen in his Moorish dungeon, and the course they described to have held, the land enveloped in the dark cloud could not be very distant.

"The arguments, and experience of Morales, had little effect on the minds of any of his hearers except Gonzales, who at length yielded to their force; and it was secretly agreed between them, that the first favourable morning they should set sail, without any previous communication of their intentions to the rest. Accordingly, when the Portugueze least expected it, the vessels at daybreak, and as Alcaforado relates on St. Elizabeth's day, were found boldly standing with a press of sail towards the dreaded abyss. If we consider the prevailing credulity and ignorance of the age, and the imperfect state of navigation, we must allow that the attempt required the consummate resolution of a mariner. The firmness of Gonzales, and the pilot, increased the apprehensions of those on board; for as the ship advanced, the high and extended vapour was observed to thicken, until it became horrible to view.

"Towards noon the roaring of the sea reverberated throughout the horizon. The Portugueze could no longer endure the painful suspence, and they called loudly on Gonzales, not to persist in a course which must inevitably terminate in their destruction. Gonzales, and the Spanish pilot, attempted to calm their agitation; they urged every possible argument to convince them, that the whole was an idle alarm; and at length reconciled their trembling companions to abide the event. The weather was fortunately calm; but the rapidity of the current obliged Gonzales to have his ship towed by two shallops along the skirts of the cloud; whilst the dashing of the sea on the breakers served as a guide, by which he either increased or diminished his distance.

"As they proceeded, the tremendous vapour gradually lessened towards the east, but the noise of the waves increased; when on a sudden, something of a deeper shade was feebly discerned through the gloom, the vessels still continuing at a great distance. Some persons, who probably caught a faint glance of the rocks, with which the shore is lined, exclaimed, that they saw giants of an enormous size. A clearness was at length remarked on the sea, the hoarse echo of its waves abated; and, to complete their joy, a little point, which received the name of San Lourenço, opened on the astonished spectators: doubling this, the high land to the southward extended before them, and, the cloud being dispersed, the woodlands, for a considerable distance up the mountains, were unveiled."

I have endeavoured, says Mr. Clarke.

Digitized by Google

in this account to reconcile the relation by Alcaforado, who was esquire or equerry to prince Henry, with that of *de* Barros. Having opened the latter part of this account, we will faithfully and to the letter translate the passage in Joam de Barros: "Joam Gonzalvez and Tristram Vaz, being called to a better fortune and more prosperity, did not chuse to return to the kingdom; still less to make their abode in that island, (Porto Santo.) But when Bertolameo Perestrallo had departed, they determined to go and see whether that thick shadow which the island now called Madeira made, was land. For a long time they had not been able to decide this; for, by reason of the great moisture contained there by the thickness of the woods, they always saw it smoaking with vapours, which seemed to them to be thick clouds; and at other times they affirmed that it was land, for marking the place they did not see it cleared away like other parts. So that being moved by this desire, they, seeing the sea fit for their purpose, passed over to it in two barks which they had built with the wood of the island, and they called it Madeira, because of the great and thick woods with which it was covered." *Decade i. book i. chapter iii. page 29. last edition.*

This is the narrative, and the whole narrative, as it is found in Joam de Barros. The method by which Mr. Clarke has *reconciled* it with the relation of prince Henry's *equerry*, is by disregarding the plain tale of the historian, and substituting in its place the whole romance which bears Alcaforados' name: romance we call it, for we do not believe that even Mr. Clarke himself, though he believes in Kissœus and Jacob Bryant, could believe he was recording history when he inserted the tale of the dreadful SHADE and the *dreaded abyss*. The phenomenon, if a fog is to be called a phenomenon, still exists. When abreast of Porto Santo, says Stavorinus, you first perceive a great haziness very like a thick smoke to the S. W. nearly ten degrees above the horizon, which on a nearer approach is dissipated, and the high land of Madeira rises to view, yet still enveloped with clouds, half way downwards from the summits of the hills. Neither Joam de Barros, nor Faria y Sousa, poet and hyperbolist as he was, have exaggerated the common circumstance.

On prince Henry's application to the pope for a bull to establish his right to the discoveries, we are told that the Jesuits were not insensible to the advantages they might thus obtain. Ignatius Loyola was not born till long after prince Henry's death. Mr. Clarke has fallen into the common absurdity of disguising the faults of his favourite: the unfortunate expedition to Tangiers did not arise from the military ardour of king Edward, as he has stated; king Edward was averse to the expedition, but his weak temper yielded to the pertinacity and artifices of Henry. In this instance, a foolish courage led prince Henry; a more criminal cowardice made him desert his brother Pedro in his distresses. These circumstances are not necessarily connected with the "Progress of Maritime Discovery," but Mr. Clarke has uniformly exalted the characters of his heroes by this species of falshood. In one instance he has been guilty of a worse disingenuity: it is in the account of the sufferings of Gama's men from the scurvy:

"With this pestilent infection and sicnesse, our men were greatly discomfited, and many of them dyed thereof; which also put the reste of the companie in greate feare and perplexitie of minde. Yea, and further would haue increased and aggrauated their griefes of bodye, and sorrowes, were it not, *that one* DA GAMA, *a man of good nature and condition, had taken speciall care and vsed greate dilligence, for the recouerye of their healths, and putting them in comfort: who continually visited the sicke, and liberally departed vnto them such wholesome and medicinable things, as for his owne bodye hee had prouided and carried with him. Through whose good counsell giuen, great paines taken, and franke distribution of that he had, many of our men recouered which would otherwise haue died, and all the rest thereby were greatly recomforted.*"

By this passage thus printed in italics, with the name da Gama in capitals, it is evident that Mr. Clarke wishes to make the reader believe that it was the commander of the expedition who thus gave his own private stores of medicine to be divided among the sick. Yet it is rather extraordinary that an historian should call him *one* da Gama; and the absurdity will be felt if we imagine Dr. Hawksworth writing of the benefit which the sailors of the Endeavour experienced from the humanity of *one* Cook. Mr. Clarke instead of condensing a narrative from Castanheda, has given scraps of an old

Digitized by Google

translation, "after a careful comparison" of it with the original Portugueze: but the original Portugueze says, that Paülo da Gama was the man who performed this act of humanity. Paulo da Gama, the brother of Vasco, to whom the command of the expedition was first offered, but who declined it, not having health for the charge, and consented to serve under his brother, and who died himself on his return, perhaps from the want of those very medicines which he had thus distributed. Did Mr. Clarke make this ungenerous alteration himself? or did he only aid and abet the old translator in this lie by implication, by permitting the mistranslation to remain after his "careful comparison," and forcing it into notice by italic types and capitals? The character of Vasco da Gama has been usually misrepresented; we have been taught to class him with Columbus, for his hideous and hellish cruelties have been industriously concealed.

An account of Cada Mosto's two voyages concludes the history of the discoveries during prince Henry's life. It is remarkable that Barros makes no mention of this navigator, though his narrative was printed nearly fifty years before the publication of the first decade.

The next section narrates the voyages of Pedro da Cintra, and the Portugueze pilot from Ramusio; and carries on the history till the death of John II. One ludicrous error must be noticed for its oddity: the king of Portugal is said to have had a Jew rabbi for his confessor. In his account of Covilham Mr. Clarke has been misled by Bruce. Frequent dispatches, says that traveller, came from him to the king of Portugal, who, on his part, spared no expense to keep open the correspondence.

"In his journal Covillan described the several ports in India which he had seen; the temper and disposition of the princes; the situation and riches of the mines of Sofala: he reported that the country was very populous, full of cities both powerful and rich; and he exhorted the king to pursue, with unremitting vigour, the passage round Africa, which he declared to be attended with very little danger; and that the cape itself was well known in India. He accompanied this description with a chart, or map, which he had received from the hands of a moor in India, where the Cape, and cities all around the coast, were exactly represented."

This is in direct contradiction of all the Portugueze historians; no tidings were ever received from Covilham, from the time when he entered Abyssinia, till the Portugueze found him there, long after king John's death. Ruy de Pina, in his chronicle of king John, mentions him as a man lost; and all the other historians affirm that he was never heard of till after the lapse of many years. The passage in Bruce is very extraordinary: it will hardly be supposed that he found copies of Covilham's journal and chart in Abyssinia; but unless he actually did find such copies, the only solution is, that he wrote the passage from memory, having no documents before him, and has thus altered the account which was sent *orally* by the Jew from Cairo, into written papers from Abyssinia. That the passage is erroneous is indisputable. Some hydrographical remarks are appended to this section; here the author mentions as a desideratum, accurate observations of the width and depth of *all the rivers in the world*, with observations on their bars.

In the following section we have a rambling inappropriate retrospect of Indian history, from the Macedonian discoveries to the close of the fifteenth century.

The last section comprizes the outward voyage of Vasco da Gama. This is related by alternate scraps from the old translation of Castanheda, and from Mickle's Lusiad, for "the Lusitanian Homer, says the author, as *he must have had* access to many authorities now lost, or not generally known, is justly entitled to the authority of an historian: his means of information were ample and extended from Portugal to India." Even if this could by any possibility be admitted; it would not follow that Mr. Mickle's translation was entitled to the same confidence; for no poem was ever so licentiously translated as the English Lusiad; the English poet has every where inserted without scruple whatever he thought would improve the original. The extracts from this version fill twenty pages of this part of Mr. Clarke's history.

The appendix contains 263 pages, of which ten only are "original correspondence;" the rest consists entirely of republications.

The character of this work may easily be summed up. Above two-thirds of the volume are filled with unnecessary

Digitized by Google

matter; with extracts from common books, the republication of papers which are not scarce, and the recapitulation of historical facts which have no relation to maritime discovery. Long notes are every where annexed to long digressions, like the hairs of a mole, the excrescencies of an excrescence, deforming deformity. The part which actually relates to the professed subject of the work, might have been comprized in a small octavo volume; and that part is badly executed. Instead of comparing the accounts of various authors, and digesting them into one connected narrative, Mr. Clarke has indolently sewed together scraps whenever they would suit his purpose, contrasting occasionally the rust of Hakluyt and the old translator, with his own modern tinsel. The price of the volume has been unnecessarily enhanced by engravings, admirably executed indeed, but which are altogether superfluous. The spectre of the cape, for instance, is the frontispiece. Still more absurdly has a view of Columbo harbour in Ceylon been introduced, upon these grounds: Mr. Clarke enters into a discussion concerning the situation of Solomon's Ophir; he enumerates the various opinions of the thousand and one authors who have discussed the question; and "after much consideration" he inclines to give the preference "to that distinguished scholar, Samuel Bochart, who in his valuable work on sacred geography, entitled Phaleg and Canaan, demonstrates with equal ability and reason, that Ophir was the great island Taprobana, since called Zeelan and Ceylon, which produces gold, ivory, precious stones, and peacocks." He has therefore given a view of the Ophir, that is, of Columbo harbour: this is a perfectly flat shore, with a few trees and fortifications, being no doubt the batteries erected by the Jews; and to fill up the plate, an English man of war brig is added, representing, we presume, one of the fleet sent, in conformity to treaty, by his present Majesty, to protect the possessions of his good ally, King Solomon, against the machinations of Tippoo Saib, Bonaparte, and Nebuchadnezzar.

When we consider the important nature of this work, and that it was projected "under the auspices, and with the approbation" of the then first lord of the admiralty, we cannot but feel that a compilation so every way despicable, appearing under such patronage, is to be considered as a national disgrace.

ART. III. *A Journal of Travels in Barbary, in the Year* 1801. *By* JAMES CURTIS, *Esq. Surgeon to the Embassy to Morocco. With Observations on the Gum Trade of Senegal.* 12mo. pp. 157.

MR. CURTIS accompanied the English embassador, in 1801, from Gibraltar to Fez: in this little volume he relates such circumstances as he saw or heard during his journey.

The embassy landed at Tangiers. The old castle, he tells us, remains as it was left by the Portugueze; for the Moors never repair a building, though they do not scruple to add to it. The town itself, like all Moorish towns, is dirty, and with narrow streets; the houses all whitewashed, a pernicious custom in so hot a climate: the number of blind in consequence is very great; and there is scarcely one person in ten free from the *gutta serena*. The population is computed at 15,000 souls. Tangiers was once a strong place; it baffled the army of Portugal for many years, and once gave that country a severe lesson, ominous of the fate of Sebastian. The fortifications are now in a ruinous state; yet the parapet wall which surrounds it has the appearance of strength. The storks perch on it in great numbers; so constantly indeed, and in such number, that the author at first mistook them for soldiers. The stork, we believe, is every where a sacred bird; perhaps because he builds upon churches and mosques: and having there been usually protected by the sanctuary, a sanctity has been attributed every where to his nest. The whole trade of Tangiers consists in supplying the opposite coasts with provisions; their markets are held thrice a week, abundantly supplied, and of course cheap: they resemble English fairs, cattle are bought there for sale, and tradesmen and handicrafts of every description pitch their tents, for the people never think of having any work done but on these days. Add to this bustle of business, shows, jugglers, and dancing to the Moorish tambourine; and the work days in Tangiers resemble our holidays in England.

"The fertile valleys of Barbary, (says Mr. Curtis,) the rich and extensive corn-

Digitized by Google

fields, and the exquisite perfumes of the flowers, *present the appearance* of one vast cultivated garden; or rather of a land flowing with milk and honey." This venerable metaphor has seldom been more unhappily introduced. There is however no doubt that this country is one of the most delightful in the world: nature is no where better, and man no where worse. The grass grows five or six feet high; the vineyards are most luxuriant. Every part of the country round Tangiers is beautiful, and interspersed with villages and gardens. All the foreign consuls reside here.

The governor of Tetuan escorted the embassy:

"He is about forty-five years of age, with hard features, and was formerly a muleteer, but by his good conduct obtained the countenance of the emperor, who finally rewarded his merit with the government of Tetuan. On his arrival, he presented the embassador with two mules laden with fruit from Tetuan, and announced the necessity of our departure, and encampment on the next day at a short distance from the town, in order to give the muleteers an opportunity of ascertaining the particular baggage entrusted to each of them, without which there would be unceasingly fighting. It was not a little curious to hear them enquire for the brother of a trunk, a peculiarity of expression unknown in Europe, but which our interpreter informed us was the common language of Barbary, where every article that has been put with others, carried on the same animal, or bears the least resemblance to another, is always denoted by the term brother."

Mr. Curtis is mistaken in supposing that the peculiarity of expression is unknown in Europe. It is a common idiom both in Spain and Portugal; whoever has resided in either country, must have heard of the *brother* of his boot, his glove, &c. our English word "*fellow*" has originated in the same *anthropomorphism* of language.

"The governor came to receive the presents and our baggage on the 26th. His soldiers were drawn up in a line fronting the consul's house; but on his leaving it, they formed a semicircle, and saluted him with a profound reverence, at the same time exclaiming, "Long live our noble master." While he was mounting his horse, one held the head, another the tail, half a dozen the stirrups and bridle, and others assisted him in placing himself, and this is the usual mode in which the people of Barbary display respect to their superiors.

"On the 27th, after dinner, we marched to our encampment about three miles from Tangiers, at a place called Swanee, and were accompanied by all the consuls of foreign powers, and the governor of Tangiers with a body of horse, colours flying, and all the pomp of the Moors; but the banner of Haghig-Hage was always carried before the British ambassador throughout the whole journey. A supper was prepared by the governor for the embassy on their arrival, which, though good, had such a quantity of garlick mixed with it, that we could not taste it; but some of the *kus-kus*, which I shall have occasion fully to detail hereafter, is wholesome and excellent for the inhabitants, though ill suited to the palate of an Englishman.

"We struck our tents early on the morning of the 28th, but from some delay in the distribution of the baggage, we were not able to leave the ground till seven o'clock. The Moors, like all the oriental nations, have no idea of measuring distances according to the European method, and therefore they calculate them by the hour; hence I conclude we travelled at the rate of about three miles and a half each hour. Our retinue was composed of the embassador, the vice-consul, myself and servant, an artificer from the corps at Gibraltar, two interpreters, a cook and hair-dresser, with two other servants of the embassador; the alkaide, or governor of Tetuan, with sixty horse soldiers as our guard, sixty mules and six camels for transporting the baggage. The embassador and his suite marched in front of the soldiers, and this order was preserved throughout the whole journey."

In this parade the embassy proceeded. The country is represented to be in a high state of cultivation, and well stocked with every kind of cattle; they frequently met droves of five hundred and a thousand each, attended by only a little boy. These boys collect their droves by a whistle.

In his orthography of Moorish words, Mr. Curtis is always regulated by his ear; he therefore not only differs from other writers, but often from himself. He uses *douwar* and *derwar* confusedly; sometimes the governor of Tetuan is Haghig-Hage, at others Hagh-Hagh; Arzilla is sometimes spelt Azilla, sometimes Ozilla; we have Alkaide, Alkasar, La Rach, with the same disregard or ignorance of established usage.

The governors of all the provinces through which the English were to pass, had received orders from the emperor to provide them with every necessary. These orders were well obeyed, the English, it seems, being in high favour with the Moors, and for a singular reason.

Digitized by Google

"Mahommed having declared that Englishmen would at some future period be converted to the faith, the Moors are led to believe that the time is now approaching, as there can be no doubt the English have been already inspired by the prophet, since they have extended their powerful protection to the religion of the musselmen in Egypt. Under such a favourable prepossession, it was evident our embassy could not have been sent at a more propitious moment, for the emperor had just received intelligence of the defeat of the French army in Egypt."

Their road lay by Alcacere, a town which is said to have lost 10,000 persons, half its population, by the plague. Our traveller, upon asking the governor his age, was greatly surprized to learn that he could not answer with exactness, and that there was not a Moor in the country who could tell his own age with precision: all they know is, that they were born a little before or after some public event, a battle or a rebellion. They were entertained here with music, and Mr. Curtis mentions with wonder that the objects of their songs were the pleasures of the bottle. It is possible that, like the songs of Solomon and Hafiz, they may have been mystic poems, whose allegoric meaning was not understood. Musquitoes and locusts annoyed them cruelly on their journey; with their sufferings from the former we can sympathize; but we do not understand how they could be infested by the latter, unless encountered by an army, or the stench of a putrefying swarm. At Fez they were received with public honours, and fared sumptuously, being of a nation whom the emperor delighted to honour.

"Our house consisted of four large apartments, with folding doors to each, opening in front of an extensive garden filled with fruit trees; a square court-yard, in the centre of which was a cold bath of considerable dimensions, supplied at each extremity by a fountain. The house was furnished in the Moorish style, with fine carpets and cushions, &c. but we desired them to be removed, and substituted in their places our beds and camp furniture. The emperor now sent ten large dishes of *cus-cus sou*, made of fowls, mutton, and fruit, six huge baskets filled with apples, pears, plumbs, and various kinds of fruit from his garden. Presently after, he sent an additional supply of six dishes of *cus-cus sou*, some of which weighed an hundred pounds, for our supper, which enabled us to afford a glorious repast to our soldiers and muleteers. When we retired to rest, we flattered ourselves that after a fatiguing march of eleven days, we might enjoy the luxury of undisturbed repose. But the vast numbers of frogs and toads which infest the city and its vicinity with their hideous croaking from sun-set till sun-rise, and the quantity which were about our bath, absolutely deprived us of rest. When I rose on the morning of the 6th, and offered some money to the Moors if they would either destroy or remove them from the bath, they peremptorily refused, on the ground that they were blessed by the prophet, and if one were killed, the destroyer would inevitably be seized with some malady. Fortunately, I found a jew who destroyed the whole for the consideration of six reals, but the Moors were so incensed against him, that it might have been attended with fatal consequences to the man, had it not been for the powerful protection which we afforded him. On the most ridiculous points, the Moors must not be trifled with, when their religion is concerned.

"The emperor sent this morning a note to Hagh-Hagh, in which he commanded the alkaide to provide every thing suitable to the dignity of an embassador from so powerful a nation as the English; "do not let us disgrace ourselves," said he, "in the eyes of the English people, but endeavour to exceed whatever has been done on any former occasion."

Yet notwithstanding the imperial favours, the English were somewhat inconvenienced by the intolerant stupidity of Moorish prejudices. When they were entering the city, a madman insisted that they should stop and hear him pray: and madmen being saints in Morocco, they were obliged to comply. It was irksome to walk the streets: Mr. Curtis was repeatedly stopped, that the people might gratify their curiosity by inspecting his clothes; and often were they compelled to turn back and seek some other way, because the mob would not suffer them to pass by the house of a saint. Two hundred thousand persons were destroyed in this city by the plague: but Mr. Curtis is very careless in his narration, and in another place states the loss at 170,000; and even this is probably over-rated, for what a population does it suppose! Morocco, he says, lost 300,000; surely this is absurdly exaggerated. The circumference of Fez is stated to be between seven and eight miles, and the number of persons contained within that space, 800,000. Was Mr. Curtis ignorant of the size and population of London? The following document is curious, and is to be received with due distrust; it was detailed to him by one of the talbs of Fez, whom he calls a great historian.

"Men capable of bearing arms	121452
Mosques	982
Fountains	530
Baths, supplied by an aqueduct from the mountains three miles distant from the city	249
Houses large and small	137610
Inns, or places of refreshment	567
Shops (exclusive of bake-houses)	11096
Mill. for grinding corn	89
Bake-houses	1405
Soap-boilers	10
Tan-yards, employing upwards of 4000 men and boys in each	14
Linen bleachers	32
Dyers shops	86
Talbs or attornies offices	245
Painters shops (the principal part of whom died of the plague, whose loss is much deplored)	800

The imperial gardens are described as equalling whatever has been delineated by poets; they are laid out in the European style by a gardener from Lisbon. This is a vague word, and we know not what is meant by European, whether English, French, Dutch, or Portugueze. They abound with fountains and cascades, and the collected waters form a large river, which runs into the Sabu. Eolian lyres are placed upon the *noras*, the water wheels which supply the reservoir. Where these *noras* are common, their creaking is enumerated by the nation as one of their rural delights; though to an English ear, unused to the association of pleasure with whatever is connected with water and coolness, the sound is very irksome; indeed, we cannot conceive how an Eolian harp could be heard near one. We are ever more disposed to err from credulity than from suspicion, yet we confess that the following passage has staggered our faith in the traveller's veracity:

"I took my usual walk on the terrace, having my pockets filled with fruit. The ladies soon gathered round me, and after I had presented them with fruit, they asked me to give them handkerchiefs to put round their heads: but as I had none about me, I promised to bring some on the following evening. They have no idea of modesty, and their dancing and romping absolutely put me to the blush; they are uncommonly fond of intrigues, particularly with Christians, as I have been informed; they imagine there is something very curious about a Christian which he always endeavours to conceal from them."

If all other travellers are to be trusted Mr. Curtis would never have returned to boast of his imprudence.

Fez is called the holy city, because Mohammed is said to have resided there; by a fiction in the same catholic spirit, he was once said to have been born at Cordova. The present emperor has erected a building over the grave of a saint, who vies in miracles with any in the martyrology: he heals all diseases; and when Mr. Curtis expressed his wonder to the panegyrist of the wonder-worker, that so many miserable objects were to be seen in the streets, though his chapel was always full, he was told, "there cannot be room for all." So suspicious is the emperor, that he would not take a dose of salts until he had seen its effects on another person. His taster's place must be something more than a sinecure. This precaution was carried farther in Egypt: when Bruce prescribed for a bey, the wretched patient required him to exhibit the operation of the medicine on himself first.

Mr. Curtis was unfortunate enough to be taken prisoner on his passage to Gibraltar, and stripped of all he brought from Barbary. The little volume is eked out by observations on the gum trade of Senegal, which is transcribed from Golberry's Travels (see the next article) merely to swell the book.

ART. IV. *Travels in Africa, performed during the Years* 1785, 1786, *and* 1787. *in the Western Countries of this Continent, comprized between Cape Blanco of Barbary,* 20° 47', *and Cape Palmas,* 4° 30', *North Latitude. Embellished with a General Map of Africa, corrected from the most authentic Observations and Discoveries; together with Plans, Views, &c. &c. By* SILVESTER MEINRAD XAVIER GOLBERRY. *Translated by William Mudford.* 12mo. 2 vols. 360 pages each.

AT the peace of 1783 the French were once again the acknowledged masters of their ancient possession, the Senegal; and every facility appeared to have been afforded them of penetrating into the interior, and of being the first to explore the unknown regions of Africa. They were sole masters of one of the largest of its rivers, the Senegal; had an establishment at Galam, to which great power might be given; and an extensive influence, by which, according

to M. Golberry, they might progressively have established themselves in the country of Bambouk, and have proceeded even to Tombouctou and Tocrrur. All their enterprizes in this river were carried on with secrecy and safety; they had also a much-neglected right of navigating those of Salum, of the Gambia, of Casamanca, of St. Domingo, of Rio Grande, of Nuno Tristo, of Sierra Leona, of Sherbro, and of Cestos; their connection with the Moors of Zaara; their ascendancy over many great kingdoms of Western Africa; and lastly, continues Golberry, "our social qualities, which inspire these African nations with a *natural affection* for us; do not all these form an immense resource of means by which to penetrate into the very heart of Africa? and yet France remained indifferent to all these exalted and noble enterprizes, of which every thing promised success."

In the year 1785 M. Boufflers was appointed governor of Senegal, and M. Golberry accompanied him as his first aid-du-camp, instructed at the same time to perform the functions of chief engineer of the whole of this government, and appointed to reconnoitre that part of it which was formed by the western and maritime countries.

The instructions which M. Golberry received were of so comprehensive a nature, that he had occasion to reside in many of the principal countries of that part of western Africa, contained between Cape Blanco and Cape Palmas: he tells us that he had seen and conversed with twenty different black nations; that he has made "numberless observations;" and collected from the English of the Gambia and Sierra Leone, and from various other quarters, a body of documents and memoirs, forming the materials of a very minute work, which, since his return to France, has unceasingly employed his attention. The vast number of plans, maps, designs, &c. which were to have accompanied this minute performance, retarded the execution of it so long, that the author suffered his information to be anticipated by an English traveller. "It was not, therefore, without great regret that I beheld the voyages and discoveries of Mungo Park published in 1799, and which yet awarded to the English the merit of having made the first successful advances in this path, which I had considered as peculiarly belonging to us."

In consequence of this grievous disappointment, the present is merely a collection of fragments and extracts from that large work which has cost so much labour and expence! M. Golberry surely must be endued with a diffidence, which is by no means characteristic of his countrymen, to have suppressed the publication of a book of travels through the interior of Africa, because one solitary individual had explored those regions, and communicated to the public the narrative of his journey. An instance, this, of very singular diffidence!

To give any thing like a regular account of the contents of these volumes would be scarcely possible: they abound rather with particular than general information, which will be considered as of more value in France than in England. The merits of Golberry are so fairly estimated by his translator in a single paragraph of his preface, that we are induced to transcribe it. "His details on the commerce, connections, establishments, &c. which relate to Africa, are often highly important; and he appears to have been indefatigable in procuring such authentic information as might be of use to the commercial interests of his own country, and indeed Europe in general. But his antiquarian disquisitions are not perhaps so valuable; and in his conjectures relative to the origin of many of the African nations, he indulges too much in hypothesis, seldom referring to known facts, but endeavouring to build a Utopian foundation by the aid of conjecture."

"Indeed when every merit is allowed the work, which accuracy, and information, and labour, and research, can justly entitle it to, it may still be said, that he mars its general excellence by the introduction of false and idle theories. Nor can I conceal another very prominent defect, which is, a disgusting and tedious repetition of similar facts. Thus we are twice told in one page that Cape Verd derives its name from the boababs that grow on its summit; twice we are told that the palm-date produces clusters which are called *diet*; thrice and more we are told that the Moors nourish themselves principally with gum, and many other such instances of useless tautology."

In twenty different places we see M.

Digitized by Google

Golberry doing homage to the superior genius of the English; perpetually regretting the commercial inertness of his own government, he acknowledges with a sigh the spirit of industry and research, the enterprize and aetivity of our countrymen. He is extremely anxious to enlarge the limits of the government of Senegal; he would have the supreme administration of it situated in the island of St. Louis, and thinks that its influence might be extended over all that portion of western Africa, which is comprehended between the thirtieth and fortieth degree of north latitude, and between the Atlantic ocean and the thirtieth of longitude of the island of Ferro.* The advantages which would result to France from such an extension of territory are enlarged on, and a plan is chalked out, considerably in detail, for the establishment of factories, commercial intercourse, and government. Golberry says that the precipitate abolition of slavery, and the slave-trade of the blacks, has reduced the French affairs in Africa almost to nothing: to re-establish them, therefore, it will be necessary to discover new sources of commercial wealth, and to direct their stream towards the coasts. He wishes the slave-trade to be put under some better regulations, but can scarcely check his *just indignation* in deploring the consequences of "those cruel theories"—referring to the "chiefs of a sect" which arose in London and Paris, for the purpose of abolishing slavery,—"which have caused so many misfortunes, so much destruction, and which have cost such deluges of blood and tears." It is curious enough that in a few pages afterwards, (vol. II. p. 240 et seq.) M. Golberry should represent these Africans, whom he dooms to slavery with so much complacency, as the happiest set of people in the world.

"The climate and character of the African blacks, assimilate in such a manner, as to render them singularly happy.

"Gifted with a carelessness, which is totally unique, with an extreme agility, indolence, sloth, and great sobriety; the negro exists on his native soil, in the sweetest apathy, unconscious of want, or the pain of privation, tormented neither with the cares of ambition, nor with the devouring ardour of desire."

After a description of this mode of life, he continues:

"Thus all the wants and pleasures of a negro are gratified without occasioning to him the least trouble either of mind or body; his soul hardly ever rouses itself from its quiet and peaceful indolence; all violent passions, inquietudes, and fears are almost unknown to him; his fatalism makes him neither hope nor dread any event; he never murmurs, but submits to all, and his life passes in unruffled calmness, in voluptuous indolence, which constitutes his supreme pleasure; hence we may reckon the negro among the most favoured and happy productions of nature."

So much for Mr. Golberry's refined ideas of human happiness!

The most interesting chapters in this work are those which give an account of the gold mines of Bambouk, and of the gum, and gum-trade of Senegal; these are really curious, and the latter particularly so.

The gold mines of Bambouk are a national property, over which the kings or farims have no other personal authority than that of watching over and protecting them: the inhabitants work those which are situated within their own territory. The country of Bambouk is represented as being strictly an auriferous earth; but the four principal mines are those of Natakon, Semayla, Nambia, and Kombadyrie. The working of the mines is carried on during the eight months of dry weather, and ceases when the rainy season commences. As all the gold is obtained by ablution, those blacks who best understand the method of working it obtain the greatest quantity of gold. They obtain it by digging pits about six feet in diameter, and varying in depth from thirty to forty feet. The earth is brought up by baskets, taken to a rivulet, and undergoes a thorough ablution. When they have dug about four feet deep, they meet with a fat argillaceous earth, intermingled with small grains of iron ore, of loadstone, and emery, all which are covered with little particles and spangles of gold. All the rivulets of the valley of Natakon convey gold with their water; the sands and mud which form the bed of them are also full of the same metal; the soil composing the bed of the Coles-Rio-d'oro produces a

* Throughout the work the island of Ferro is generally adopted as a first meridian.—Rev.

Digitized by Google

considerable quantity of gold, as does also the whole plain of Natakon. From all these circumstances M. Golberry is induced to believe, that the mountains surrounding Natakon contain in their beds and caverns the real gold mine; while the monticule of Natakon itself is nothing more than an emanation from the main body.

In the year 1786, M. Golberry carried on a small trade for gold at Galam; that which he received was made into ear-rings and other ornaments. It was assayed at Paris, in 1788, and, according to the account of the assayer, it was twenty-three carats fine. It was sold at the rate of twelve francs per drachm: and a gold ear-ring, from the mine of Natakon, in the form of a heart, of three inches in length, weighing more than seven grains of fine coloured gold, was examined by M. Sage, professor of mineralogy, and one of the directors of the mint, and discovered to be gold of the purest quality.

Without noticing the plans which M. Golberry has suggested to his country, relative to Bambouk and its gold mines, we shall proceed to abstract his account of the gum, and gum-trade of Senegal.

This vegetable secretion, so useful in a great variety of manufactures, was formerly brought from Arabia to Marseilles, by way of Egypt; the gum from Arabia being the only one in request, till the Dutch introduced that of the Senegal into Europe, at the commencement of the 17th century. When the French became masters of this river, and of the harbours of Arguin and Portendick, they soon found that in the southern parts of the great desart of Zaara, near the Senegal, amidst sandy and uncultivated regions, there existed three considerable forests of gum trees. These were minutely examined, and various experiments evinced that the gum itself might rank with the best gums of Arabia. Some subsequent experiments made by the merchants of Bourdeaux and Nantz, have even decided its superiority. These experiments were made public; they stamped a value on the gum collected by the Moors of Zaara, which became celebrated, and is at the present moment one of the most important articles of commerce. It is employed in the manufacture of silks, gauzes, lawns, hats, cambrics, printed linens, &c.; it is used by painters, and gilders; and is moreover employed in confectionary and medicinal preparations. Senegal can furnish Europe with an annual supply of two millions of pounds weight; to collect this, and convey it to France, would require a large capital, and employ a number of vessels and sailors. This quantity of gum, at the average price of 35 sols per pound, will produce a sale of 3,500,000 livres, and a profit of nearly 3,000,000.

The tree which yields this gum is a species of mimosa, and called by the Moors and negroes near the river, *Uereck*, when it produces white gum, and *Nebueb* when it yields the red.—These two species are the most numerous, and grow abundantly on those white quicksands along the coast from Cape Blanco, of Barbary, to Cape Verd; and on those to the north of the Senegal, from Galam to the factory called the Desart There are many other species besides these two, which, however, are the most valuable as well as the most numerous; and of which there are three large forests, those of Sahel, Al-Fatack, and El-Hiebar, situated at the southern extremity of Zaara, at about an equal distance from the Senegal and the sea.

The gum-tree of the Senegal is generally about 18 or 20 feet high, and about three feet in circumference: it is crooked, irregular, and inelegant; the stocks of a year old rather resembling bushes than shrubs. This effect is attributed to the aridity and badness of the soil; but more particularly to the keenness and malignity of the east winds, which prevail here throughout the winter. The leaves of the tree are alternate and bifid, very small, and of a dry dirty green: the branches are thorny, from the part where the leaves project; the flowers are white and very short; the trunk is full, hard, and dry; the bark smooth, and of a dark green colour. They who desire more detailed information relative to the gum-trees of the Senegal, are referred to the works of M. Adanson, who resided in Senegal upwards of fifty years, and has given a description of every species which grows in the countries between the twentieth and fourteenth degree of north latitude, and from the borders of the Atlantic Ocean to the eighth longitudinal degree from the island of Ferro.

The Moorish tribes, who frequent the western part of the Senegal, for the pur-

Digitized by Google

pose of selling their gum to the French, are three in number, the Trarshaz, Brachknaz, and Ouled-El-Hagi or Darmarcko; who appear to have enjoyed, for many centuries, the possession and commerce of the southern countries of Zaara, in the desart of which they have fixed establishments.

The tropical rains do not fall in the western countries of Africa till towards the beginning of July; the return is so regular, that it rarely happens in the countries watered by the Senegal, that the rainy season begins much before the first of July, or that it is prolonged beyond the first days of November.

"When the lands have been abundantly saturated, by these heavy rains; when the waters begin to disappear, and when the sands begin to dry, which is towards the 15th of November, then also we may perceive oozing from the trunk, and principal branches of the gum trees, a gummy juice, which at first has no consistency, but trickles down the trees; at the end, however, of fifteen days this juice becomes inspissated, adhering to the incision whence it issued, sometimes twisted in a vermicular form, but most commonly in round or oblong drops: these are white when proceeding from the white gum tree, and of a yellowish orange colour, bordering a little on the red, when proceeding from the red gum-tree.

"The drops are always transparent, and brilliant at the part where they are broken off; when they are held for a short time in the mouth, they possess all the clearness, transparency, lustre, and limpidity of the finest rock crystal.

"These gummy exudations are entirely natural, and the Moors solicit them by no kind of artifice, or any sort of incision.

"These precautions would indeed be superfluous, because the variations of the atmosphere in the season immediately succeeding that of the heavy rains, alone increases infinitely the clefts on the surface of the bark, and by means of these, which answers every purpose, the gums find a natural and easy passage.

"Towards the 10th of November, the easterly winds begin to prevail, or rather those of the north-east. These winds are dry and blighting; they are burning two thirds of the day, and cold during the night and morning."

The drops are usually about the size of the egg of a partridge: they are occasionally, however, both larger and smaller.

"About the beginning of December, the three Moorish tribes quit those habitations which they have formed, in the vast solitudes of Zaara, and where they have collected their families, their flocks, their camels, and their wealth, and each tribe begins its march towards their respective forests of gum trees.

"At the different oases, they suffer to remain only decrepid old men, imbecile women, children, and young girls; all those who are employed in tending the flocks, in educating the horses and camels, and other indispensible occupations; the black slaves are also left behind.

"All the rest form an immense army, the disposition of which is equally confused and savage; it is a wild assemblage of men, women, young girls and boys, children at the breast, and an innumerable number of camels, oxen, and goats.

"The kings, princes, and the rich people, mount their horses, and their camels; others ride on oxen, and some again proceed on foot.

"After a march of twelve or fifteen days each tribe arrives at its respective forest, and at the borders of which they pitch their tents.

"The harvest continues about six weeks, and when the gum, thus collected, is properly formed, and every thing in readiness, they prepare to strike their tents and proceed to the banks of the Senegal. They load the gum on camels and oxen; the ordinary burthen of a camel is from four to five hundred pounds, while that of an ox, is generally about a hundred and fifty; the gum is put into immense leathern sacks made of tanned ox hides.

"All the gum which is thus collected, and packed up, is not placed all at once on the beasts of burthen who are to convey it to the banks of the river and to the different markets where it is sold; the chiefs of the tribes alone proceed to these markets, accompanied by a certain number of the principal Moors, who always are, or pretend to be, relations of the kings, or of their favourite women; they are followed by an escort of armed men.

"The king and the principal officers of the Trarshaz, treat for their tribe separately; while the king and principal men of the Brachknaz and the Darmarko, treat for their two tribes conjunctly.

"While the chiefs of these tribes are conferring relative to the price at which the gum shall be sold, the Moors remaining behind at the camps, load their cargoes, and commencing their march, halt about two days journey from the river; here they wait the conclusion of the conferences between their chiefs and the overseers of the government of the Senegal, and with the French merchants.

"These preliminaries superinduce numerous delays, debates, and embarrassments; there is no kind of trick which these Moors do not employ, no lies and imposture which they do not invent, to obtain for their gum,

Digitized by Google

a price much greater than that of the preceding year. The kings and chiefs play off a thousand cheats, and every species of craft, to spunge a greater quantity of presents, and imposts than had been given before; and to obtain this end, menaces and finesse, are successively employed; the most ridiculous and exaggerated pretensions are every year renewed by these subtle and cunning savages, who make it a practice in all their dealings, to create a multitude of obstacles and difficulties.

"It is only the agents and the overseers of the gum trade who with the merchants proceed to the desart and to Podhor for the purpose of purchasing this commodity; and they well know that in these savage fairs, much tædium, inconvenience, and bustle, must be endured.

"The Moors in their roguish dealings, possess a coolness, which distracts the whites; their patience and phlegmatic conduct, singularly disconcerts the vivacity of the Europeans, who full of ardor and impatience wish to strike the bargain at once, while the Moors, in order to enlarge the presents, or the profits, incessantly defer a final termination. Meanwhile we also arm ourselves with patience, become cautious, obstinate, and heady, and thus finish by mutual opposition.

"When every thing is completely settled on both sides, the Moorish chiefs return to their camps, and announce to their tribes that the market may now commence. They then begin their march, and a few days afterwards they settle on the banks of the river.

"It is at this place which the French have named the desart, and which in fact, is one of the most arid, and desolate places in the world, that the gum fair is principally held; it is situated on the borders of the river, at an equal distance from the isle St. Louis, and the fort of Podhor: and the Trarshaz, convey thither all the gum procured from the forest of Sahel.

"Here the eye surveys an illimitable plain, formed of white and moving sand; not a single herb, not a plant, nor even a bush destroy the melancholy uniformity, the painful monotony of this immense solitude. It is impossible to procure here, even a drop of good water, and shallops laden with hogsheads, are obliged to be sent a considerable distance up the river to procure it, for at the desart the waters are brackish, they being mingled with those of the sea, which flows in the Senegal, as far as the island of Gick; another reason is, that the sands of the desart, are so fine and so moveable, that it is impossible to dig any wells, without the water being considerably intermingled with sand.

"On the morning of the day of their arrival, may be heard at a distance the "hubbub wild" of these Moorish armies, enveloped in a cloud of dust; and towards noon, the immense solitary plain of the desart, where the eye wanders without discovering any object living or vegetating, is covered with a numerous multitude of men, women, camels, horses, oxen, and goats.

"All the animals are canopied with the leafy branches of the gum-trees, which at once serve to secure them from the ardent heat of the sun, and the gum with which they are laden.

"One part of these animals carry the tents and baggage, while on others are heaped the women, who are seen suckling their children, and young kids just littered. The chiefs are mounted on noble horses; some chosen camels, elegantly caparisoned, bear the women of the king and princes, in a kind of basket, covered with an awning; a troop of Moors, armed with fusils and sagayes, which are lances from eight to ten feet high, form the escort of these ambulatory hordes, and vainly endeavour to maintain some degree of order among this barbarous multitude.

"The air rings with the acclamations of this innumerable quantity of men, women, children, and animals, and the living creatures which now fill this lately desart plain, appear incalculable. It is impossible to convey a just idea of the disorder and tumult of such a confused assemblage, or to give an accurate picture of the singular uproar which pervades these barbarous meetings.

"When the Moors are all assembled together on the banks of the river, and their tents pitched, and every thing arranged and disposed for commencing the traffic, a cannon is fired as a signal to begin.

"Innumerable are the train of disgusting and unpleasant circumstances, which attend these negociations. The agents, as well as the merchants, are incessantly surrounded and pressed by these untutored and perfidious savages; they must be immoveable in the midst of their injuries, their insults, and their menaces; they must endure poignards raised against them, threatening looks, outrageous expressions, and revolting gestures; they must submit to the perpetual importunities of kings and princes, to the insatiable cupidity of their women, and in fact to the oppressive persecutions of all the tribes.

"The merchant is now no longer master of his vessel; all the decks of the ships employed in the gum-trade, and which are seldom less than a hundred tons burthen, are covered with Moors, crouding on each other towards the fore part of the vessel; the stern is defended by field pieces, and a part of the crew who remain under arms.

"During the years 1785, 1786, 1787, the quantity of gum, annually brought to the factories of the desart, and the Cok, amounted to eight hundred thousand pounds, besides which the Trarshaz Moors, conveyed yearly to Portendick, near four hundred thousand pounds, where it was purchased by the English.

Digitized by Google

"Hence the three forests of Sahel, Al-Fatack, El-Hiebar, furnish yearly a constant produce of at least twelve hundred thousand pounds of gum."

The vessel employed in buying and selling the gum is a large wooden tub, containing about 2000lbs. weight, which is fixed on the deck of the gum-vessels: the Moors call it a *kantar*, and the French have adopted the name. Each vessel has its kantar fixed upon the deck: at the bottom of the kantar is an aperture eighteen inches long and a foot broad, to which is fixed a tube of thick sail-cloth, descending into the hold of the ship. Whilst the gum is measuring, the aperture at the bottom of the kantar is closed by a small board running in a groove; when the kantar is full the board is withdrawn, and the gum runs through the tube into the hold, where people are ready to stow it. Crafty as the Moors are, they are too ignorant to suspect the effect produced by a few inches being added to the height or diameter of these measures; the consequence of which has been, that the European traders, who know perfectly well how to enlarge their kantar when they buy, and diminish it when they sell, have completely out-cheated them. This fraud has been practised by all the traders who have purchased gum from the Moors of Zaara; and they seem to have emulated each other in their progressive additions to the kantar, which now holds four times as much as it did formerly. Golberry says, that in the time of the India Company (sixty years ago), it contained but little more than 500lb. weight of gum; it now holds 2000lbs.

The Moors are paid for their gum in pieces of calico dyed blue, called guinea pieces; they are seven or eight ells long, and half an ell wide. This is the chief, indeed the only article which they will take in exchange.

Attempts have been made in France to imitate these guinea-pieces, but the imposture never succeeded: without confiding in the senses either of touch or sight, the Moors instantly ascertain whether a guinea-piece is fabricated in France or India, *by the smell*. The real India pieces are in the highest estimation: they have no rival as to preference.

From the year 1780 to 1787, the Moors constantly gave a kantar of gum, of 2000lbs. weight for fifteen guinea-pieces: the gum company established in Senegal, in 1784, never gave more; and they annually purchased four hundred kantars, or about eight hundred thousand pounds weight.

Mr. Golberry now enters into some details concerning the possible produce of the gum-trade, and the important advantages which would be derived from an extension of this branch of commerce. The abundance of gum-trees in the vicinity of the island of St. Louis, and the banks of the Senegal, is immense: besides the three forests we have already mentioned, there are two others, Guerof and Galam; and there are numerous gum-trees scattered about in the islands and circumjacent countries, from which M. Golberry supposes might be extracted from one to two hundred thousand pounds weight annually. When the Moors quit their oases, and encamp themselves round the gum-forest of Zaara, the middling and lower classes subsist almost entirely on this gum, during the whole of the harvest, on their march to the banks of the Senegal, during the fair, and until they return home. Six ounces of gum are sufficient to support a man 24 hours: it is occasionally dissolved in milk, but oftentimes suffered simply to melt in the mouth. A lozenge is occasionally made, by combining it with the juice or flesh of animals, which will keep uninjured for a twelvemonth.——This work contains a good deal of information on various subjects, but there is no connection between its parts, no form, no order; tautologies, inconsistencies, theories, facts, politics, and natural history, are jumbled together in the most whimsical manner imaginable. The plates and map of Africa are execrable: the translation is full of gallicisms, is inelegant, and not always correct.

Digitized by Google

ART. V. *Walks and Sketches, at the Cape of Good Hope; to which is subjoined, a Journey from Cape Town to Blettenberg's-bay.* By ROBERT SEMPLE. 8vo. pp. 152.

DURING Mr. Semple's residence at Cape-Town, a former schoolfellow, his intimate friend, arrived there on his way to India. The short time that he spent in the colony, was employed by the two friends, in pedestrian excursions to the most interesting places in the vicinity, and in inquiries on the one hand, and explanations on the other, relative to the characteristic manners and customs of the inhabitants. After the departure of his friend, Mr. Semple accompanied an acquaintance to Blettenberg's bay; and the little volume before us is a description of the principal objects, occurrences, and remarks, which suggested themselves on these occasions.

The minuteness of Sparrman, the philosophic views and scientific description of Barrow, are not to be looked for in these pages; but many new and pleasing remarks on the state of society and civilization, interspersed with agreeable description, just sentiment, and occasional pathos, are conveyed in correct and elegant language; and the reader is most agreeably surprized at the various pleasure that he derives from so small a volume, with so unassuming a title. No former travellers or historians of the colony are quoted, to supply the deficiencies of personal observation, to throw an air of importance over the book, or to enhance its price at the expence of its value. The author has obviously seen with his own eyes, and described what he saw, while the emotions to which they gave birth were yet vivid.

It would be unjust to the author to make large extracts from a small volume: our readers however will be gratified, and we trust that Mr. Semple will excuse us, if we yield to the temptation of quoting part of his very interesting description of the several kinds of slaves, who are united in one common bondage at the Cape of Good Hope.

"Behold that slave coming towards us bending beneath the weight of two cords of wood suspended to the ends of a bamboo which he balances across his shoulder. His black complexion, his curly hair, his thick lips, and his tattoed forehead, announce him from the coast of Mozambique, his strong make shows him capable of fatigue and in his inoffensive and humbled countenance, you may read that he has often submitted to blows and unmerited reproaches, without for a moment thinking of revenge; he performs the task which is set him without objections and without inquiry. You see him now walking slowly along oppressed with his load, and perhaps you pity his fate; follow him to the next corner, there sits one of his companions playing on a jew's-harp. He stops—he listens—pleasure steals into his soul—he throws off his load—he beats the ground with his heels—raises his hands clasped above his head—gives himself up to the wildest and most inconsiderate joy, and, occupied only with the present, thinks neither of the hours of bitterness which are past, nor of those which are yet to come.

"Observe the one who comes next. Even at a distance his upright form, his nervous make, his free step, announce the Malay, or native of the island of Java, the king of slaves. As he approaches mark his long, coal black hair which hangs half down his back, his yellow complexion, his glancing and jealous eye, which looks askance upon slavery. He knows well that from his class are formed the house painters, the musicians, the ingenious workmen of the Cape. He is proud of this distinction, and glories in the name of Malay. He exacts some deference from his master, his gestures, his speech, sometimes slow and sedate, at others rapid and violent, seem to say, 'I know that I am your slave, but be cautious how you use your power.' A reproach stings and irritates him, a blow wounds his proud heart, he hoards it up in his remembrance, and broods upon his revenge. Time passes on, the master forgets that he has given the blow, but the Malay never. At length the bad part of his character is cruelly displayed: he intoxicates himself with opium and the madness of revenge, he rushes upon his unguarded master with his kris or crooked Malay dagger, and stabs him once, twice, ten times. The unfortunate wife and children are not safe if they cross his way, he sallies out into the street, and running madly along, sacrifices all that he meets, till overpowered by numbers he is brought to suffer the punishment of his crime.

"Follow him to the place of execution. Some days are past, and the intoxication of opium is over, but do you observe his countenance in the least changed by fear or remorse? Not at all. He is bound to the wheel—the executioner breaks all his limbs one after another—but not a tear, not a groan escapes him—at length nature is exhausted—perhaps he breathes the name of Mahomet his prophet, and expires with the consolation of having had his revenge.

"What a contrast is presented to this character in the slave whom you see there

Digitized by Google

following his master. His features of the European cast, his slender but well formed shape, his mild and inoffensive looks, and his black hair curled but not woolly, announce the harmless native of the Malabar coast. He is in all respects the best of the household slaves. Without the inactivity or dulness of the Mozambiquer, or the penetrative genius of the Malay, he forms an excellent medium between the two—more intelligent, more industrious, and more active than the former; more docile and more affectionate than the latter, he unites steadiness with vivacity, and capability of instruction to winning manners. Expect not from him violent opposition—while the native of Mozambique often grows obstinate, and hardens under the lash; whilst the Malay frowns and prepares to sharpen his dagger, the Malabar bends to the blow, and endeavours to avert it by tears and entreaties. Never is he brought to justice for crimes of a heinous nature; never are his feeble hands stained with blood; but if, through a false accusation, or a disposition too liable to be made the tool of knavery, one of this class is brought to suffer death, he shudders, and turns away his head at the sight of the place of execution; he shrieks aloud whilst the blow is yet suspended and before it falls, and with tears and groans he implores compassion till his life and sufferings are at an end.

"But come, let us leave scenes of blood, the place of execution, and its wheels and engines: behold yon light waggon advancing so rapidly upon us, drawn by fourteen or sixteen oxen, and led by a Hottentot who runs before them; see with what dexterity the master, sitting in the front of the waggon and cracking his long whip, directs the whole. The Hottentot, as you would observe, has on him nothing of what in England would be called clothes; an undressed sheep skin buckles round his neck, and hangs down behind him like a cloak; at every motion of his body it flies back and exposes his tawny skin, his meagre make, and his small and active limbs; before him hangs a small pouch fastened round his loins with a leathern thong. With not a single other article of dress, without hat, without shoes, he leads his oxen through sun and wind and rain, over stones and hot sandy roads. Sometimes he puts on a pair of undressed leathern sandals, which are fastened round the ankles: and sometimes an old tattered hat protects his head from the rain or sun; but neither of these is universally worn; and in general the one which has passed us may serve as a specimen of all the rest. It is true, he has not the name of slave, but his condition is not on that account in the least more desireable: by the laws of the colony he is only bound to serve five and twenty years, after which he becomes free. In other words, his master enjoys twenty five years of his services for the prime of his life, and may then cast him off to seek his bread elsewhere.

"These may be reckoned the four principal stocks of the slaves of the Cape. The Malay, the native of the Mozambique and Malabar coasts, and the colonial-born slave. It must not be imagined, however, that these different races are anxious to preserve themselves unmixed. In this place they are quickly mingled together, and many a slave can boast of an European father. Hence results the most complete variety of features and shades of colour, that is perhaps to be met with in any part of the globe. Yellow, jet black, white and copper-coloured are kneaded together into a mass. Every face that passes us is of a different colour from the one that went before it, and the eye is continually amused by a strange and unceasing variety.

"The different females preserve likewise in their domestic occupations something of the character of their nation. The female Malay takes care of the house, gives an account of every article, arranges the linen and clothes in the presses, is intrusted with several of the keys; and, having finished her work, she coils up her long black hair on the crown of her head, where she fastens it with a silver bodkin, and then sits down to knit at the feet of her mistress.

"The Malabar female, mild and gentle, is like her husband, employed in every kind of the lighter domestic occupations. No blows are required to induce her exertions; a threat terrifies her. She redoubles her activity, is anxious to show herself attentive to the interest of the family, cleans and arranges the furniture; and in the evening, having kissed her children and put them to sleep, she brings her knitting needles and seats herself by the side of her companions.

"The female of Mozambique, generally stronger than her fellows, yet at the same time sufficiently active and intelligent, is sometimes employed in works of drudgery, and sometimes in those of a lighter kind. According to the will of her owners, sometimes you may see her carrying on her head a large bundle of linen to wash in the brook which runs from Table Hill. Sometimes nursing the children of the family, and advanced to honour; but in either occupation, she is always found, like the male, patient, performing what is set to her, and no more; pleased with praise, but not over anxious to obtain it, and going through her task more through the wish of seeing the end of it than the desire of performing it well.

"The female Hottentot contents herself with the lowest class, and is indeed seldom employed by the families at the Cape, being chiefly and indeed almost only to be found in the farm houses and at some little distance from the Cape. The Hottentot character, both male and female, is said to be the least

Digitized by Google

engaging of the whole. They neither make themselves so useful as the Malay, nor do they possess the affectionate disposition of the natives of Malabar or Mozambique. They labour only through absolute necessity, and would quickly sink into profound indolence if not perpetually incited to action."

ART. VI. *An Account of the Native Africans in the Neighbourhood of Sierra Leone: to which is added, an Account of the present State of Medicine among them.* By THOMAS WINTERBOTTOM, M. D. *Physician to the Colony of Sierra Leone.* Vol. I. 8vo. pp. about 400, 8 plates and maps.

WE are informed in the preface that the medical history of the negro tribes, in the vicinity of Sierra Leone, was at first the principal object of the author's attention; to which "was subjoined, a brief account of the manners and customs of the people, whose diseases had been noticed. But this account being increased so much by successive additions as greatly to exceed the limits originally marked out for it, and the medical part being thought likely to prove uninteresting to many who might be desirous of perusing the rest of the work, it seemed advisable to alter the arrangement, and print each part in separate volumes, in order that the general reader might be at liberty to purchase the one, without being obliged to purchase the other also."

In consequence of this information, we shall only notice at present the first volume of Dr. Winterbottom's work, referring the medical part to its proper place, in Chap. XVII.

It appears to us, that the really original matter in this volume might, without any extraordinary abbreviation, be comprized in a few pages. The author himself characterises his work as a "rude sketch," a "collection of gleanings, which either have escaped the notice of more successful reapers in that extensive field, or which have been passed over as of little importance." This, we doubt not, is a fair though very modest description of such facts as were collected and noted down on the spot, from Dr. Winterbottom's personal observation, but it is by no means applicable to the manufactured article as it appears in the London market. So far from being a collection of loose hints, the volume is systematically arranged in fifteen chapters, treating in the regular order of the principal objects of enquiry relative to this part of Africa: numerous quotations from the most respectable writers are introduced in corroboration of the facts recorded; and passages from the Roman and English poets are cited, to give an accurate and vivid image of scenes which they never beheld, and of which they could form no idea.

The first chapter contains a general topographical description of the country in the vicinity of Sierra Leone, together with the circumstances of its discovery by the Portugueze. To this succeeds the meteorological history of this part of Africa, which contains but little of importance that we have not met with before elsewhere. In the appendix, however, is an interesting document on this subject, from which it appears that in the year 1793, the medium temperature at the colony was 83° Fah. and the greatest range of the thermometer from 71° to 95°. The barometer for twelve months varied only from 29.81 to 30.09, the average being 29.95. The number of rainy days was 154, during which there fell 86.28 inches of rain: of these 138 days happened in the months of May, June, July, August, September, and October, in which the amount of rain was 79.5 inches. The wet season was ushered in and terminated by stormy weather; no less than 27 tornadoes (out of 52, the whole yearly complement) having taken place in May and October.

The third chapter treats of negro agriculture, which is of the rudest kind. An uncleared spot of ground is prepared by cutting down the trees as near to the surface as can conveniently be done during the dry season, and then setting the whole on fire a short time before the rains commence. As soon as the first showers have extinguished the flames and softened the ground, the rice is scattered on the surface, and scratched in with a hoe, which is all the labour required till harvest. Every village has a plantation of corn in common, besides private gardens, in which are cultivated the usual excellent vegetables of the tropical countries. The art of cookery among these negro tribes is next treated of, their different prepa-

Digitized by Google

rations of vegetable and animal food, their spirituous and intoxicating liquors. Here, however, we meet with nothing sufficiently new and important to detain us; we shall therefore proceed to the next chapter, in which the African towns are described. The villages belonging to the Pagan negroes on the coast, who are the least civilized, are small, crowded, and unhealthy, from being situated, for the sake of security, in the most intricate and impenetrable recesses of the woods. The Mahometan tribes, on the contrary, being in a much more advanced state of society, are distinguished from the rest by the neatness and superior size of their brick houses, and the greater populousness of their towns; Teembo, the capital of the Foola kingdom, being reckoned to contain about 8000 inhabitants.

The arts, manufactures, dress and amusements, government and political institutions of the negroes, are successively described by Dr. Winterbottom, with a needless minuteness, since no additional information of the smallest consequence is communicated. The same may be said of the chapter relative to the state of the women, and the old question concerning the influence of polygamy on population.

The moral character and mental powers of the negroes are vindicated by the author, with considerable success; and this being the most original and interesting, and the best written part of his book, we shall here select our specimens.

"They (the negroes) are in general of mild external manners; but they possess a great share of pride, and are easily affected by an insult: they cannot hear even a harsh expression, or a raised tone of voice, without shewing that they feel it. As a proof that they are not deficient in natural affection, one of the severest insults which can be offered to an African is to speak disrespectfully of his mother, which is called "cursing her;" that they do not feel so very acutely an insult offered to their father is a natural consequence of polygamy.

"The hospitality of the Africans has been noticed by almost every traveller who has been much among them. When the colony of Sierra Leone was destroyed by those who styled themselves the friends of liberty, and the inhabitants were stripped in the most wanton manner of the comforts they were enjoying, when their houses* were burnt, their provisions and even medicines destroyed, and they themselves reduced by this cruel treatment to the prospect of disease, famine, and misery, quæque ipse miserrima vidi; they were all, whites as well as blacks, most hospitably received by the natives, into whose villages they were obliged to fly for shelter. In travelling through many parts of their country, when overpowered with heat, fatigue, and hunger, I have ever met with a welcome and hospitable reception on arriving at their villages; mats have been brought out for myself and friends to repose on; and if it happened to be meal-time, we have been at liberty to join them without ceremony, or to wait till something better could be provided. If we intended to spend the night there, a house has been set apart for us, and, on taking leave in the morning, a guide has generally offered to shew us on our way. Indeed, so far does this spirit of hospitality prevail, that a traveller or stranger, as they call him, is scarcely accountable for any faults which he may commit, whether through inadvertency or design, the host being considered as responsible for the actions of "his stranger."

The negroes upon the coast, from their habitual intercourse with the European slave-factors, are, as may naturally be expected, much inferior in every thing, except the art of making a bargain, to those who reside higher up the country: and of all the tribes, those who have embraced Mahometanism are the most civilized and respectable. In this part of Africa the religion of Mahomet has lost much of its ferocity, and instead of being propagated by the edge of the sword, appears as the benign patroness of arts, civilization, and literature: its influence seems to be rapidly extending, and the national character of the negroes is rising in exact proportion. The honour that is attached to the arts of reading and writing in this country, may be judged of by the following extract:

"Those who have visited the schools instituted by the Mahommedans, for the instruction of children in Arabic literature, must have admired the industry and perseverance of the scholars, at the same time that he lamented the great loss of time spent in acquiring a knowledge of the Arabic,

* It must be acknowledged, however, that the French left the bare walls of the huts belonging to the Nova Scotian settlers uninjured, after having plundered them of their contents, even the wearing apparel of the women and children, and destroyed those articles of furniture which they could not carry away.

Digitized by Google

which would have been so much more profitably employed in learning to read their own or some European language. In these schools the boys read, or rather shout, their lessons as loud as possible: the same is observed by Dr. Russell, speaking of the Mahommedan schools at Aleppo: "as they read aloud all together, the noise they make in getting their lessons may be heard at some distance." This noise is rendered still more grating to the ear by their harsh and guttural pronunciation. Such, however, is their quickness of perception, that, amidst this confused clamour, if a word be wrong pronounced, or falsely accented, it is immediately noticed by the master, or corrected by one of the scholars, among whom a strong spirit of emulation prevails. The boys begin their studies at least an hour before day-light in the morning, and protract them till late at night, taking some respite during the middle of the day. In the dry season, before sun-rise and after sun-set, they generally sit in the open air round a large fire, which affords them light, and for its support each scholar brings a bundle of faggots. Their lessons are written with ink which washes out, by means of a reed cut in form of a pen, upon thin smooth pieces of wood of a close grain like beech; the letters are first written, then the combinations of letters, and lastly passages of the Koran. When they can read and write with facility, the master receives as his reward, for each scholar, a slave, or the value of one; but if he fails in this point, he receives no recompence for his trouble. As writing constitutes one of their chief amusements, they are anxious to excel in it, and many of them write with great expedition and a tolerable degree of elegance. They procure paper from Europeans, but use a reed instead of a pen. They procure a very excellent ink by boiling the leaves of a tree called bullanta in water: this is generally done in an iron pot, containing some scoriæ of iron from a smith's forge. After it has boiled for a considerable time, the liquor is set aside to cool, and is then strained for use: it is of a dark purple colour, and is extremely durable. They generally make use of a large snail-shell to keep it in, to which a little cotton is added to absorb the ink. A similar receptacle is also used for their ointments:

——Fundæ capacibus
Unguenta de conchis.

"They set a high value upon some of their manuscripts: an old man, who had a small duodecimo book of a quarto form, containing extracts from the Koran very neatly written, and ornamented with views of the Caaba, &c. at Mecca, refused to sell it for eight slaves, as it had been at Mecca, or, as he expressed it, "had walked to Mecca."

"The Mandingos and Foolas are passionate admirers of Arabic literature, in which they are tolerably proficient; and it is to be ascribed partly to the shackles imposed by their religion, and partly to the debasing effects of the slave trade and the obstructions it presents to improvement, rather than to a want of genius, that they have made so little progress in other sciences.

"Niebuhr observes, that he has often shewn to the Arabs books printed in their own language which they could scarce read. I have, however, more than once seen the Africans read Arabic books; one in particular read several chapters of the New Testament in Arabic, and of which he appeared to have a just comprehension. Several others explained passages in Arabic books, particularly Richardson's Arabic Dictionary, giving the sound of the words very nearly as they are there written, and in general explaining the meaning of them very exactly."

The appendix to the work before us consists of five parts: the first is a meagre description, in eight pages, of the colony of Sierra Leone, in which we do not find a single word of the state of morals and manners, of the government, and the influence among the natives of an establishment so perfectly unique in its objects, and so truly honorable to its patrons. We expected to have learnt the state of the missions, which no doubt must by this time have extended themselves over the whole neighbourhood; with what degree of success they have arrested the progress of Mahometanism, or rivalled that religion, by bestowing on the barbarous and pagan tribes the invaluable blessings of British legislation and christian morals. We knew from the reports already published how the settlement was established, that its black population consisted principally of the Nova Scotia free negroes, that it was nearly ruined by the French in 1794, and from its situation in a tropical climate, near the mouth of a river, and at the foot of a ridge of mountains, we could easily conceive the general character of its scenery. But all these circumstances are detailed by Dr. Winterbottom, and the really interesting information concerning the degree of success which has attended this new experiment of colonization and proselytism, is wholly withheld.

The second part of the appendix is the meteorological history of the colony for the year 1793, already mentioned. The third, and by far the longest part, is a republication from the Philosophical Transactions, of Mr. Smeathman's account of the Termites, inserted here merely for the sake of eking out the

volume. The fourth and fifth parts are vocabularies of the Timmanee, Bullom and Soosoo languages.

The two maps are tolerably well executed. Of the other engravings, the less that is said the better.

ART. VII. *An Account of the Island of Ceylon, containing its History, Geography, Natural History, Manners and Customs of its various Inhabitants; to which is added the Journal of an Embassy to the Court of Candy. Illustrated by a Map and Chart. By* ROBERT PERCIVAL, *Esq. of His Majesty's Nineteenth Regiment of Foot.* Quarto pp. 420.

CIVILIZATION, like charity, begins at home: it cannot be expected that a government should extend towards the colonies it has established, or the countries it has subdued, that unfettered freedom and enlightened policy, which it withholds from its own subjects. But the long-neglected truth now begins to be attended to, that the loyalty, and fidelity, and attachment of a people are better secured by a system of conciliation than by a system of terror; and that a liberal policy is more conducive to the interests of both parties than an oppressive one. We have reason to hope that this wise and humane system will be adopted throughout our vast empire in the east; the college, which has recently been established at Calcutta under the auspices of Marquis Wellesley, is intended to promote the study of the oriental languages, and by that means to facilitate an intimate acquaintance with the genius, the character, the manners, the usages, the prejudices, and propensities of the different people submitted to our governance, as being essential to the enactment of wise laws, and the administration of equal justice.

In this career of conquest, whether in America or the east, the Portugueze adventurers had no other object in view than to aggrandize their nation, and enrich themselves in the shortest and most summary manner. When Albuquerque succeeded in the conquest of Ceylon, instead of maintaining a friendly intercourse with the natives, and inducing them to assist in the cultivation of the island, every species of insult and barbarity was practised towards them. Not only was any little wealth they possessed seized by the rapacious grasp of avarice; but their manners and customs were trampled upon, and their religious opinions were not merely insulted, but even persecuted with the most wanton cruelty. A desultory, but sanguinary warfare continued for nearly a century; and the unhappy natives found, that their struggles against the discipline and concerted plans of the Portugueze, who derived every advantage from the mutual animosities of the petty princes of the island, were fruitless and without hope.

At this period, however, they had the offer of very powerful assistance from the Dutch, who had "no sooner succeeded in throwing off the Spanish yoke, than their commercial and enterprising spirit led them to explore every coast in the known world in search of opulence." In the year 1603, the Dutch admiral, Spilberg, approached their coasts, and the natives, from their hatred of the Portugueze, gave him a very favourable reception. During the constant wars in which the princes of the island had been engaged, the king of Candy had acquired such a superiority, that at the arrival of the Dutch, he was looked upon as emperor of Ceylon. He accepted the proffered alliance, and offered every facility to the Dutch, who, after a long continued siege, took possession of Columbo, in the year 1656. Thus ended the dominion of the Portugueze in Ceylon, exactly a century and a half after the first arrival of their countrymen in the island.

So great was the joy of the Ceylonese at their deliverance, that the king of Candy willingly paid the Dutch the expences of their armaments in cinnamon, and conferred upon them the principal possessions from which they had expelled the Portugueze; "among these, were the port of Trincomalee, and the fortress of Columbo: the former of these, which lies on the north-east part of the island, is that harbour which renders Ceylon the most valuable station in the Indian ocean." Columbo was built originally by the Portugueze, in the south-west part of the island, in the heart of that tract most celebrated for the production of cinnamon, as the most commodious station for collecting that staple production of the country. It is now the European capital of Ceylon.

For some time, the Dutch bore their honours so meekly, that the Ceylonese looked upon them without jealousy, and

were eager, by their good offices, to shew their gratitude to the *guardians of their coasts*, for such was the humble appellation which the Dutch assumed. The most friendly intercourse was kept up with the natives, who parted with the natural productions of the island on very easy terms, affording the greatest commercial advantages to the new settlers. Ere long, however, the cloven-foot of avarice appeared: the Dutch began not only to push their posts farther and farther into the interior, and to seize upon every spot which appeared well adapted to cultivation; they also encreased their demands upon the king for the protection they afforded him, and he soon found that all the cinnamon which grew in his dominions was insufficient to gratify the *guardians of his coasts*. Enraged at their repeated extortions, he at last fell suddenly upon their settlements, where he committed the greatest devastations. This breach was followed by a long course of hostilities, in which the Dutch, though generally victorious, were the greatest losers; for the incursions of the natives into their cultivated possessions on the coast frequently destroyed the labours of years. The Dutch governors saw the ruinous system they were pursuing, and endeavoured to restore tranquillity; but the calm was of no long duration. The renewed oppressions on the part of the Dutch were the constant signal for the renewal of hostilities between them and the natives, who, in the course of a long warfare, became brave and dexterous, and often repulsed their enemies even in close combat. Twice, indeed, the king was driven from his capital of Candy, but he found refuge and security in the impenetrable mountains of Digliggy, whence he could, with impunity, surprise and cut off the enemy's stores and convoys of provision till they should, of their own accord, abandon his dominions.

Mr. Percival, from whose brief introductory account of the successive changes which the island has undergone since it came into the possession of Europeans, we are selecting these particulars in common with many others, at first felt surprise, that a tract of land, cut off from all external supplies, and every where surrounded by European settlements, should have defied every attack of its enemies. But the whole country is high and mountainous; the approaches are steep, narrow, and scarcely accessible, except by persons on foot. The thick jungles and woods every where obstruct the view, and they are only penetrable by narrow and intricate paths, known but to the natives themselves, whose conscious inferiority to the Europeans in the open field, leads them to concealment among the bushes, whence they fall suddenly upon the enemy, and hastily retreat from one position to another before he has an opportunity of observing the course they have taken. By this mode of warfare, the Dutch suffered as much after their victory as before; the effects of the climate too, which, in the interior, is very unwholesome to Europeans, in consequence of the immense woods which cover the whole face of the country, the heavy dews of night, and the intense heat of day, unrefreshed by sea-breezes, were severely felt by the Dutch troops.

These causes, together with the enthusiastic attachment of the Ceylonese to their own mountains, and their deep-rooted antipathy to the foreign nations who had successively invaded their antient territory, combined to frustrate the attempts of the Dutch at forming a settlement in the interior of the island.

The last great war which was carried on with the natives was about the middle of the last century; Candy was taken, and a treaty was agreed on in the year 1766; by which, the king was virtually a prisoner in his own dominions: the tributes which he paid were so various and oppressive, that the Dutch had a monopoly of all the valuable productions of the island. The terms, indeed, were so harsh and degrading, that the Candians were exasperated against their oppressors, and nourished the most inveterate hatred.

Such was the situation in which affairs stood between the Dutch and the native Ceylonese towards the commencement of the late war; no other European power had acquired permanent footing in the island since the expulsion of the Portugueze, about one hundred and forty years before. The attempt which we made to reduce the island under Sir Edward Hughes, at the latter end of the American war, was unsuccessful, but the importance of it to Great Britain is so great, that on the first rupture with the Dutch, there could be no doubt but that we should attempt the reduction of

it. The junction of the Dutch with the French republic in the late war, was the signal for the commencement of our operations against their colonies in the east; a body of troops was detached for the conquest of Ceylon, in 1795, and the enterprise was crowned with success. It is to be hoped, that we shall profit by the severe lessons received by the Portugueze and Dutch: their system of rapacity and oppression must, by its inefficacy, teach us to adopt a more liberal and humane policy; and as their relaxation of military discipline was fatal to their interests, it will warn us by no means to neglect any requisite measures of defence.

"The island of Ceylon lies between 5° 40′ and 10° 30′ north latitude; and between 79° and 82° east longitude. It is situated at the entrance of the bay of Bengal, by which it is bounded on the north. On the north-west it is separated from the Coromandel coast by the gulph of Manaar, a narrow strait full of shoals, and impassable by large ships. It is distant about sixty leagues from Cape Comorin, the southern point of the peninsula of India, which divides the Coromandel and Malabar coasts. Its circumference is computed to be about nine hundred miles; and its length from Point Pedro at the northern extremity to Donderhead at the southern is about three hundred miles. Its breadth is very unequal, being in some parts only from forty to fifty miles, while in others it extends to sixty, seventy, and even one hundred."

The island of Ceylon is of the first consequence to Great Britain, whether considered in a commercial or political point of view; its internal produce presents several rich articles to commerce; and it is remarkable, that with the exception of Bombay, it contains the only harbour either on the Coromandel, or the Malabar Coasts, in which ships can moor in safety at all seasons of the year. As the whole of that large tract which we possess along the Coromandel coast presents nothing but open roads, all vessels are obliged on the approach of the monsoons to stand out into the open seas; and there are many parts of the coast that can only be approached during a few months of the year. The harbour of Trincomalée is equally secure at all times of the year: the next to this is Point de Galle: large ships, however, moor securely at certain seasons of the year, in the roads of Columbo. There are several inferior ports distributed around the island, which afford shelter to the small coasting vessels. The rivers which intersect the island, are for the most part broad and deep, but seldom navigable for any considerable distance: as soon as they enter the mountains which cover the native kingdom of Candy, they become rocky and rapid, and tumble down with such a headlong course, that it is impossible for the smallest canoe to navigate them. The internal communication by land is bad; the roads are in many places rugged and steep, and not only difficult, but dangerous, from the numbers of wild hogs, buffaloes, and elephants, which infest them. Since the island has been in the possession of the English, the roads, however, have been greatly improved.

The most lofty range of mountains divides the island nearly into two parts, and so completely separates them from each other, that both the climate and seasons on either side are essentially different. These mountains also terminate completely the effect of the monsoons which set in periodically from opposite sides; so that not only the sea-coast, but the whole country in the interior suffers very little from these storms. Though Ceylon lies so near the equator, the climate upon the whole is more temperate than on the continent of India; this, Mr. Percival attributes to the constant sea-breezes, by which it is fanned, without being subject to the hot and suffocating land-winds, which so frequently annoy the continent. This temperate climate, however, is chiefly confined to the coast where the sea-breezes have room to circulate: in the interior, the climate is often extremely sultry and unhealthy. This inconvenience, however, says Mr. P. might be in a great degree obviated by cutting down the woods, and clearing the jungles, and draining the swamps and marshes, as has been proved by a large tract in the neighbourhood of Trincomalee, cleared and drained by colonel Champagne since it came into our possession, and thus rendered much less noxious to Europeans. The garrison has suffered very little since from the climate.

The British dominions in Ceylon, skirt the coasts quite round, so that the territories of the king of Candy are completely inclosed within a circle. Mr. Percival follows the same direction, and leads his readers completely round the island in the same course he travelled it, setting off from Trincomalée, on which

spot he first touched the shores of Ceylon. Trincomalée, from the secure retreat which its harbour affords, is of more consequence to the English government than the whole of the rest of the island; its intrinsic value is, moreover, increased by its proximity and easy access to our settlements in the Bay of Bengal; a vessel from Madras may arrive here in two days, and can at any time make the harbour. The town itself is strong, and occupies more ground than Columbo, to which it is in every other respect very much inferior.

Jaffnapatam, the northern district of the island, is the most fertile and salubrious: the violence of those hot suffocating land-winds which rage so fiercely on the continent is broken by the intervening sea, the fields are clothed with verdure, and it is here only that sheep are reared with success. The greater number of the inhabitants of Jaffna are of Moorish extraction, and are divided into several tribes known by the names of Lubbahs, Mopleys, Chittys, and Choliars: they are distinguished by wearing a little round cap on their close-shaven heads. They carry on a variety of manufactures of coarse cloths, calicoes, shawls, &c.: here are also a number of goldsmiths, joiners, jewellers, &c. Having conducted us round the northern extremity of the island, Mr. Percival stops at the Bay of Condatchy, whilst he gives us a very curious and interesting account of the pearl fishery which is carried on here. The spectacle exhibited at this season, must be inconceivably striking to an European: "several thousands of people of different colours, countries, casts, and occupations, continually passing and repassing in a busy crowd: the vast numbers of small tents and huts erected on the shore, with the bazar or market-place before each; the multitude of boats returning in the afternoon from the pearl banks; the anxious expecting countenances of the boat-owners, while the boats are approaching the shore, and the eagerness and avidity with which they run to them when arrived in hopes of a rich cargo;" the numbers of jewellers, brokers, and merchants, all busily occupied in some way or other with the pearls; tend to impress the mind, as Mr. Percival observes, with the value and importance of that object which can of itself create this scene.

"The first step, previous to the commencement of the fishery, is to have the different oyster banks surveyed, the state of the oysters ascertained, and a report made on the subject to government. If it has been found that the quantity is sufficient, and that they are arrived at a proper degree of maturity, the particular banks to be fished that year are put up for sale to the highest bidder, and are usually purchased by a black merchant. This, however, is not always the course pursued: government sometimes judges it more advantageous to fish the banks on its own account, and to dispose of the pearls afterwards to the merchants. When this plan is adopted, boats are hired for the season on account of government, from different quarters; the price varies considerably, according to circumstances; but is usually from five to eight hundred pagodas for each boat. There are however no stated prices, and the best bargain possible is made for each boat separately. The Dutch generally followed this last system; the banks were fished on government account, and the pearls disposed of in different parts of India, or sent to Europe. When this plan was pursued, the governor and council of Ceylon claimed a certain per centage on the value of the pearls; or, if the fishing of the banks was disposed of by public sale, they bargained for a stipulated sum to themselves over and above what was paid on account of government. The pretence on which they founded their claims for this perquisite, was their trouble in surveying and valuing the banks.

"As neither the season, nor the convenience of the persons attending, would permit the whole of the banks to be fished in one year, they are divided into three or four different portions, which are fished one portion annually in succession. The different portions are completely distinct, and are set up separately to sale, each in the year in which it is to be fished. By this means a sufficient interval is given to the oysters, to attain their proper growth; and as the portion first used has generally recovered its maturity by the time the last portion has been fished, the fishery becomes almost regularly annual, and may thus be considered as yielding a yearly revenue The oysters are supposed to attain their completest state of maturity in seven years; for, if left too long, I am told that the pearl gets so large and so disagreeable to the fish, that it vomits and throws it out of the shell."

The fishing season begins in February, and ends about the beginning of April.

"During the season, all the boats regularly sail and return together. A signal gun is fired at Arippo, about ten o'clock at night, when the whole fleet sets sail with the land breeze. They reach the banks before day-

Digitized by Google

break; and at sun-rise commence fishing. In this they continue busily occupied till the sea-breeze, which arises about noon, warns them to return to the bay. As soon as they appear within sight, another gun is fired, and the colours hoisted, to inform the anxious owners of their return. When the boats come to land, their cargoes are immediately taken out, as it is necessary to have them completely unloaded before night. Whatever may have been the success of their boats, the owners seldom wear the looks of disappointment; for, although they may have been unsuccessful one day, they look with the most complete assurance of better fortune to the next; as the Brahmins and conjurers, whom they implicitly trust, in defiance of all experience, understand too well the liberality of a man in hopes of good fortune, not to promise them all they can desire.

"Each of the boats carries twenty men, with a Tindal or chief boatman, who acts as pilot. Ten of the men row and assist the divers in re-ascending. The other ten are divers; they go down into the sea by five at a time; when the first five come up the other five go down, and by this method of alternately diving, they give each other time to recruit themselves for a fresh plunge.

"In order to accelerate the descent of the divers, large stones are employed: five of these are brought in each boat for the purpose; they are of a reddish granite, common in this country, and of a pyramidal shape, round at top and bottom, with a hole perforated through the smaller end sufficient to admit a rope. Some of the divers use a stone shaped like a half-moon, which they fasten round the belly when they mean to descend, and thus keep their feet free.

"These people are accustomed to dive from their very infancy, and fearlessly descend to the bottom in from four to ten fathom water, in search of the oysters. The diver, when he is about to plunge, seizes the rope, to which one of the stones we have described is attached, with the toes of his right foot, while he takes hold of a bag of net-work with those of his left; it being customary among all the Indians to use their toes in working or holding as well as their fingers, and such is the power of habit that they can pick up even the smallest thing from the ground with their toes as nimbly as an European could with his fingers. The diver thus prepared, seizes another rope with his right hand, and holding his nostrils shut with the left, plunges into the water, and by the assistance of the stone speedily reaches the bottom. He then hangs the net round his neck, and with much dexterity, and all possible dispatch, collects as many oysters as he can while he is able to remain under water, which is usually about two minutes. He then resumes his former position, makes a signal to those above by pulling the rope in his right hand, and is immediately by this means drawn up and brought into the boat, leaving the stone to be pulled up afterwards by the rope attached to it.

"The exertion undergone during this process is so violent, that upon being brought into the boat, the divers discharge water from their mouth, ears, and nostrils, and frequently even blood. But this does not hinder them from going down again in their turn. They will often make from forty to fifty plunges in one day; and at each plunge bring up about one hundred oysters. Some rub their bodies over with oil, and stuff their ears and noses to prevent the water from entering; while others use no precautions whatever. Although the usual time of remaining under water does not much exceed two minutes, yet there are instances known of divers who could remain four and even five minutes, which was the case with a Caffree boy the last year I visited the fishery. The longest instance ever known was that of a diver who came from Anjango in 1797, and who absolutely remained under water full six minutes."

The chief terror and risque of the Indians in diving, arise from falling in with the ground-shark while at bottom; this animal is a common and terrible inhabitant of all the seas in these latitudes, and a source of perpetual uneasiness to the adventurous Indian, who is always guaranteed from harm by priests or conjurers kept in pay for the occasion. If an accident happens, these fellows are singularly dexterous in accounting for it; they are known in the Malabar language by the name of *Pillal-karras*, or *binders of sharks*. Oyster lotteries are carried on to a great extent; they consist of purchasing a quantity of the oysters unopened, and running the chance of finding pearls in them: they are much encouraged by European officers.

"As soon as the oysters are taken out of the boats, they are carried to the different people to whom they belong, and placed in holes or pits dug in the ground to the depth of about two feet, or in small square places cleared and fenced round for the purpose; each person having his own separate division. Mats are spread below them to prevent the oysters from touching the earth, and here they are left to die and rot. As soon as they have passed through a state of putrefaction, and have become dry, they are easily opened without any danger of injuring the pearls, which might be the case if they were opened fresh, as at that time to do so requires great force. On the shell being opened, the oyster is minutely examined for the pearls: it is usual even to boil the oyster, as the pearl, though commonly found in the

Digitized by Google

shell, is not unfrequently contained in the body of the fish itself."

The stench occasioned by the putrid oysters corrupts the atmosphere for several miles round Condatchy, and renders the neighbourhood extremely unpleasant till the monsoons and violent south-west winds set in and purify the air.

But we have so much interesting matter before us, that we must take our leave of the pearl fishery: nothing very particular occurs to detain us until we reach Columbo, except the salt-works at Puttalon, which the Dutch pitched upon for the exclusive manufactory of that important article, with which by treaty it supplied the king of Candy's dominions. Columbo is the capital of Ceylon, and the seat of government; it is strong by nature, and strengthened by art; its population is numerous, its situation healthy, and the district depending on it extensive and fertile. When the English arrived here, they found a rack and a wheel, with a great variety of other implements of torture; these were instantly destroyed by the humanity of the British government. Columbo is one of the most populous places in India; there is no part of the world, says Mr. P. where so many different languages are spoken, or which contain such a mixture of nations, manners, and religions. The language in most general use here, both by Europeans and Asiatics, is the Portugueze of India, a base, corrupt dialect, altogether different from that spoken in Portugal. It is from this district that large quantities of cinnamon and pepper, the staple spices of the island, are yearly transported to Europe, arrack is made in great quantities, and sent to our Indian settlements, as are a variety of other articles, the produce of the island, such as betel-leaf, and areka-nut, cocoa-nut, coral, ivory, &c. A large quantity of coya-rope, or cordage, is also manufactured here, and supplies are sent to our ships on the Indian seas. In return, rice is imported, calicoes, muslins, tin, copper, &c.; and a Portugueze or Chinese ship arrives once a year from Macao with teas, sugar, sweetmeats, hams, silks, velvets, nankeens, umbrellas, straw hats, all kinds of China-ware and toys. The country for several miles around Columbo is extremely rich: the groves of cinnamon and cocoa-trees form a shade impenetrable to the fiercest sun, and afford a refreshment to the traveller which no European can estimate who has not experienced it.

Pursuing his course south of Columbo, Mr. P. conducts us to Puntura; to Caltura, where certain native manufactures are carried on to a considerable extent; to Point de Galle, whose harbour we have already mentioned; and to Matura, the country around which abounds with elephants. It is here that they are principally caught for exportation; every three or four years the elephant is hunted here by order of government. In the year 1797, at one of these hunts, a hundred and seventy-six were caught, the greatest number ever remembered to have been taken at one time. From Matura, no European settlement occurs till we come to Batacolo, a distance of sixty miles, very much infested by wild beasts. From Batacolo we proceed to Trincomalée, having now, under the guidance of Mr. Percival, who is a very instructive and entertaining companion, completed a tour round the island.

Before Mr. Percival enters upon a description of the interior parts of Ceylon, which are under a different sovereign, and inhabited by people of a different appearance and customs from those on the sea coast, he gives an account of these latter. Besides the native Ceylonese, who live under the dominion of the Europeans, and are distinguished by the name of the *Cingalese*, the coasts are chiefly inhabited by Dutch, Portugueze, and Malays. The Ceylonese Dutch are represented as living almost upon gin and the fumes of tobacco; inert, stupid, ceremonious, selfish, and so callous to the feelings of humanity, as to treat their poor slaves with cruelty upon the slightest provocation, and often from mere caprice.

It cannot escape notice, that we have purposely omitted any account of the military operations of the English: the fact is that we were fearful of extending the article to an unreasonable length. The consequence of the omission has been, that we have neglected the notice of two additional traits in the character of the Ceylonese Dutch; namely, cowardice, and treachery. The capture of Columbo was effected without resistance, and as the Dutch had every advantage of situation, knowledge of the country, and formidable works, nothing can convey a more striking idea of the degraded state to which their military establish-

Digitized by Google

ments were reduced, than their suffering an enemy to advance unmolested in such circumstances. "It is only to the total extinction of public spirit, and of every sentiment of national honour," observes Mr. Percival, "that such conduct can be attributed. A thirst of gain, and of private emolument, appears to have swallowed up every other feeling in the breasts of the Dutchmen; and this is a striking warning to all commercial nations, to be careful that those sentiments which engage them to extend their dominions, do not obliterate those, by which alone they can be retained and defended." Shocking instances of their treachery are recorded in pages 129, and 161 et seq.: we could wish to forget them.

The Dutch ladies are exactly such as we should expect the wives and daughters of Dutch husbands and Dutch fathers to be; their minds, their morals, and their manners, alike coarse and uncultivated. Dirty and indelicate, the elder ladies chew the betel-leaf and areka-nut, and spit into the same pan which is employed for that purpose by the smoakers!!

The present Portugueze of Ceylon are a mixture of the *spurious* descendants of the several European possessors of that island, by native women, joined to a number of Moors and Malabars. What a delectable mixture! their religion is just what it should be—a compound of Paganism and Catholicism. The complexions of this mongrel breed, of course, vary according to circumstances; jet black, sickly yellow, and tawny. They combine all the vices of the Europeans and Indians, without any of their virtues.

The Malays form a considerable proportion of the inhabitants of Ceylon; of this vindictive and ferocious race, so widely scattered over the Eastern parts of India, Mr. Percival has given a more full and characteristic account than any we recollect having elsewhere met with. Those of them who are brought up in the European colonies, contract more of the habits of civilized society, than such as remain in their original empire of Molucca, but they never become completely tame; their natural ferocity is never entirely got rid of. The men are jealous to an extreme, and the passions of both sexes are equally violent; if an European paramour offers the slightest neglect to a Malay woman, she will take a sure and terrible revenge. The Malays universally profess the Mahometan religion, and observe its ceremonies strictly: they have a peculiar fondness for gardening, and a skill in medicinal herbs is general among them. Their amusements are suited to their dispositions, and are bold, vigorous, and ferocious: they are fond of music; and having lost their last stake at gaming, will often sacrifice themselves and their lucky antagonist to their despair. In their own country, their government resembles the ancient feudal institutions of Europe; but the fierce temper arising from such institutions, which in Europe was softened by the Christian religion, has rather been exasperated by that which the Malays have embraced; they mingle no courtesy with their courage: all is ferocity, and revenge. The *kreese*, which every Malay carries about him and which descends with religious care from generation to generation, is a poisoned dagger, the blade of which is of the best tempered steel, and often made of a serpentine form, so as to inflict the more dreadful wound; the ivory handle, carved into the similitude of a man's body, with a bird's head, is their *swanny* or god, to which they make obeisance before they draw the kreese to execute some atrocious purpose, and which is never sheathed again till it has been drenched in blood. Before they *run-a-muck*, in order to secure themselves from the possibility of being diverted from their bloody purpose, they intoxicate themselves, and produce a desperate delirium by taking opium prepared from an herb called *bang*. In this horrible frenzy, into which a Malay works himself in the thirst of revenge for some real, or perhaps imaginary grievance, he rushes headlong into the street, and stabs indiscriminately every one who comes in his way, crying aloud *Amok, Amok;* kill, kill. The fury of the devoted wretch, says Mr. Percival, is indescribable, and the mischief he often does is very great, before a lucky shot brings him down. The cruelty and insolence of the Dutch towards their Malay slaves occasioned very frequent *mucks* in their settlements. It is with the highest pride and pleasure we learn, that since the arrival of the English at Ceylon, this barbarous practice has almost been unknown. How honourable a testimony to the humane and mild administration of the English government! The Malays are well dis-

Digitized by Google

ciplined soldiers, profoundly obedient to command, and submit without a murmur, and without a thought of revenge, to any sentence from a court-martial: it is an ordinance of their religion, to pay implicit obedience to all their officers, European as well as Malay, and to execute military orders with the strictest punctuality. Mr. Percival is of opinion, that mild and generous treatment may in time subdue their native ferocity; but the only way of radically extirpating it is, by the introduction of christianity among them.

The native Ceylonese compose the great majority of the inhabitants of the island; those under the dominion of Europeans retain their original appellation of *Cinglese*; the rest, who acknowledge the authority of their native princes alone, are called *Candians*. *The Ceylonese, of both sexes, are remarkably clean and neat both in their persons and their houses, abstemious in their diet, and so scrupulously nice in their eating and drinking, cookery, &c. that to avoid touching with their lips the vessel out of which they drink, they hold it at some distance from their heads, and literally pour the drink down their throats. The Ceylonese are courteous and polite, charitable, honest, *for Indians*, and mild; when their anger is roused, their revenge however is mortal; and a Ceylonese has often been known to kill himself in the presence of his foe, in order that the latter, as the presumptive murderer, might suffer from it. The Ceylonese are grave and punctilious; their gravity may be derived from the gloomy superstition with which they are haunted from their cradle to their grave, and from the dispirited and oppressed state in which they have been so long kept by their tyrannous masters, the Portugueze and the Dutch. Sports and diversions seem almost unknown among them. We do not know how to reconcile their unusual continence with respect to women, with the account which immediately follows of their unbounded licentiousness, page 176, et seq. A mother makes no scruple of disposing of her daughter's favours for a small sum, to any one that desires them; and to have been connected with an European is an honour which excites envy. As marriages are dissolvable at the option of either party, polygamy, though lawful, is not general, it is expensive, and not necessary. Marriages are often contracted by parents during the childhood of their children, with a view to the observance of rank, and are often dissolved almost as soon as consummated.

"It is also customary for those who intend to marry, previously to cohabit and make trial of each other's temper; and if they find they cannot agree, they break off without the interference of the priest, or any further ceremony, and no disgrace attaches on the occasion to either party, but the woman is quite as much esteemed by her next lover as if he had found her in a state of virginity.

"After the parties have agreed to marry, the first step is, that the man present his bride with the wedding-clothes, which indeed are not of the most costly kind: they consist of a piece of cloth, six or seven yards in length, for the use of the bride, and another piece of cloth to be placed on the bed. It gives us a striking idea of the total want of industry among the Ceylonese, and their extreme state of poverty, that even these simple marriage presents are frequently beyond the ability of the man to purchase, and that he is often obliged to borrow them for the occasion from some of his neighbours.

"The wedding presents are presented by the bridegroom in person, and the following night he is entitled to lie with the bride. Upon this occasion is appointed the day for bringing her home, and celebrating the wedding with festivities. On that day he and his relations repair to the bride's house, carrying along with them what they are able to contribute to the marriage feast. The bride and bridegroom, in the presence of this assembly, eat out of one dish to denote that they are of the same rank. Their thumbs are then tied together; and the ceremony concludes by the nearest relations, or the priest, when he is present, cutting them asunder. This, however, is accounted a less binding ceremony, and indeed scarcely intended for continuance. When it is desired to make the marriage as firm and indissoluble as the nature of their manners will allow, the parties are joined together with a long piece of cloth, which is folded several times round both their bodies; and water is then poured upon them by the priest, who always officiates at this ceremony although rarely at the former. After the marriage ceremony,

* Although there are some shades of difference between the Candians and Cinglese, their characters and customs are so generally alike, that a description of the *Ceylonese* will be found sufficiently characteristic of both. In a subsequent chapter, Mr. Percival, with that care and accuracy which stamp so high a value on his work, has enumerated those circumstances which distinguish the Candians from the Cinglese.

Digitized by Google

whether the stricter or the less binding one is performed, the parties pass the night at the bride's house; and in the morning the husband brings her home, accompanied by her friends, who carry with them provisions for another feast."

When a divorce takes place, and both men and women often marry and divorce several times before they can fix on a partner for life, the woman carries with her the portion she brought, in order to make her as good a match for her next husband. "Owing to the early intercourse of the women with the other sex, for they are in general even regularly married at twelve, they soon lose the appearance of youth, and get old and haggard in their looks immediately after they pass twenty."

In Ceylon every man is his own physician: a plaster of herbs or cow-dung is the panacea; leprosy is common; and the cow-pox was not introduced at the time Mr. Percival's account was composed. The language of the Ceylonese is peculiar to the island. Mr. P. thinks it allied to the Maldivian, which race they resemble in shape, complexion, and habit. To read and write are no ordinary accomplishments among the natives of Ceylon; a sect of *learned* men, called *gowies*, are retained by the king of Candia to execute all the writings of state, and those which respect religious affairs. For writing they usually employ the leaves of the talipot-tree, which are smooth, and cut into long slips; on these they engrave, as it were, the Arabic characters, by means of a fine pointed steel pencil, like a bodkin. Palm leaves are sometimes employed, and a sort of paper is made from the bark of a tree. The progress of the Ceylonese in the other arts of life, is proportionate to their literature; their agriculture is in the rudest state; and perhaps there is no part of India, says Mr. P. where the lands are cultivated with more negligence. Mr. P. gives reasons for believing that the arts were better understood among them formerly than they are at present.

The religion of the Ceylonese is gloomy and superstitious to the very lowest degree; their whole conduct is regulated by omens; and if an astrologer declares that a child is born to misfortunes, the parents frequently anticipate its future evils by destoying it! Mr. Percival considers "the excess of trembling superstition, which unhinges the minds of the Ceylonese," as attributable to their climate: the noise of the thunder is terrible, and the effects of the lightning dreadful; they consider these frequent storms as a judgment from Heaven, and a proof that their island is abandoned to the dominion of devils. This explanation derives plausibility from the prevalence of similar apprehensions among the Malabars and Indians, who are subject to thunder storms of equal violence. The priests profit by these superstitious fears, encourage them, and of course impede the progress of civilization.

The Ceylonese are rigid predestinarians; they believe in the immortality of the soul, and the resurrection of the body; that the souls of the just are admitted into the rank of gods, whilst those of the wicked, particularly tyrants and impious priests, are supposed to pass into wild beasts and reptiles. They worship the one Supreme Being as the creator and ruler of heaven and earth, but they have a number of subordinate deities, good and evil.

"The next in dignity to him is their god Buddou, the saviour of souls. This idea of a saviour seems in some degree to pervade every religion in the world, although tainted by a variety of different superstitions which are joined to it; and what is remarkable, the expectations formed from the interference of this saviour are in almost every religion nearly the same. Buddou, according to the most general tradition, was originally the spirit of a good man, who was again sent to revisit the earth; and after having performed a prodigious number of virtuous actions, and been transformed into a hundred and ninety-nine different shapes, reascended into heaven, and is still employed in procuring the pardon of his worshippers."

Ceylon is universally believed to have been the residence of Adam, the seat of Paradise, and on the summit of a mountain called Hamalleel, is the print of a man's foot. On this spot Adam is supposed to have taken his farewell view of Paradise, and have crossed over to the continent of India, which was at that time joined to the island; but no sooner had he passed what is to this day called Adam's-bridge, than the sea closed behind him, and cut off all hopes of return. The origin of these traditions, says Mr. Percival, I do not pretend to trace, but their connection with scriptural history is very evident; and they afford a new instance how universally the opinions with respect to the origin

Digitized by Google

of man coincide with the history of that event, as recorded in the Bible.

The priests of Buddou are called *Tirinanxes*, and are held in such high estimation at the court of Candy, that their persons are held sacred, and the king himself has no power to punish them, even for a conspiracy against his own life; they are exempted from all taxes. They are, however, placed under certain restrictions, and are totally debarred from wine and women. Mr. Percival, however, tells us a secret, which indeed we should very probably have guessed, namely, that they find an opportunity of escaping from these restraints, and are allowed to lay aside their order when it suits their inclination. The Tirinanxes are elected by the king from among the nobles, and are consequently men of independent power and influence. The priests of the inferior deities are a set of lazy impudent vagabonds, who live upon the tricks and extortions which they practise upon their credulous and deluded votaries. The christian priests and missionaries often make converts.

Notwithstanding the general similitude between the Candians and Cinglese, the independence of the former who retired from European invaders into the fastnesses of their native mountains, gives a manliness to their character, which the latter, who, from the nature of the country which they inhabited, were compelled to unconditional submission, have almost lost. In exchange, however, the Cinglese are more humanized and softened in their dispositions; they are quiet, inoffensive, gentle, and friendly, and have scarcely any of the false, treacherous, and designing arts which are often found among the Candians. The deportment of the Cinglese denotes, however, that he has been a slave to the Europeans, he is submissive, he is abject, because he is helpless. The Candians are haughty, and may justly boast of their independence: their mien is lofty, their habits are warlike; and they look upon the Cinglese as a mean and despicable race, who barter their natural rights for peace and protection.

The interior of the island, owing to the jealousy of the Dutch, in the first place, and the Candians in the second, has been little explored by Europeans. The Dutch were fearful that some connection might be formed injurious to their own interests; and it was the necessary policy of the Candians to conceal whatever might excite the avarice and rapacity of the Europeans. When General Macdowal went as embassador to Candy, his suite were admitted only by torch-light, and always retired before break of day. Mr. P. lived on the island upwards of three years, and traversed the interior, even to the capital; but such was the vigilant suspicion of the Candians, that during the whole progress of the embassy not one female was permitted to be seen! This suspicion was excited by the conduct of the Dutch. The Candians are not jealous, but kept their females out of sight from a fear of intelligence being communicated to the Europeans. The dominions of his Candian majesty are on all sides separated from those of the Europeans, by almost impenetrable woods and mountains. All travelling is performed on foot, his majesty suffering no roads to be cut, or woods to be cleared, lest communication should be made easy. What reflections does such a prohibition excite? what are we to conceive of that system, the cruelty, rapacity, and perfidy of which could have driven the native monarch of the island, and his high-spirited mountaineers, thus to conceal themselves amidst their own impervious rocks and pathless jungles, in order to avoid being hunted down like beasts by their inexorable pursuers? There is every reason to hope and to believe, that the liberal and humane policy of the English government will in time uproot this antipathy against the Europeans.

The city of Candy itself is a poor miserable looking place, and the perseverance of the Dutch has more than once enabled them to reach it, when the monarch has been compelled to shelter himself in some still wilder and more impenetrable retreat.

The government of Candy is an absolute despotism; and any resistance to the will of the king, without power to maintain it, is sure to be attended with immediate destruction. The Candians are divided into casts, which are strictly preserved from intermixture: in the arrangement of them artificers rank before husbandmen and soldiers. This singular circumstance, says Mr. P. bespeaks a degree of civilization, and a love for the arts, which certainly do not correspond with the present state of these islanders; but, together with some architectural remains of superior taste and workmanship, which have escaped the

Digitized by Google

ravages of time and the foe, indicates that the arts were more successfully cultivated, and that civilization was farther advanced in former times than it is now.

Mr. Percival devotes an interesting chapter to the nature of the Candian government, and its civil and military establishments. We must pass it over, as the most singular part of the inhabitants of Ceylon yet remain to be described, the *Bedahs* or *Vaddahs;* a race of savages who, when the Portugueze first visited the island, occupied, as they do now, the deepest recesses of its forests. The origin of this race of savages bids defiance to conjecture; they are an anomaly in the natural history of man; living upon the precarious produce of the chace, and exposed to the fury of wild beasts, they prefer this barbarous and solitary life to the luxuries of the Cinglese, and the arts of the Europeans, which they are accustomed to witness. The Bedahs differ from the other Ceylonese in complexion and in language; in the province of Bintan, where they are most numerous, they are completely savage, holding no intercourse with the other natives, and are rarely even seen by them; they sleep on trees, or at the foot of them, and climb up its branches when any noise alarms them, with the utmost expertness and celerity. This tribe acknowledges no authority but that of its own chief and religious men, and adhere without the slightest variation to its own laws and customs, from generation to generation. There are some few who will even traffic with the Cinglese; "but the wilder class, known by the name of Ramba Vaddahs, are more seldom seen, even by stealth, than the most timid of the wild animals."

"The dogs of the Bedahs are remarkable for their sagacity, and not only readily trace out game, but also distinguish one species of animals from another. On the approach of any carnivorous animals, or of a stranger, they immediately put their masters upon their guard. These faithful animals are indeed invaluable to them, and constitute their chief riches. When their daughters are married, hunting dogs form their portion; and a Bedah is as unwilling to part with his dog as an Arabian with his horse. Some time before the last war broke out between us and Holland, a Dutch officer procured a couple of these dogs, which he carried to Surat, and sold for four hundred rix-dollars.

"Those Bedahs who venture to converse with the other natives, are represented to be courteous, and in address far beyond their state of civilization. Their religion is little known. They have their inferior deities corresponding to the demons of the Cinglese, and observe certain festivals. On these occasions victuals of various sorts are placed at the root of a tree, and the ceremonies of the festival consist in dancing around them."

The Bedahs live entirely upon the produce of the chace, and upon the fruits which grow spontaneously around them. The cultivation of the ground is an art which they never attempt to practise.

After this ample description of the island of Ceylon, and the several races of its inhabitants, Mr. Percival proceeds in plain unscientific language to give some account of its natural productions. Among the animals the elephant ranks first; those in Ceylon are produced in very great abundance, and are considered superior to any in the world.

"These lords of the forest, though from their size and strength formidable to all its other inhabitants, themselves live in continual apprehension of a small reptile, against which neither their sagacity nor their prowess can at all defend them. This diminutive creature gets into the trunk of the elephant, and pursues its course till it finally fixes in his head, and by keeping him in continual agony, at length torments the stupendous animal to death. So dreadfully afraid are the elephants of this dangerous enemy, that they use a variety of precautions to prevent his attacks; and never lay their trunks to the ground, except when to gather or separate their food."

The manner of catching elephants here differs from that practised on the continent of India, but we cannot spare room to describe it.

Neither the horse nor the sheep is a native of Ceylon: the horses generally used are a mixture of the Arab and Carnatic breeds. They are scarcely ever castrated. Indian horses are extremely spirited, and often defend their riders against the attack of other animals. "I have myself been indebted to their prowess," says Mr. P. "for my preservation from the fury of a buffalo." Two attendants are constantly attached to each horse: one follows him wherever he goes; and Mr. P. assures us, that some of these *horse-keepers* have kept up to his horse for twenty or thirty miles together, while he was proceeding at the rate of five or six miles an hour!

The oxen of Ceylon scarcely exceed

Google

in size our calves of a year old; bullocks and buffaloes are employed in bearing and drawing burdens. These latter, which are very numerous, are fierce and rough, and extremely obstinate and untractable: to the scarlet coat they have an unaccountable antipathy, the sight of it makes them perfectly outrageous. Although Ceylon produces few domestic animals, it contains a great variety of wild ones.

The small species of tygers infest the woods; tyger cats, wild hogs, leopards, and monkies abound; the hyena and bear are natives, but rarely met with; there are no foxes, but jackals in abundance; porcupines, racoons, armadillos, squirrels and mungooses are found here; hares are extremely numerous; but there are no rabbits.

"Varieties of deer and elks are every where met with in the woods and jungles. One species of deer is particularly calculated to attract attention. It is a very small creature, in size not exceeding our hare; it is called by the Dutch the *moose-deer*, and by the natives *gazelle*. In every thing but in size they are complete deer; and their sides are beautifully spotted, or streaked like the fallow-deer. It is usual for the natives to catch them, and bring them down in cages to our markets, where they are sold at about a shilling a piece. Their flavour is much stronger than that of the hare, and when stewed they are excellent.

"The Indian ichneumon is a small creature, in appearance between a weazel and a mungoose. It is of infinite use to the natives, from its inveterate enmity to snakes, which would otherwise render every footstep of the traveller dangerous. The proofs of sagacity which I have seen in this little animal are truly surprising, and afford a beautiful instance of the wisdom with which Providence has fitted the powers of every animal to its particular situation on the globe. This diminutive creature, on seeing a snake ever so large, will instantly dart on it and seize it by the throat, provided he finds himself in an open place where he has an opportunity of running to a certain herb*, which he know instinctively to be an antidote against the poison of the bite, if he should happen to receive one. I was present at an experiment tried at Columbo to ascertain the reality of this circumstance. The ichneumon procured for the purpose, was first shewn the snake in a close room. On being let down to the ground, he did not discover any inclination whatever to attack his enemy, but ran about the room to discover if there was any hole or aperture by which he might get out. On finding none, he returned hastily to his master, and placing himself in his bosom, could not by any means be induced to quit it, or face the snake. On being carried out of the house, however, and laid down near his antagonist in an open place, he instantly flew at the snake and soon destroyed it. He then suddenly disappeared for a few minutes, and again returned as soon as he had found the herb and eat of it. This useful instinct impels the animal to have recourse to the herb on all occasions, where it is engaged with a snake, whether poisonous or not. The one employed in this experiment was of the harmless kind, and procured for the purpose."

Flying foxes abound here, and rats of various descriptions. Birds are very numerous; one of the most remarkable is the honey-bird;

"So called from a particular instinct by which it discovers the honey concealed in trees. As if designed for the service of the human species, this bird continues to flutter about and make a great noise till it has attracted the notice of some person, and induced him to follow the course it points out to him. It then flutters before him, till it has led him to the tree where the bees have lodged their treasure. The man then carries off the honey, leaving a little for the use of the bird, which silently and contentedly watches till it is permitted to enjoy its reward. As soon as it has eaten up its portion, it renews its noise, and goes in quest of another tree, followed by the man, who finds a guide here provided for him by nature."

The reptiles and insects of Ceylon are exceedingly numerous, and several species of them are very little known; serpents particularly abound, to the great annoyance of the inhabitants; alligators infest the rivers, and render them very dangerous. In the year 1799, one was killed in the neighbourhood of Columbo, twenty feet long, and as thick in the body as a horse: in its belly were found the undigested head and arm of a black man. Insects abound here as in all hot countries, of every description and degree of malignity. Ceylon is particularly prolific in plants also: almost all those fruits which are peculiar to India, and the countries within the tropical climates, are found here in great abundance, and of a superior quality:

* We regret that Mr. Percival has omitted to give us the name of this herb: so powerful and certain an antidote surely would be serviceable to man: the natives, indeed, have occasionally recourse to it. Sparmann says it is the *ophiorhiza*.—See also *Amst. Acad. tom.* IV. for a treatise on the subject by Darolius.

Digitized by Google

pine-apples, oranges, pomegranates, citrons, limes, tamarinds, &c. grow spontaneously in the woods. The following are among the most esteemed and valuable vegetable productions: Ceylon produces two species of the bread-fruit-tree: one of which is specifically called the *bread-fruit tree*, and the other *jacka* or jack-fruit. These fruits are invaluable preservatives against famine, and are eaten by the natives with great relish. Every part of the cocoa tree is useful: Mr. Percival has given a very full and interesting account of its various qualities. The nuts of the *betel-tree* are in general use, and form a great article of trade among the natives. Ceylon, which has been so long renowned for its spices, produces several sorts of pepper: cardamoms, coffee, and the palm or palmira tree grow here; the leaves of this latter are used by the natives to write on; a tough whitish skin, like that found at the root of the betel leaves, covers the body of the tree, and, like it, is employed by the natives to hold their victuals, their arrack, water, &c. The *sugar-tree* is a species of palm found in several parts of the island. "It bears a flower distinguished by the variety of its colours: on cutting off the flower and making an incision in the place from which it sprung, a juice distills, which by a slight process of boiling and straining, yields as good a sugar as that extracted from the cane, and far superior to the *jaggery*." The *sugar-cane* has also been introduced into the island, and plantations of it are found in the neighbourhood of Caltura. The *tea-plant* has been discovered native in the forests of this island, and of a quality said to be equal to any which grows in China. That experiments should be made by government in the cultivation of the two last-mentioned plants, is a matter of immediate and peremptory importance. The *tal-pot-tree* derives its highest estimation from its leaves, which, as we have already noticed, are used by the natives for writing.

"The leaf is completely circular, terminating in the most beautiful rays, it folds up into plaits like a fan, which in figure it nearly resembles. In size and thickness it completely surpasses almost all other leaves. The breadth of the diameter is from three to four feet, and the length and thickness is in proportion: it is large enough to cover ten men from the inclemency of the weather. It is made into umbrellas of all sizes, and serves equally to protect the natives against the intolerable rays of the sun, and the rains which at particular seasons deluge their country. As it is of such an impenetrable texture as to defy either the sun or the monsoon, it affords a shelter even more secure than their huts. During the violent rains it is not unusual to see the natives prop up one end of a talipot leaf with a stick two or three feet long, and then creep under it for protection."

The *banyan*, the *cotton-tree*, the *tickwood*, and the beautiful *calamander*, together with that singular plant the *nepenthes*, are indigenous here: rice is cultivated on a very large scale, and constitutes the chief food of the natives. But the staple commodity of Ceylon, the most valuable and the most important article of the whole, is *cinnamon*. Mr. Percival has not suffered it to pass without that attention to which its superior value entitled it; he has given a minute account of the different sorts, and their respective qualities; of the soil best adapted to its growth; of the general appearance of the plant, the properties and uses of its various parts; the manner in which it is cultivated, barked, harvested, housed, prepared for exportation, &c. &c.; and lastly, he has suggested some hints for the improvement and extension of its culture. The chapter is altogether very interesting and important. The interior is not so well adapted for producing this plant as the loose soil about the coasts; but of late years less has been produced there than formerly, in consequence of the cruel exactions and impolitic avarice of the Dutch; who at length reduced the king of Candy to such desperation, that he resolved, says Mr. P. to secure himself against their future attacks, by leaving nothing in his dominions which could excite their covetousness. 'With this view, since the last treaty he was forced to make with them, he has employed every means to prevent the growth and propagation of the cinnamon tree.

We are now come to the minerals of Ceylon, which has scarcely been less celebrated for its precious stones than for its spices. In addition to the ruby, the topaz, and the diamond, are to be found the saphire, amethyst, aqua marine, and tourmalines of various colours. Pearls have already been mentioned as forming a considerable article of revenue and traffic. Lead, tin, and iron ores are found in the interior; but to disappoint the avarice and rapacity of the Dutch, they are never wrought or applied to any pur-

pose. There are also mines of quicksilver; one was discovered in the neighbourhood of Columbo. Ceylon contains some hot-wells, the waters of which possess but few mineral qualities.

Mr. Percival concludes his account with some general observations on the state and value of this new acquisition to the British crown. Notwithstanding the excellent temperature and fertile soil of Ceylon, the Dutch were so negligent of the cultivation of the island, that it has never yet produced a sufficient quantity of rice and wheat for its own consumption. Twenty years ago the revenue of the island defrayed its own expenditure; but from the mismanagement of late years, the establishment has been a charge to the mother-country, which, indeed, easily made up the deficiency by the exportation of spices, by the profits of the pearl-fishery, and by the imposts laid on the several articles imported into Ceylon from other parts of India. There is every appearance, however, of a more prosperous policy under the English government. A system of kindness and conciliation to the Candians, as well as to the Cinglese, is adopted by the present active, intelligent, and humane governor, Mr. North; who has already pursued such measures as materially to have encreased the revenue, and who certainly will receive with thankfulness those numerous and important hints for the improvement of the island, which are interspersed in the volume before us. Governor North has taken a tour round the island in person, accompanied by several gentlemen well calculated to examine its various natural productions with skill and accuracy. Roads will doubtless be cut to obviate the present difficulties of communication: forests will be cleared, and jungles stubbed, and marshes drained in those parts where the partial insalubrity of the climate arises from fogs and an obstructed circulation of air. The best sorts of cinnamon will, of course, be selected for culture, and the inferior species abandoned; the importance of attending to the tea-plant and the sugar-tree and sugar-cane, cannot possibly escape the sagacity of the governor, who will see the policy of encouraging a spirit of industry among the natives, who will impress them with a sense of the power with which he rules, by the vigour and promptitude of his measures, and of the humanity of his administration, by tempering the severity of justice with the tenderness of mercy.

Mr. Percival closes his volume with a journal of the embassy to the court of Candy under general Macdowal, in the year 1800. The object of this embassy is not unfolded; we are only made acquainted with one demand, which was urged on behalf of the British government, and peremptorily rejected: the demand was, that the king of Candy would allow a road to be made, and a communication to be opened from Trincomalée to Columbo through his territories, as it would avoid the circuitous route which letter-bags, &c. are now obliged to travel. His majesty would on no account suffer any connexion or intercourse between his subjects and Europeans—the Portugueze and Dutch are ever present in his mind In this journal some further particulars concerning the interior of the Candian dominions are related, for which we must refer to the volume.

After the very ample review which we have taken of this work, it is unnecessary to make any general remarks on its merits. Mr. Percival writes in a plain, unstudied manner; he has collected such a body of information as is rarely to be met with in the same compass. That information, intrinsically interesting, and of peculiar value to Englishmen, since the country to which it refers has recently become a part of the British dominions, will plead our apology for the unusual length to which this article has been extended.

ART. VIII. *A Voyage in the Indian Ocean, and to Bengal, undertaken in the Years* 1789 *and* 1790. Translated from the French of L. DE GRANPRE. 8vo. 2 vols. pp. 560.

M. GRANDPRE begins his book with remarkable honesty.

"I was at the Isle of France in the year 1790, with a vessel too large and too sharp for the country. Not being able to dispose of her, I resolved on a trip to Bengal, where I hoped to find a good price and a ready market, though her construction was ill adapted to the navigation of the Ganges. But appearances being in her favour, this defect I trusted would be overlooked, and I was not mistaken."

Digitized by Google

We have had sentimental travellers, and philosophistical travellers, and lying travellers from France: M. Grandpré is an ingenuous traveller; this candid account of his business at Bengal is only to be paralleled by the honourable declaration of the peer who affirmed that he would cheat his own brother in horse flesh.

Our voyager touched at the Sechelles islands; he remarks that it is singular the islands of this little archipelago should have soundings at a great distance from shore: this he accounts for by supposing that the bases of these granite mountains have for a long succession of ages stopped the refuse and extraneous bodies which the tides and currents bring, and by this gradual aggregation formed the bank upon which the islands rise. The port and road of the Sechelles is represented as of the greatest importance to France, being at so small a distance from the Mauritius as to be able to annoy its trade, and cut off its communication with India. But the islands are valuable on other accounts. When the French had succeeded in pilfering some spice plants from the Dutch, their cultivation was attempted in the Isle of France; the trees degenerated, though under very favourable circumstances of culture; as the latitude of the Sechelles was similar to that of the Moluccas, it was thought proper to try the experiment there: a few plants were secretly set in the island of Mahé, and trusted to nature. The success was beyond expectation; the cloves and nutmegs throve well, and the cinnamon trees spread so rapidly as to cover the canton, wherever the forests did not obstruct their growth. At this time the war of 1778 broke out, the governor of the isles of France and Bourbon gave orders to destroy the plants if the English should attempt to take possession of the island. A French ship put in to water, the overseer mistook her for an enemy, set fire to the spice trees, and destroyed them all. Such was the worthy result of this Dutch policy. But the preserving power of nature prevailed; the birds had carried the seeds to the interior of the island, and they were in so promising a state when M. Grandpré saw them, that he asserts that France might derive from the Sechelles, notwithstanding their little extent, a sufficient quantity of spices for the consumption of the republic. It seems however that the French government have neglected them, hoping to be supplied from Cayenne.

These islands produce the sea or twin-cocoa, which is peculiar to them; the fruit perfectly represents the human posteriors, and is in request through all Asia on account of its scarceness. The rice is excellent.

Some interesting circumstances occurred upon this passage.

"The tides during the south-west monsoon are so violent between the Maldive-islands and the Laccadives, that we are subject to lose our reckoning, especially if we are not able to make observations of longitude. To prevent gross errors, and that a vessel may not fall in unexpectedly with the land, which might be dangerous in the night, there is one remark to be made, which is rather of a singular nature.

"After passing the meridian of the Maldives, and when we are between them and the coast of Malabar, there is seen on the surface of the water a great number of living serpents, floating without movement, their bodies rolled up, the head erect, and the look stedfast. They begin to appear as soon as we get within the Maldives; but they are not very numerous till we arrive at about eight or ten leagues from the coast, and their numbers increase as we approach. It is supposed, that they are forced down the rivers of the coast of Malabar, which are swelled by the abundant rains that prevail at that season, and which carry off with them whatever they meet in their passage. These floods are sometimes so considerable, that the sea is tinged by them six or seven leagues from the shore.

"Two days after losing the Manillese I have mentioned, I discovered land about six in the evening. The weather was thick and cloudy, with rain and light airs at intervals. I found myself too near the coast, and hauled my wind to stand off. I was borne by the currents with astonishing rapidity; in the evening the rain increased, and the wind fell quite calm. As, however, there was a very heavy swell, the ship rolled considerably, and the wet sails, by beating against the masts, were soon rent to pieces. It became necessary to unbend the topsails, and thus for a while to remain under bare poles, exposed to whatever heaven might please to ordain. While fresh sails were bending, I ordered the lead to be hove constantly; and I saw with pleasure, that the tide carried me on the course I wished to go as accurately as if I had been able to manage the ship.

"About eleven o'clock the swell became less, and in the course of a few minutes was completely gone: then the sea seemed on a sudden to be on fire. This phenomenon has been observed by several navigators, who

Digitized by Google

have described it. I find it impossible to give an idea of its appearance: the light does not resemble that produced by the track of a vessel and fish in phosphoric seas; it is absolutely fire, or at least appears to be so, and extends to the utmost limits of the horizon, so that the ship seems to swim on a burning ocean. The sea was gently agitated, and each undulation foamed like the waves of a river when the wind sets against the stream. It was this foam that sparkled, each small surge resembling a body of fire.

"The crew was very much terrified, and even the officers were alarmed. I explained the wonder, and told them, that it was by no means novel. I repeated what captain Cook had said on the subject, and observed to them, that this phenomenon was particularly mentioned by navigators as common near the Maldives. Wishing to prove to them still more satisfactorily that their fears were absurd, and that they had not the least danger to apprehend, the fire which they saw being nothing more, according to report, than a small phosphoric animal, I ordered a bucket of water to be drawn up and preserved till the next day, intending to examine it with them attentively. The sea appeared thus inflamed for the space of half an hour, when it wholly disappeared. The next day I enquired for the bucket of water, but it was not to be found; curiosity had fled with the fear of danger, and they preferred relying on my explanation, to giving themselves the trouble of examining what could have caused the phenomenon. To my great regret I thus lost an opportunity of making remarks on an object, which has justly excited the curiosity of the learned, and on which nothing satisfactory has yet been advanced. All that I was able to observe was, that as soon as the water was in the bucket it lost its brilliancy, and differed in no respect from its ordinary appearance."

M. Grandpré now comments upon the miserable policy of the French in India, and enters into some details respecting the fortifications of Pondicherry and Trincomale. We pass over these parts of mere local and temporary interest, and proceed to the more important subjects of his work.

For every thing relating to the languages, customs, and religion of India, the author refers us to Sonnerat. I have traversed the country, he says, with his book in my hand, and have verified his accounts. This present volume, however, contains some interesting remarks, and the following is perhaps the most important.

"I shall not treat of the different casts, that object being so well known as to render it unnecessary; but to those with which we are acquainted, there is a new one to be added, that increases considerably, and perhaps will end one day in over-running all the rest, the Bramins excepted.

"This is the cast produced by the alliance of Europeans with the natives of every other cast. The first unions of this kind were formed by the Portugueze at the time of their brilliant conquests. The race has taken their name, and is known by it. This Portugueze filiation has not always continued white; some branches are again become black, while others have so nearly approached the European complexion, as at first sight not to be known; which is the less surprising, as the Indians, with the exception of colour, have nothing in their features to distinguish them from Europeans."

Ever remember, say the Bramins to their children, that you are born to command other men: this lesson has been inculcated in every possible form by these villainous impostors from generation to generation. Whatever exists in the universe, says the book of their law, is all the wealth of the Bramin, since the Bramin is entitled to it all by his primogeniture and eminence of birth; he is born above the world, the chief of all creatures; through the benevolence of the Bramin, indeed, other mortals enjoy life. Their very birth is a constant incarnation of Dherma, the God of justice. What created being can surpass him, with whose mouth the gods of the firmament feast on clarified butter, and the manes of ancestors on hallowed cakes?

M. Grandpré reasons very absurdly respecting this cast. They were probably indebted, he says, for their ascendancy at first "to their physical powers and their arms: and they preserved it by their virtues and understanding. The consideration they still enjoy rests on a similar foundation, the knowledge they possess. It is certainly from the opinion which is formed of their virtue and sagacity, that they are placed in the first rank." Their power must indeed have been established originally by force as well as fraud; but to attribute their present rank to the opinion of their virtue and sagacity, is as philosophical as it would be to assert that the thrones of Europe are held by the same tenure. Had the author forgotten that the Bramins are a cast, and that they must maintain their power as long as they can support their detestable superstition? M. Grandpré speaks of Sonnerat: but he seems to have read that able writer to very little purpose,

Digitized by Google

for he is grossly ignorant of the Hindoo faith. He tells us, "the dogma of Brama is not without dissentients: some worship Chiven, or the bad principle." It would be impossible to exhibit more ignorance in so few words. What is meant by the dogma of Brama? If he means that all the Hindoos do not acknowledge Brama to be the chief object of their worship: the truth is, that he is so acknowledged by none, for the compleat conquest of his sect is shadowed out in the fable of his contest with Veeshnoo. So also M. Grandpré is equally mistaken in identifying the evil principle with Chiven, or rather Seeva, for as the English have written best, and laboured most assiduously upon this dark subject, their nomenclature has the fairest claim. Seeva is god the destroyer; but destruction in a system of perpetual renovation, only implies change, and has nothing in common with evil.

"In their chauderies," says the author, "the Hindoos lie down to sleep without order or distinction; if an European be present, they have the complaisance to leave him a little corner to himself." If this complaisance be explained, it means that they avoid him to escape pollution. We know no writer whose errors and ignorance deserve to be exposed with more severity than is justly due to M. Grandpré. Witness the insolence and detraction of the following passage:

"Some modern authors, and particularly the English, have made us acquainted with passages of their sacred books, their Veidam and their Ezourveidam; and in the national library at Paris is a translation of the Cormovedam. I respect the profound knowledge of these authors; I pretend not to call their honour in question; but would rather believe, since they affirm it, that the translations they give us are authentic, or at least that they think so themselves. I shall only remark, how much it is to be wished, that this sacred language of the Bramins were publicly known, that we may all be enabled to profit by the light which must result from an acquaintance with the annals of so ancient and so learned a people. I am far from wishing to throw doubts upon such supposed books of theirs as have been made known to us: my opinion, besides, would have but little weight against authorities so great; yet it appears to me, that whoever has been personally acquainted with the Bramins, and has studied their character and prejudices, must be struck with the unusual marks of confidence which the communication of such passages implies, and the inferences to which such confidence would lead. If a person thus acquainted with them were disposed to make objections as to these passages, he might say, "The Bramins are by no means communicative; it is a point of their religion even, to conceal from all the world the knowledge of their language and their books. We must therefore suppose, that some of their chiefs, for they alone have the custody of the books and the law, have conquered the aversion they naturally entertained for foreign casts; have lost all remorse at so flagrant a renunciation of their precepts: and have chosen to risk their being excommunicated from their cast, which they value above life itself, rather than disoblige a stranger, who might have asked them for so important communications."

"I am aware, that these writings are now matters of general notoriety; that the most celebrated authors are eager to propagate them: fragments of these sacred books are printed in almost every publication; travellers have even professed to have acquired a perfect knowledge of the sanscrit language at Bengal. All this is so common, that I ought to believe it, and I do so, though these Bramins are greatly under the influence of their religion, which imposes a law upon them to conceal from us what we thus pretend to know; though a much lighter fault will subject them to the loss of their cast, a calamity which they will sacrifice every thing to avoid, or, when this has happened, to regain the privilege; though even when lost irrecoverably, the person so situated still remains invariably attached to it, and does not on that account the less completely despise all other casts; consequently, never endeavours to avenge himself by betraying his own: in short, though it were possible to believe, that, to get rid of the importunities of those who solicited them, they had entered into an agreement among themselves, to communicate merely indifferent circumstances, with the hope of being left quiet as to other matters, or had even invented what has been told us, for the express purpose of putting an end to the inquiries of Europeans, by pretending to satisfy us, and thus conceal more effectually all knowledge of their real mysteries,—in spite of all this, can I do other than believe what has been told us by so many respectable authors? But let me be suffered once more to remark, that if the communications which the Bramins have made to us be true, they must have transgressed the laws of their religion; that if they have so far betrayed their trust, they must have lost that inviolable attachment to it, which for so many ages has maintained in them the most profound secresy upon the subject; that if the spirit of exclusion towards strangers be destroyed in them, the line of demarcation by which they were separated from the rest of the world must be destroyed: and, that if the secrets of their cast are unveiled, the respect which it has

Digitized by Google

hitherto inspired will soon be lost and annihilated."

We are then to disbelieve Sir William Jones, Mr. Halhed, and Mr. Wilkins, upon the authority of M. L. D. Grandpré, an officer in the French army, whose business in India was to sell a ship, which he knew to be unfit for the navigation of the Indian seas; and who had no other opportunities of becoming acquainted with India, than what he found while upon this knavish errand.

M. Grandpré, in deference to the Concordat, occasionally uses the language of catholicism, and gives us to understand that he is within the pale of the Gallican church, but he has been studious to discover his own private opinions, and they are such as were to be expected from a man so ignorant, and so satisfied with his own ignorance. The Jews, he tells us, were "a petty nation, of so little consequence as to have no customs of their own." So much for this gentleman's knowledge of laws and customs!

It has been well said, that there is no book, however bad, from which something may not be learnt. Believing this: for what reviewer but must, for his consolation, wish to believe it? we shall proceed, and rake for pearls.

This description of the dancing girls may form a note for the story of Ali Baba, or the Forty Thieves.

"Sometimes, during the dance, they play with Moorish poniards; an exercise at which they appeared to be expert. One of them, who was considered as eminently dextrous, was sent for one evening to the house of the Malabar chief, to dance in my presence. Seemingly some one had given her a hint; for she took infinite pleasure in frightening me with her poniards, the points of which she presented to me suddenly, turning quickly round every time she passed near me, but stopping with great precision within a finger's breadth of my breast. This movement was directed and timed by a stroke of the small cymbal which the dancing-master struck unawares at my ear, and which never failed to make me start, to the great amusement of the crowd, which this exhibition generally draws together."

The ceremony of charming snakes is described, but the attempt at solution is very awkward.

When Tavernier was in Hindostan, a juggler who exhibited before him was stopped in the midst of his performance by the English chaplain; for the good man declared he would not suffer any thing diabolical to go on in his presence. M. Grandpré is even more credulous than the old English chaplain.

"In deceptive tricks, such as vomiting fire, pieces of flaming hemp and flax, a considerable quantity of thorns, and appearing to draw away the whole of their intestines by the mouth, and swallow them again, with other facetious performances of a similar kind, they succeed by main force, and carry the art to astonishing perfection. In these feats of strength, there is no delusion, no slight-of-hand, no deception: what we see is precisely what we think we see. One of these performanses is of a nature to contradict all the laws of anatomy, and which no surgeon could believe till he had witnessed it. I have known some who were even incredulous after they had seen it, and who refused to trust the evidence of their eyes.

"An Indian, naked like his fellows, with no muslin round him, nor any clothing whatever to serve a sa cloak and facilitate deception, takes a sword, the edge and point of which are rounded off and blunted, and putting it into his mouth, buries it completely, all but the haft, in his throat and intestines.

"I have observed some of these men from whom the momentary irritation caused by the insertion of this strange body has forced tears; others to whom it gave an inclination to cough, which, as they were not able to satisfy it, obliged them to withdraw the blade instantly, to prevent suffocation. In fine, when the sword has entered as far as it can, to the depth of more than two feet, they fix a small petard to the hilt, set fire to it, and bear its explosion: they then draw out the sword, which is covered with the humidity of the intestines.

"I know that a fact of such description will be regarded by readers in general as a fable, to which they conceive they should give no credit. At this I shall not be surprised: till I had seen it I refused myself to believe it; but I was under the necessity at last of yielding to the force of evidence."

In the construction of large buildings, the Hindoos supply the want of mechanical knowledge by a singular substitute. When the first row of stones is raised, they throw up a slope of earth, up which the stones are rolled for the second row; and thus they go on burying the edifice as it rises. M. Grandpré speaks of the French Jesuits in Hindostan. We did not know that the Jesuits existed any where as a body.

Calcutta is described as disgustingly filthy: dead animals are left to putrefy in the streets; and even the wretches who perish in the streets from want or

Digitized by Google

sickness, are suffered to remain there till the jackalls devour them. Surely this more resembles an account of an Abyssinian than an English city. Birds as well as beasts of prey infest Calcutta. M. Grandpré lost his dinner one day by one of these visitors. The cook was bringing a roasted fowl across the yard, and an eagle helped himself to the whole.

Having sold his ship, M. Grandpré made a speculating voyage to Mocha. This place he describes as having at first sight very much the appearance of a Spanish town, on account of the latticed balconies to every story. The religion of Mohammed exists here in full vigour of ignorance and intolerance. No foreigner is permitted to pass through one of its entrances, which is called the Sacred Gate: should he attempt it he would probably be slain by the Bedouins who are encamped by it. The very children when they see an European in the streets, run after him, exclaiming, the Frank to the burying-ground! So deep a hatred has been generated by their struggle with the Portugueze.

Upon these people M. Grandpré philosophizes with his usual wisdom and consistency.

"History shows us, that the succession of barbarism to more enlightened times, only compelled the arts and sciences to make the tour of the globe; and, in inquiring into the causes of their decline, we are obliged to admit, that the revolutions which overturn states are brought about solely by the extinction of religion and morals.

"In the enjoyment of a happier destiny, Arabia, instead of apprehensions of revolution, sees the period approaching when she will occupy in her turn the foremost place among the nations of the earth. Her attachment to her religion subsists in all its force; her morals are uncontaminated; she knows neither debauchery, gaming, luxury, nor avarice, and is perhaps the only country in existence where virtue is practised for its own sake."

What the religion of this country is, where "virtue is practised for its own sake," the reader has already seen. Let us now examine their morals, as M. Grandpré himself delineates them. The Arab, he says, is passionate and vindictive; nothing can stifle his desire of revenge; he will readily sacrifice himself, if he can involve his enemy in his destruction. Every man is capable of sacrificing his wife on the slightest suspicion: and with that disgraceful jealousy which can only have originated in the most disgraceful lasciviousness, they will not permit their own children to enter their haram, after they have attained the age of puberty! These are the people, who, according to M. Grandpré, stand in no need of a general reformation, while they preserve their religion and manners! these are the only people in existence who practise virtue for its own sake!

On his return to the coast of Malabar a violent storm arose; his vessel leaked, and the pumps were out of order: the expedient by which he contrived to make one of them work, we shall transcribe for its ingenuity, and use his own words, for the instruction of those seamen into whose hands this book may fall.

"The pumps work by two valves, one fixed upon a moveable body called the upper box, containing a hole which this valve hermetically closes, and the other fixed to an immoveable body called the lower box. The upper box, in descending, presses the column of water upon the valve of the lower box, and keeps it shut, while the same pressure raises the valve of the upper box, and gives a passage through it to the water. In the re-ascent of the upper box, when its valve shuts by the weight of the column of water above it, that of the lower box opens and affords a passage to the water below it, which is thus drawn up by the suction. It thus appears, that the effect of the pump depends on the operation of the valves, and that without valves it could not be worked. These, however, we had lost; yet I contrived notwithstanding to put my pumps into a condition for working. I had to find the means of supplying the loss of the valves, and to substitute something which would answer their purpose; that of completely stopping the holes of both the boxes, agreeably to the action of the pump. To effect this, I heated two four-pound shot, and applied them red-hot to the mouths of the valves, where I let them burn the wood so as to bury themselves half-way in it; I then cooled them, and without any other preparation put them into the pump. Their weight did not prevent them from giving way to the water, as much as was necessary, both in the ascent and descent of the upper box; and these two motions acting successively upon them, brought them back to their position in the holes which they had burnt, and which of course they exactly filled. By this contrivance the pump worked as well as ever."

The method by which the Hindoos raised his vessel in order to repair it, is equally ingenious. They dig a bason near the water side, of a fit size to con-

tain the ship, open the dam at low water, and float it in with the tide; the dike is then closed; the next labour is to fill the bason to the brim by baling in water. The dam is then raised, and filled and raised alternately, till the vessel floats at the height required; they then fill the bason with earth, by which means the water rises above the dam and runs off, and the vessel is left bedded in soft mould; this they drain by holes at the bottom, and leave it for six weeks or two months, till they judge the earth to have acquired a sufficient solidity. They then dig round the vessel, placing supports and stocks as they go on, till they have cleared all the earth away, and left the ship so propped that they can repair her bottom.

The useful information contained in this work might have well been comprised into an article for a magazine, where it would have appeared more respectably than in the large type of two thin volumes. The prints are very worthless; dresses indifferently delineated, and views of European buildings in Hindostan, not of the buildings of the country, for they would have required more skill than was necessary to describe the straight lines of common masonry.

ART. IX. *The History of New South Wales; including Botany Bay, Port Jackson, Paramatta, Sydney, and all its Dependencies; from the original Discovery of the Island; with the Customs and Manners of the Natives, and an Account of the English Colony, from its Foundation to the present Time. By* GEORGE BARRINGTON, *Superintendant of the Convicts.* 8vo. pp. about 500.

An Account of a Voyage to New South Wales. By GEORGE BARRINGTON, *Superintendant of the Convicts. To which is prefixed a Detail of his Life, Trials, Speeches, &c.* 8vo. pp. 470.

THE publisher of these books has, with great propriety, attributed them in the title-page to a pickpocket; since the former is for the most part a piracy of Captain Collins's History of New South Wales, and the latter of Mr. Barrow's Account of the Cape of Good Hope, and Sir G. Staunton's History of the British Embassy to China.

ART. X. *Travels of Four Years and a Half, in the United States of America, during* 1798, 1799, 1800, 1801, 1802. *Dedicated by Permission to Thomas Jefferson, Esq. President of the United States. By* JOHN DAVIS. 8vo. pp. 454.

MR. DAVIS has misnamed his book, it is rather the memoirs of his own life in America, than the history of his travels there. Such a title indeed would have attracted little attention, for who is John Davis? The vanity of self-biography never fails to excite the sarcasm and contempt of those, who themselves indulge a far less pardonable vanity; who, being by nature inferior, counteract the painful consciousness of inferiority, by looking in every man, and in every author for his faults, nor is this author's account of himself such as will conciliate the favour of the world; he went to America to be "the architect of his own fortunes." He was an adventurer, an itinerant schoolmaster; add to the crime of poverty that he is a man of genius, and that he knows his own worth, and it will be evident that Mr. Davis is guilty of every thing that can provoke envy, hatred, malice, and uncharitableness.

On his arrival at New York, Mr. Davis found his letters of recommendation useless. He became acquainted with a friendly bookseller, and obtained a present supply, and some reputation, by translating Bonaparte's campaign in Italy. In the infant state of American literature, such was the celebrity of this translation, that Mr. Burr, the present vice-president of the United States, sought out the writer in his obscure lodgings, and invited him to his house.

From New York the traveller soon removed to Philadelphia; the character of the hotels in that city is well introduced.

"Mr. Pecquet received me with a bowing mien, and called Jeannette for the passepartout to shew me his apartments. He exercised all his eloquence to make me lodge in his hotel. He observed that his house was not like an American house; that he did not in summer put twelve beds in one room; but that every lodger had a room to himself, and Monsieur, added he very solemnly, "Ici il ne sera pas necessaire de sortir de votre lit, comme chez les Americains, pour aller à la fenêtre, car Jeannette

n'oublie jamais de mettre un pot de chambre sous le lit."

Here the yellow fever broke out. One evening, Mr. Davis had met an acquaintance in the street.

"I accompanied him, he says, into Arch-street, where taking possession of the porch of an abandoned dwelling, we sat conversing till a late hour. The most gloomy imagination cannot conceive a scene more dismal than the street before us: every house was deserted by those who had strength to seek a less baneful atmosphere; unless where parental fondness prevailed over self-love. Nothing was heard but either the groans of the dying, the lamentations of the survivors, the hammers of the coffin-makers, or the howling of the domestic animals, which those who fled from the pestilence had left behind, in the precipitancy of their flight. A poor cat came to the porch where I was sitting with the doctor, and demonstrated her joy by the caresses of fondness. An old negro-woman was passing by at the same moment with some pepper-pot* on her head. With this we fed the cat that was nearly reduced to a skeleton; and prompted by a desire to know the sentiments of the old negro-woman, we asked her the news. God help us, cried the poor creature, very bad news. Buckra die in heaps. By and bye nobody live to buy pepper-pot, and old black woman die too."

What a picture! the effects of pestilence have never been so well delineated since Daniel Defoe's history of the plague of London.

Leaving Philadelphia to escape from this dreadful visitation, the author sailed for Charlestown, and for a short time officiated there as assistant tutor in the college. His next removal was to undertake the tuition of a wealthy planter's children, at Coosohatchie, a village about half way between Charlestown and Savannah, consisting of a blacksmith's shop, a court-house, and a jail. The sesquepedalian deformity of - nerican names was well noticed in a paragraph which Mr. Davis quotes from the Aurora gazette; "Exult ye white hills of New Hampshire, redoubtable Monadnock and Tuckaway! Laugh ye waters of the Winiseopee and Umbagog lakes! Flow smooth in heroic verse ye streams of Amorioosack and Androscoggin, Cockhoka and Coritocook! and you Merri-Merrimack be now more merry." Yet these barbarous and wigwam names are far better than the mean and ridiculous appellations with which Englishmen so often nick-name the objects of nature; one of the highest mountains in the island is called the Cobler, and in one of our finest lakes we have Shoulder-of-Mutton Bay. A similar name is introduced very happily by Mr. Davis. After walking a mile and a half, I met a boy sauntering along, and whistling, probably, for want of thought. "How far my boy," said I, "is it to *Frying Pan*." You be in the pan now, replied the oaf. "I be, be I, said I; very well." On the Indian words he writes with feeling.

"In journeying through America, the Indian names of places have always awakened in my breast a train of reflection; a single word will speak volumes to a speculative mind; and the names of Pocotaligo, and Coosohatchie, and Occoquan, have pictured to my fancy the havoc of time, the decay and succession of generations, together with the final extirpation of savage nations, who, unconscious of the existence of another people, dreamt not of invasions from foreign enemies, or inroads from colonists, but believed their power invincible, and their race eternal."

Of the treatment of slaves in South Carolina, Mr. Davis has communicated some interesting particulars. *Negur day time* is the term these poor wretches have for night, because they are then at leisure.

"It is indeed grating to an Englishman to mingle with society in Carolina; for the people, however well-bred in other respects, have no delicacy before a stranger in what relates to their slaves. These wretches are execrated for every involuntary offence; but negroes endure execrations without emotion, for they say, when Mossa curse, he break no bone. But every master does not confine himself to oaths; and I have heard a man say, By heaven, my Negurs talk the worst English of any in Carolina: that boy just now called a bason a round-something: take him to the driver! let him have a dozen!

"Exposed to such wanton cruelty the negroes frequently run away; they flee into the woods, where they are wet with the rains of heaven, and embrace the rock for want of a shelter. Life must be supported; hunger incites to depredation, and the poor wretches are often shot like the beasts of prey. When taken, the men are put in irons, and the boys have their necks encircled with a "pot-hook."

"The Charlestown papers abound with advertisements for fugitive slaves. I have a curious advertisement now before me.—

* Tripe seasoned with pepper.

Digitized by Google

"Stop the runaway! Fifty dollars reward! Whereas my waiting fellow, Will, having eloped from me last Saturday, without any provocation, (it being known that I am a humane master) the above reward will be paid to any one who will lodge the aforesaid slave in some jail, or deliver him to me on my plantation at Liberty Hall. Will may be known by the incisions of the whip on his back; and I suspect has taken the road to Cosoohatchie, where he has a wife and five children, whom I sold last week to Mr. Gillespie."

A. Levi.

Yet in this country where even the women exercise the most detestable cruelty, they usually give their children to be suckled by negro-women. It is not uncommon, we are told, to hear an elegant lady say, Richard always grieves when Quasheebaw is whipped, because she suckled him! What a perversion of all natural affection is here! The child is to be taught to harden his heart against the cries of her who suckled him!—What hope is there of the man? We have felt it our duty to select and dwell upon these circumstances, in the hope and belief that no good man can peruse them without indignation. The cause of the abolition is not yet to be abandoned. England indeed may resolve upon it too late, for the work of retribution is begun.

We will turn to more chearful topics, to the delineation of natural objects.

The mocking-bird is the pride of the American woods; it is perfectly domestic, and the natives hold it sacred.

"But there is a bird called the loggerhead that will not bear passively its taunts. His cry resembles clink, clink, clank; which, should the mocking-bird presume to imitate it, he flies and attacks the mimic for his insolence. But this only incurs a repetition of the offence; so true is it that among birds as well as men, anger serves only to sharpen the edge of ridicule. It is observable, that the loggerhead is known to suck the eggs of the mocking-bird, and devour the young ones in the nest."

When weary of mocking others, the bird falls into its own strain, and so joyous a creature is it, that it will jump and dance to its own song; by day and by night it sings alike. The author was listening to one by moonlight that usually perched within a hundred yards of his log-hut. A negro was sitting on the threshold of the next door, smoaking the stump of an old pipe. "*Please God Almighty,*" exclaimed the old woman, "*how sweet that mocking bird sing! he never tire!*"

"Eagles were often seen on the plantation. The rencounter between one of them and a fish-hawk is curious. When the fish-hawk has seized his prey, his object is to get above the eagle; but when unable to succeed, the king of birds darts on him fiercely, at whose approach the hawk, with a horrid cry, lets fall the fish, which the eagle catches in his beak before it descends to the ground."

The writer of this article has seen the same thing happen in a contest between two sea-birds for their prey. Mr. Davis has given us but few observations on natural history: a study, which, he says, he has ever considered subordinate, when compared to that of life. This undue depreciation of a most interesting pursuit is to be regretted, because this author evidently possesses a quick and observant eye, and those ever-wakeful talents that could enliven any science. He disbelieves the tales of the fascinating power attributed to the eye of the snake, accounting by fear for the effects said to be so produced. It is well known, he says, that birds will flutter their wings, and exhibit the utmost agitation at the approach of a fox near the tree on which they are perched. There is a reprehensible petulance in the manner wherewith Mr. Davis asserts, that this fact could not escape the observation of any man, who, incited by the desire of knowledge, has made a tour into the country, and that it must be known to every one who has not passed his life in the smoke of London, Salisbury, or Bristol. Foxes are not such common animals that every traveller should see them at the foot of a tree. We will venture to affirm, that a man may walk from one end of England to the other, and not see a fox during the whole journey, unless there be a pack of hounds at his heels.

Once the traveller saw a negro-woman quiet her child by shaking the rattles of a snake. These little traits which the painter or the poet would have seized, he has seldom overlooked; he tells us of the long and beautiful moss, that spreading from the branches of one tree to those of another, extends through whole forests. This moss, when dried, serves many useful purposes: it is sold at Charlestown to stuff mattrasses and chairs; the hunters always use it for wadding. The axe of the negro chop-

ping wood is noticed as a sound delightful to the foot traveller in America, for it lets him know some human habitation is near. The following picture has evidently been sketched from nature.

"My recreation after school in the evening was to sit and meditate before my door, in the open air, while the vapours of a friendly pipe administered to my philosophy. In silent gravity I listened to the negro calling to his steers returning from labour, or contemplated the family groupe on the grass-plat before the dwelling-house, of whom the father was tuning his violin, the mother and daughters at their needles, and the boys running and tumbling in harmless mirth upon the green. Before me was an immense forest of stately trees; the cat was sitting on the barn-door; the fire-fly was on the wing, and the whip-poor-will in lengthened cries was hailing the return of night.

"I was now, perhaps, called to supper, and enjoyed the society of Mr. Ball and his family till the hour of their repose, when I returned to my log-hut, and resumed my pipe before the door. The moon in solemn majesty was rising from the woods; the plantation-dog was barking at the voices of the negroes pursuing their nightly revels on the road; while the mocking songster mimicked the note of every bird that had sung during the day."

The poetry with which the volume is interspersed is very inferior to the prose. It is introduced with peculiar impropriety, in the history of captain Smith and the female Indian Pocahontas. This history, Mr. Davis assures us, has been related with an inviolable adherence to truth, every circumstance being rejected that had not evidence to support it: but by attributing his own verses to one of the personages, he has given a character of fiction to a story which was in itself too romantic to be believed without a solemn affirmation of its authenticity. For this very interesting tale we must refer to the volume itself. One Indian scene which the author himself witnessed our limits will permit us to notice.

On the north bank of the Occoquan, is a pile of stones heaped upon the grave of an Indian warrior. The Indians who pass near never fail to turn from the main road into the woods and visit this grave, and if a stone be thrown down, they religiously restore it to its place. A party, while the author resided at Occoquan, came to this spot; it consisted of an elderly chief, twelve war captains, and two squaws, the younger a girl of seventeen, her person remarkably fine, and with a profusion of raven hair.

"When I saw the squaws a second time, they were just come from their toilet. Woman throughout the world delights ever in finery; the great art is to suit the colours to the complexion.

"The youngest girl would have attracted notice in any circle of Europe. She had fastened to her long dark hair a profusion of ribbons, which the bounty of the people of Occoquan had heaped upon her; and, the tresses of this Indian beauty, which before had been confined round her head, now rioted luxuriantly down her shoulders and back. The adjustment of her dress one would have thought she had learned from some English female of fashion; for she had left it so open before, that the most inattentive eye could not but discover the rise and fall of a bosom just beginning to fill.

"The covering of this young woman's feet rivetted the eye of the stranger with its novelty and splendour. Nothing could be more delicate than her *mocassins*. They were each of them formed of a single piece of leather, having the seams ornamented with beads and porcupine quills; while a string of scarlet ribbon confined the *mocassin* round the instep, and made every other part of it sit close to the foot. The *mocassin* was of a bright yellow, and made from the skin of a deer.

"Of these Indians, the men had not been inattentive to their persons. The old chief had clad himself in a robe of furs, and the young warriors had blacked their bodies with charcoal.

"The Indians being assembled round the grave, the old chief rose with a solemn mien, and, knocking his war-club against the ground, pronounced an oration to the memory of the departed warrior.

"Here rests the body of a chief of our nation, who, before his spirit took its flight to the country of souls, was the boldest in war, and the fleetest in the chace. The arm that is now mouldering beneath this pile, could once wield the tomahawk with vigour, and often caused the foe to sink beneath its weight. *(A dreadful cry of whoo! whoo! whoop! from the hearers.)* It has often grasped the head of the expiring enemy, and often with the knife divested it of the scalp, *(a yell of whoo! whoo! whoop!)* It has often bound to the stake the prisoner of war, and piled the blazing faggots round the victim, singing his last song of death. *(A yell of whoo! whoop!)* The foot that is now motionless, was once fleeter than the hart that grazes on the mountain; and in danger it was ever more ready to advance than retreat. *(A cry of whoo! whoo! whoop!)* But the hero is not gone unprovided to the country of spirits. His tomahawk was buried with him to repulse the enemy in the

field; and his bow to pierce the deer that flies through the woods.

"No orator of antiquity ever exceeded this savage chief in the force of his emphasis, and the propriety of his gesture. Indeed, the whole scene was highly dignified. The fierceness of his countenance, the flowing robe, elevated tone, naked arm, and erect stature, with a circle of auditors seated on the ground, and in the open air, could not but impress upon the mind a lively idea of the celebrated speakers of ancient Greece and Rome.

"Having ended his oration, the Indian struck his war-club with fury against the ground, and the whole party obeyed the signal by joining in a war-dance;—leaping and brandishing their knives at the throats of each other, and accompanying their menacing attitudes with a whoop and a yell, which echoed with ten-fold horror from the banks of the river.

"The dance took place by moon-light, and it was scarcely finished, when the chief produced a keg of whiskey, and having taken a draught, passed it round among his brethren. The squaws now moved the tomahawks into the woods, and a scene of riot ensued. The keg was soon emptied. The effects of the liquor began to display itself in the looks and motions of the Indians. Some rolled their eyes with distraction; others could not keep on their legs. At length, succeeded the most dismal noises. Such hoops, such shouts, such roaring, such yells, all the devils of hell seemed collected together. Each strove to do an outrage on the other. This seized the other by the throat; that kicked with raging fury at his adversary. And to complete the scene, the old warrior was uttering the most mournful lamentations over the keg he had emptied; inhaling its flavour with his lips, holding it out with his hands in a supplicating attitude, and vociferating to the bye-standers *Scuttawawbah! Scuttawawbah!* More strong drink! More strong drink!"

Among the Americans present at this scene, was a young man of gigantic stature, a head taller than any of the others; the old Indian eyed him, and at length rose and shook him by the hand.

Washington is yet in an infant state: when the multitude who had assembled at Mr. Jefferson's inaugural speech had returned home, our traveller describes the city as affording no objects, but a forlorn pilgrim forcing his way through the grass that overruns the streets, or a cow ruminating on a bank, having round her neck a bell, that she might be found in the woods. The streets are most inelegantly denominated: East first street, West first street, North A street, South A street. A wag, says the author, would infer that the one were named by a pilot, and the other by an alphabetical teacher. It has been said that Tiber was the original name of the river that supplies this city with water, and of course the coincidence flattered American patriotism: but in reality the people of Washington themselves know it in general by no other name than Goose Creek. Between the capitol and president's house, a well, which had been dug to the depth of eleven feet, immediately overflowed, and has continued to overflow.

We are sorry to see the character of Franklin studiously depreciated by Mr. Davis. The plagiarisms which he has so dramatically noticed, have been before detected; and it should have been remarked, that, in both instances, Dr. Franklin improved upon his originals. To Franklin, says this author, must we look for the source of the sordid economy of the American commonwealth. "It was he, who, by diffusing the maxims of Poor Richard, made the government of the United States a miserly body-politic." We should have thought that Mr. Davis had travelled in America to better purpose than to have brought back opinions like these, which can come with consistency from none but the state-leeches, the blood-suckers of the commonwealth: from such as share the peculations of M. Talleyrand, or divide the cheese-parings and candle-ends here at home. If the economy, the dignified and honourable economy, of the American government be indeed attributable to the lessons of Benjamin Franklin, a yet higher fame is due to that great man than he has obtained by "arresting the lightning, and breaking the iron rod." Let him who sneers at the frugality of the United States, turn to the Red Book and the Tax-Tables for 1803.

Too much of this volume is occupied with the letters of the author's friend, Mr. George; they are probably not published without the writer's knowledge, yet we think they represent him in no very favourable light. Mr. Davis himself seems to have been frequently amusing himself with Rousseau, when he would have been more wisely and healthily employed in studying Epictetus.

The volume concludes with the author's voyage home, dramatically related, and in as seaman-like a manner as ever delighted a sailor in the prose of Smol-

let, or the verse of Falconer. We believe there is not a *lubberly* phrase to be found in it. In some parts perhaps it is exclusively calculated for a seaman's taste.

It were needless to dwell upon the merits of this volume, after the extracts which have been adduced to exemplify them. Yet, to use the words of our old and delightful poet, W. Browne of Ottery,

I do bear this mind,
That wheresoe'er we true deserving find,
To give a silent praise is to detract.

We have read the book with pleasure, and shall with pleasure recur to it. It appears in the course of the volume, that Mr. Davis once designed to publish his voyages to the East Indies: we hope he will resume and compleat that intention, for possessing as he does the eye that can see nature, and the heart that can feel nature, we doubt not that it is in his power to produce a work that would interest and instruct the public.

ART. XI. *Journals of Travels in Parts of the late Austrian Low Countries, France, the Pays de Vaud, and Tuscany, in* 1787 *and* 1789. *By* LOCHART MUIRHEAD, A. M. 8vo. pp. 440.

MR. MUIRHEAD'S preface is somewhat stately.

"To mark the occurrences of a journey is no unpleasing or unprofitable exercise. Succession of objects at once quickens and multiplies our conceptions; whilst a desire to register new appearances agreeably beguiles the *ennui* of monotonous motion, of lounging at inns, and of waiting upon waiters. Future leisure may give to hurried notes the regular form of diaries. These we peruse with interest—perhaps, with strange emotion, at distant and vacant hours. A single line may, not unfrequently, revive some faded impression, or recall, in all the fondness of regret, the sensations of delight or melancholy that are past. The narrative may attract the attention, or awake the feelings of a friend, or impart instruction or amusement to a fellow-creature.

"The continent of Europe, it is true, has been often traversed, and often described, but is, by no means, so exempt from vicissitude, that the accounts of one generation should preclude those of another.—Besides, extended tracts of territory, adapted to the systems of modern society, involve such a complication of detail, that the tourist is usually content to select those observations which most readily present themselves, or which are most congenial to his taste or habits of thinking. Hence, a complete picture of one country has never, perhaps, been exhibited to another, and hence, each traveller, though he should add much, may leave more to be added. In proportion, too, as we accumulate remarks on foreign parts, we enable the philosopher to widen his basis of comparisons and inductions, to correct and modify his statements, and thus, gradually to approach to truth.

"The *imperfections*, then, not the *subject*, of the following pages, require to be prefaced in the language of apology."

The same studied and sententious style characterizes the journal. We like the author better when he relaxes.

Mr. Muirhead landed at Ostend. He describes neatly the first foreign costumes that excite his attention.

"As I awaited dinner in the coffee-room, two boys, apparently of twelve or thirteen years of age, wrapt in warm surtouts, took their seats with great composure, and called, in Flemish, each for his tobacco-pipe and tumbler of punch. Like grave loungers, they conversed, smoked, and tippled, without attracting the attention or ridicule of any in the room, except of the *nouveau débarqué*.

"Having been recommended to Mons. B. I did myself the pleasure of waiting upon him in the evening, and found him writing *en robe de chambre* in a counting-room, hung with old arras, and divided by antique skreens. These are trifling circumstances, but mark a country which is not British."

The common style of building in Flanders, houses having their ends to the street, with arched gateways, may still be traced, he observes, in some of the decayed towns of Scotland, formerly connected by trade with Bruges and Antwerp. Ostend wants water: it is either supplied from rain cisterns, or with what is brought in casks from a considerable distance. Mr. Muirhead regrets, that the sum expended upon its fortifications had not been bestowed upon water-conduits; or that the king of the Romans had not constructed an queduct. Every little city of the Romans had its aqueduct, and many a one continues, at this day, to be most essentially useful, where every other monument of their empire has disap-

peared. The fortifications of Ostend had been removed, by order of the emperor, who, says Mr. Muirhead, has taken a dislike to forts and monasteries. Happy was it for the Flemings, that their towns were dismantled before the French revolution! They have now followed the fate of a battle, and escaped all the aggravated misery of sieges, assaults, and blockades. Of those evils, Ostend has had its share.

"The memorable siege of three years, *three* months, *three* weeks, *three* days, and *three* hours, was attended with the dreadful loss of 130,000 lives! When the place at length surrendered, it was a heap of ruins. So, we may presume, was the smock of Isabella Eugenia, governess of the Low Countries, who rashly vowed not to change it during the siege. The compliant ladies of the court, *horresco referens*, followed her example!"

The town's motto is, OSTENDE *nobis, Domine, misericordiam tuam.* May the prayer be heard, says the traveller, in spite of the pun; and may the Lord deal more piteously with the good burghers, than their custom-house deals with strangers.

From Ostend he went, by the canal, to Bruges and Ghent. The former of these towns is in a wretched state of decline.

This was the birth-place of Simon Stevin, the inventor of sailing chariots, whose grave Mr. Shandy would have visited. They ran at the rate of four Dutch leagues an hour. Grotius wrote a poem in honour of the discovery. Mr. M. merely passed by Ghent, not having leisure to survey it. At Brussels he remained some time, and has accordingly described the city. Among its wonders, he notices

"The little gentleman yclept *manneké pisse*, who performs unceasing duty, and *sans façon*, to the great edification of the good burghers. The French soldiers in 1747, rudely profaned this diuretic palladium, and silenced the indignant murmurs of the inhabitants: but Lewis XIV. with laudable magnanimity, commanded that the person of the darling dwarf should be held sacred, arrayed in costly apparel, and dubbed a knight of his own order. The chevalier still appears in full uniform upon gala days; and, to such a degree has he become the *man of the people*, that his removal or mutilation might excite an insurrection. *Vive donc le manneké!*

"The grand Beguinage, an assemblage of houses, surrounded by a wall, might accommodate 700 or 800 Beguines, though they reckon at present scarcely half that number. This community is peculiar to the Low Countries, yet seems admirably adapted to the system of modern society, whether among catholics or protestants. The Beguine brings along with her the means of her maintenance, if she possesses them, may regulate her own menage, or join her stock to that of a particular company. The superior presides in matters of general discipline, and all attend upon the stated exercises of devotion: but most of the day is spent in the varied and elegant occupations of female hands. Any individual may retire from the sisterhood, when she pleases, mingle again with the world, and enter into the married state.—The comparative fewness of ladies of easy virtue in several of the Flemish towns has been ascribed, and perhaps justly, to this salutary institution."

The men of Brabant are said to have a boyish uniformity of features: they are listless and indolent. In Brussels, they even yoke dogs to wheel-barrows and small sledges; a pitiful shift to save trouble, and avoid paying toll. History has, however, says our traveller, stamped one decided lineament of the political character of the Netherlands, namely, their extreme sensibility to any infringement of their civil or religious institutions. This is true: it might have been remarked also, that in their interior wars, they have always displayed a brutal ferocity and wicked cruelty, unparalleled in the history of any European nation, except France.

From Brussels he travelled to Lausanne. Of the anecdotes suggested by the road, the following are the most remarkable:

"Duval relates, that he saw in the prison of Nancy, friar John, a hermit of Lorraine, who, in imitation of Jesus Christ, abstained from aliment during 40 days, or rather from solid food, for it is allowed that he drank water. In one of his paroxysms of insanity he killed a man whom he deemed importunate, and had his sentence of death commuted into perpetual confinement. Being seized with an insatiable curiosity to examine the internal structure of his body, and having made a large incision with a piece of glass, he was proceeding to contemplate the viscera with great composure, when a surgeon luckily interfered, and, with some difficulty, succeeded in healing his wounds."

"The adventures of the abbé de Vatteville are so singular, and so little known, that I am tempted to trace their outline. He was brother to baron de Vatteville, once ambassador at the court of London. The abbé, when colonel of the regiment of Burgundy, in the service of Philip IV.

of Spain, evinced his courage by repeated actions of eclat. Chagrined, however, with neglect of promotion, he resigned his commission, and retired into the convent of Carthusians, at Besançon. As his restless spirit could ill brook the gloom and silence of a cloister, he appointed a confidential friend to wait for him, with a horse, without the garden wall, and secretly procured of his relations some money, a riding-dress, a case of pistols, and a sword. Thus equipped, he stole, during the night, from his cell, into the garden, stabbed the prior, whom he met on his way, scrambled over the wall, and rode off at full speed. When his horse could advance no further, from fatigue and hunger, he alighted at an obscure inn, ordered all the meat in the house to be got ready, and sat down to dinner with the utmost composure. A traveller, who arrived a few minutes later, politely requested that he might be allowed to share with him. Vatteville rudely refused, alleging that there was little enough for himself, and, impatient of contradiction, killed the gentleman on the spot with one pistol, and presenting the other to the landlady and waiter, swore he would blow out their brains if they once dared to interrupt his repast. Having thus escaped with impunity, he encountered various fortunes, landed, at length, in Turkey, assumed the turban, received a commission in the army, was raised to the rank of bashaw, and nominated to the government of certain districts of the Morea. But longing to revisit his native country, he entered into a secret correspondence with the Venetians, then at war with the Turks, obtained absolution, along with a considerable church living in Franche Comté, delivered the towns and forts under his command into the hands of the enemy; and was actually presented by Lewis XIV. to the vacant see of Besançon. The Pope, however, who had granted absolution, refused the bull,—and Vatteville was obliged to content himself with the first deanery, and two rich abbeys. In the midst of his magnificence he sometimes deigned to call on his old friends, the Carthusians, and, at last, expired quietly in his bed, at the advanced age of ninety!—A roturier, guilty of one half of his enormities, would have been broken upon the wheel."

The story from Joinville, which follows, is most unmercifully lugged in by the head and shoulders; and it is related as vilely as it is introduced.

In his notes made at Lausanne, Mr. Muirhead remarks a curious passage from the chronicle of Marius, or S. Maire, who died A. D. 601. In recording the effects of a prevailing small-pox *(variola)*, he notices that it proved fatal to cows. Eighteen months ago this circumstance had been communicated to Dr. Beddoes, through us, by Mr. Coleridge. We will copy his letter, as it states the circumstance more fully, and adds to it another fact equally important.

Marius, a Burgundian noble and ecclesiastic, who died in the year 601, possessed a fertile estate about five miles above the old Aventicum; this estate he cultivated with his own hands, and employed himself in winter in making utensils for the church service. On this estate he built a church and a large manor-house, and this was the first beginning of the town of Peterlingen. So Muller, the Swiss Tacitus, informs me, from whom I have extracted this account, for the sake of that which is to follow. This same Marius wrote a chronicle, partly of what had been related to him by old people, and partly of the great events of his own times. This chronicle is to be found in Du Chesne; and under the year 570, is the following curious passage, which I confess gave me no little pleasure, as adding strength to the most rational hypothesis, concerning the nature and origin of the cow-pock. *Hoc anno, morbus validus cum profluvio ventris et variolâ. Italiam Galliamque valde afflixit, et animalia bubula per loca superscripta, maxima interierunt.* (This year a strong disease, with flux and variolous eruption, grievously afflicted Italy and Gaul; and the horned cattle throughout the abovementioned places, chiefly died of it.)

If then, at the time of the first appearance of the small-pox, the disease affected horned cattle even more than the human species, is it not a fair inference that cows must still be naturally susceptible of the contagion, and consequently does not the fact strengthen the probability that the cow-pox is the small-pox in its mildest state, and received by the cows from inoculated milkers? The account given by Haller of the first appearance of the small-pox, accords in date with this of Marius: he says, it was brought by the Abyssinians into Arabia, at the time of their conquest of the province of Hamyer, carried thence by Greek merchants to Constantinople, and from Constantinople to the north of Italy, by the army of Belisarius.

"I remember another fact in confirmation of the hypothesis, which if I mistake not, for I speak entirely from memory, was in a pamphlet by a Doctor Layard, who, in the great disease among horned cattle in 1756, (I will not an-

swer for my dates, but of the fact I am certain) proposed the burying of the animal with all its litter: his plan was adopted in England, France, and Flanders, and actually stopt the spread of the contagion. But in Denmark the physicians, who were consulted by the government on the occasion, pronounced the disease to be a genuine small-pox, and proposed the inoculation of the calves and cattle hitherto uninfected. The measure was adopted, and attended with compleat success. Whether or no I am deceived in the inference, the facts at all events are curious."

Mr. Muirhead resided for some time at Lausanne, and did not leave it without regret. Lyons was his first station. An academician of this city, had kept a register of the births and deaths for twenty-four years; and we shall extract such of his results, as will interest political and physical speculators.

"2. The males exceed the females by a twenty-third. 3. The months of August and September are most fatal to infants and children, December and January to those of ten years and upwards. 4. More boys than girls die from birth till ten years, and more girls than boys from ten to twenty. 5. Four-ninths die before the twentieth year. 6. Females, who have attained the age of sixty, generally live longer than men who have attained the same age; but more men than women have completed their century. 7. Longevity prevails most in the cloister. 8. The crisis of climacteric years is unsupported by fact. 9. The proportion of births is as one to seventy-two."

A good anecdote is related of the canons of Lyons.

"When the abbé de Villeroi, who had made many unsuccessful attempts to become one of their number, was appointed by the king to the archbishopric, they waited upon him with the usual tribute of respectful compliments. While he received them with courtesy, he could not help remarking, that the stone which the builders refused was become the head of the corner. Their spokesman instantly replied, This is the Lord's doing, it is marvellous in our eyes."

Of the literary natives of Lyons Mr. Muirhead notices the abbé Terrasson, with deserved respect. His Sethos, indeed, is an admirable romance. It would be rendering a useful service to the public, to edit a translation of this work, with notes and references to classical authorities. Terrasson speculated in the schemes of Law, "tasted of the transient benefits, and when the bubble burst, again sunk into retirement without a sigh. *Me voilá*, said he, *tiré d'affaire. Je revivrai de peu,—cela m'est plus commode.* They who knew him knew he was sincere; for his character was marked by a love of tranquillity, and much apparent stoicism and simplicity." It was from his romance that Warburton borrowed his hypothesis concerning the Eleusinian mysteries.

Avignon was his next resting-place. It was not without pleasure, as well as surprise, that we perused his account of the Jews there.

"Well, said a sensible and affectionate friend, you have to pass some months at Avignon, which shelters the French renegado, and fosters an undue proportion of monks and clergy. I studied there myself, and am no stranger to the character of the inhabitants—Beware of forming intimacies, and recollect that the Catholics are there the Jews. The point of this parting exhortation recurred with singular zest when, upon a Friday evening, a canon of the cathedral politely offered to conduct me to the synagogue. The latter is small, but neat, and mimics the distribution of the temple of Jerusalem. The chanting of the Hebrew service is peculiarly grating, but the composed air of the worshippers betokens the sincerity of devotion. The women occupy an under apartment, and have the service read to them in the Provençal dialect, as few of them understand Hebrew. When I took the liberty of asking one of them why so few of her sex attended the synagogue, she replied that most of them were occupied with family concerns, and could say their prayers at home. Nor would I willingly suppress the following trait. Upon observing an elderly man, to whom those in the porch paid particular attention, I presumed he was a rabbi—but was soon informed that he was a simple honest trader, who had lately paid the amount of a bond of surety, which, owing to some flaw in the deed he might have evaded with impunity. He is nearly reduced to poverty, but has acquired additional respect, and has preserved his peace of mind. His brethren here, to the number of five or six hundred, are allowed to live cooped up in a separate and ill-aired quarter of the town, in consideration of repeated douceurs, and upon condition that the men wear orange or yellow hats, and the women flat caps, stuffed at the sides. Yet it is generally allowed that they live quietly, and that they are more exemplary than their neighbours in the discharge of domestic duties. Their modest inoffensive deportment must sensibly affect every feeling mind, and induce it to sympathize with an unfortunate portion of our species so long branded with epithets of the vilest abuse, so

Digitized by Google

often doomed to bleed at the shrine of relentless fanaticism, so often goaded by persecution to gratify the avarice or the caprice of princes."

From Avignon the traveller went to Bareges, Toulouse, Nismes, and Marseilles. In this last city, it is remarkable that Newcastle coal should be cheaper than coal carried landways, though only fifteen miles distant. A very honourable character is given of the Marseillois. A merchant will freely entrust his most important keys to the porter attached to his service. The theorist who, like Major Jardine, believes the human race are improved by crossing the breed, would indeed expect the Marseillois to be the best of the Frenchmen.

"Spondanus, Bouche, and Noguier, assert a curious fact, namely, that in 1596, shoals of dolphins infested the port and streets of Marseilles, crowded into the ships and galleys, some of which they sunk, devoured the bodies of mariners who fell into the water, and compelled the tradesmen to shut their shops. Recourse was had, but in vain, to various expedients of destruction. These bouncing guests made good their quarters during a complete month. At length a deputation was sent to cardinal Aquariva, then legate at Avignon. His eminence dispatched Bordini, bishop of Cavaillon, who, in virtue of his exorcising talents, commanded the invaders to retire, and they disappeared in a twinkling. "Manifesto segno," observes the pious Fantoni Castrucci, "della potesta della chiesa Romana, ch'è la vera chiesa di Christo, dato oportunamente, o per conversione, o per confusione degli eretici di quel tempo." Did Bondini's exorcism consist in a little Italian slyness? or had the dolphins previously indicated a disposition to take leave?"

Or is the whole a lye? if we may be permitted to add our query to the tale. That shoals of dolphins should have infested the port of Marseilles is very possible; but it is rather extraordinary that they should board the ships, and still more extraordinary that they should walk the streets, and go *a-shopping*—they could have no business any where but at the fishmongers.

Mr. Muirhead sailed from hence to Leghorn, and then proceeded to Pisa; circumstances of peculiar urgency then recalled him to his native country, and his narrative abruptly concludes. We notice several Scotticisms in his stile, such as *she caused write*, *caused bury*, *abstracted* for stole; *would* for should, *on* the streets, &c. There is occasionally an affectation of language as well as of sententiousness, as when he says that Toulouse was *designed* Palladia, from the olive groves which environed it, when he speaks of huts *adjected* to eminences. These are trifling faults. The author is a man of observation and talents; and we wish he may travel again, and travel more leisurely, and publish a fuller journal.

ART. XII. *A Non-Military Journal; or, Observations made in Egypt, by an Officer upon the Staff of the British Army: describing the Country, its Inhabitants, their Manners, and Customs.* 4to. pp. 165, with Engravings.

THE author of this volume, or rather the writer of these letters, for they were penned with no serious consciousness of authorship, had prepared the materials for a History of the Campaign in Egypt; that design he laid aside upon learning that Colonel Anstruther had undertaken, at the instance of the ministry, to publish the transactions of that campaign, and has accordingly, now that Sir Robert Wilson has supplied the more serious part, given to the public the more amusing.

The letters begin with a description of the voyage up the Nile to Rosetta.

Rosetta is described, as all writers except Savery describe it, beautiful without and wretched in its interior. The population at this time was computed at 16,000, of whom 250 are christians and 60 Jews. These people, and some few of the European Turks, speak a Lingua Franca, which the author truly observes, is at least a very accommodating language, if not a very pure one. The narrow streets are made to appear still narrower, by a seat or bench built out from the walls, upon which the inhabitants sit, smoke, and sleep. The projecting windows are supported frequently upon granite or marble columns; the remains of a better age, and a better people, which these wretched Mahommedans have placed as often upon the capital as the base. The windows are latticed as in Spain. "The description of one room is of every room, surrounded by cushions raised about 8 inches from the floor upon a frame, and large pillars against which to lean, ranged along the wall. The magnificence of the room consists in the

Digitized by Google

beauty of the silk with which these pillars are covered, and the fineness of the carpets which are spread over the cushions. They sleep on the ground, and in their clothes.

The picture of this town is livelily given.

" Entire long streets, if paltry narrow lanes deserve to be so called, filled with little miserable shops, in which you see a dismal meagre-looking figure, if not blind of at least one eye, certainly with both sore and inflamed; rolled up in a blue shrowd, or rasher loose shirt, like our carter's frock, stretched at his length, sleeping, or else sitting cross-legged in the middle of his tenement, eating bread and garlic pounded in a mortar, with rancid oil; or garlic and horse-beans fried in this same sort of oil; or cucumbers and sallad, which they stuff in handsful down their throats; or water-melons, which they ravenously devour as if afraid the passer-by was going to snatch them away; or a dried fish, with mountains of rice, which they cram down with their fingers; and, when one imagines they are so full as to be unable to hold another grain, a guglet of water is applied to the mouth, not taken from it until empty, although at least a quart shall have been its contents. I never saw people swallow so much at a draught: it is true they drink seldom, which is a fortunate thing, or God help the Nile!

" The shopman is at no trouble in handing you the thing you want, for, without moving from his seat, his hand reaches all corners of these shabby little holes, rather than shops, which are square places inclosed, about three feet from the ground, upon a broad wall or bank, which, projecting from the house, makes the passage through the shop-streets, already too narrow, so impracticable, that an European nose can't venture to force its way through the crowd, assailed on one side by strong smelling cheese and rancid oil, on the other by garlic, and the filth of the people themselves."

" Your ears are constantly assailed by the clinking of the bason and jar of the shirbett-seller, who parades the streets to satisfy the drought of the passengers; honey and water, liquorice and water; in short, shirbett of all kinds (water sweetened) is his beverage.

" Your eyes are next caught by the barber's shop, in which you see half-a-dozen bald heads enveloped in suds and lather, which, the barber, (with his customer's head and a lump of soap in hand) spreads over face, head, and neck, and, never minding eyes, nose, or mouth, scrubs away until one would imagine he had stifled the miserable but patient sufferer, whose neck is bent forward to hinder the water, poured from a large urn upon the top of his head, from running down his back; the expert shaver then, most dexterously certainly, performs his operation in the reverse way to which we do, pushing the razor from, instead of drawing it to him, and concludes the ceremony by opening the spout of the water-urn, washing off all the soap, plucking the hairs from the ears and nose, and finally cutting and pairing the nails; and all this for three paras!

" Your nose is now attacked by the snuff-maker, who, with a mortar between his legs, and an immense heavy log of wood, sharply pointed, pounds and cuts the tobacco, at the great risk, I always think, of the *fingers* of *his feet*, with which he very dexterously holds the mortar."

The water-carriers are completely dressed in leather, and use goat-skins instead of barrels. In the coffee-houses, which are numerous, a story-teller usually amuses the company. The Scribes have their open-shops; they not only copy books, but make out petitions and write letters: a very useful people in a country where not one man in ten thousand can write or read.

" But now for the description of one of the employments of the fair sex. You must know firing (I don't mean shooting) is a very scarce article, there being, in fact, no wood in the country but date-trees, which they convert into so many better uses, as I will hereafter tell you, that they don't cut it for fuel; the imported wood is of course very dear, and only to be gotten by the people in and about the towns, so that in truth the whole firing of the country, one may almost say, is produced by the happy composition and delicate feminine work of the lower class of women, who dance attendance upon the cattle, and not only carefully, but with avidity and delight, " *ramassent ce qui tombe*," and with a melange of dust form a hard thick *pancake*, of which they make their fires: never was any thing so shockingly disgusting as this is. From my window, which opened upon several court-yards full of oxen and buffaloes, I could not help seeing it; and curiosity (though not a woman) made me watch them; the creatures almost naked, nothing but a loose shift, and trowsers to the knees, all in rags; wallow in the filth; and, seriously speaking, seem to delight in it."

The okells or caravanseras have each a sort of colonnade, where such travellers as are not able to pay for a room, are suffered to rest: a lesson, says the author, to countries that are reputedly so civilized. The plague of vermin seems still to have remained upon Egypt; the officers complain even more of the flies and mosquitos upon the march, than of the creepers and crawlers in the towns.

Digitized by Google

"The whole country is one continued flat, intersected with dykes and canals for the admission of water at the overflow of the Nile; the beds of some of these dykes are even higher than the level of the country: at a particular time they are cut, the land is thus covered with water, and manured by the fat and slimy mud it brings with it, that produces the uncommon abundance of grain which Egypt boasts.

"As a great portion of mud remains in the dykes, which would be filled up if they did not clear them, it is thrown out on each side, making immense banks, or laid in heaps, which, in course of time, form the artificial hills upon which all their villages are built, and thus secured from the water, while the surrounding country is inundated.

"By describing one village you describe all; invariably built upon one of these hillocks; an assemblage of flat-roofed square mud-huts; few houses with upper stories or walls of brick; oval kennels of mud, without any window, and only a small hole, through which they creep, and were it not that a hollow is dug about two feet in the sand they would scarcely be able to stand upright in them. The Arab hut, like the "cobler's stall, serves for kitchen, parlour, and hall;" in truth answers every purpose, for they are beastly dirty.

"Almost every house has its pigeon-cote erected upon the roof, in a curious form, and giving a very odd and picturesque appearance to the whole: a mosque or two, according to the size of the village, a number of ragged inhabitants, and a few date-trees, finish my description of the Arab village, which, at some little distance, wears the appearance of a fortification, and does in fact afford excellent cover to the guard which is regularly mounted every night by the inhabitants to protect them from the incursions of the Bedouin Arabs. There are three distinct styles of habitation; the best of brick, with latticed windows and upper rooms; the intermediate ones of mud, four walls forming a square with flat roof, and holes in the wall to serve as windows; the worst sort, oval hovels of the same material, mud. Outside of each village is a burial ground, which at first sight appears to consist of a number of the oval huts I have just described, but, upon a nearer approach, you find are tombs of brick, really well constructed; with infinite labour and pains bestowed upon them; they certainly take better care of their dead, than of their living."

The funerals reminded the author of the same ceremony in Ireland. The interjection of joy, *ululah*, reminded him also of the Irish *philalub*; and though this indicates sorrow, he asks if there be not an affinity between the words: the fact is, that these words, like howl, ululo, and ολολυζω, are all imitative and derived from the same sound, the first which infants articulate.

The strange custom of hatching their eggs in ovens, is said to have dwindled the race, and perverted their instincts: few hens will sit to hatch—a treble price is demanded for one that will. There never was a country, says the author, better calculated to feed an army: buffalo beef, mutton, corn, rice, pulse, vegetables of various kind, all good and cheap; yet the bread with which the poor Arabs must content themselves is little more than the husk of the corn and water. It is remarkable that the English seldom felt any want of water; they usually found it near the palms, at a depth of from four to seven feet. The French were ignorant of this, and were convinced that no water was to be procured between Alexandria and Aboukir.

A curious anecdote is related to exemplify the abject contempt in which Christians were held in Egypt before the French invasion.

"Mrs. Varsy, my hostess, told me a ridiculous circumstance, which you shall have in her words: "When my son was at my breast, I used now and then to give him to an old Arab servant-maid to hold; the woman always seemed in agony whilst she had him in her arms. At last, upon asking her why she appeared to be in such distress, she told me, "that to say true, she had been to consult with one of the Imans whether the water of a young christian child, at breast, was impure; and that his answer was—If the mother drinks wine it is decidedly impure, otherwise it is not so—Now, Ma'am, you know you do drink wine, and I am therefore kept in constant alarm lest the infant should misbehave, which always obliges me to change my cloaths, or to wash the part of them defiled."

"I confess," says the writer, "that were it not for political reasons, and lest their wandering spirits might have crept into the East, I could almost lament that the French, for the benefit of mankind, have not remained here; with the sea open to them, they might have brought about, after some time, such a change, that the country would have put on a new appearance, or more properly I should say, its old appearance; it is certainly to be made one of the finest countries in the world. I had rather the French should have the pleasure of making it so, than it should be our lot, thousands would fall in the attempt, and I doubt if success would be quite ensured."

We too regret that any interests, real or imaginary, of Great Britain should oppose the progress of civilization.—

Digitized by Google

But armies, such as armies are now, are wretched civilizers. They would, indeed, be needful in such a country as Egypt, to enforce the law; but woe to the country where they give the law! The French in Egypt were under no restraint of religion, for they were instructed, by the example of their leaders, to profess any religion as it suited them. They were equally destitute of all morals, and instead of introducing European decency among the conquered people, they themselves fell into the practice of vices most infamous in Europe. The miseries and crimes occasioned by the unhappy expedition of Bonaparte, are beyond calculation. We are told, by this officer, that the women who cohabited with the French soldiers, almost invariably destroyed, before birth, the creatures who would else have been the children of christians! A massacre of these unhappy women was expected to take place whenever the Europeans should quit the country. When the English took possession of Rosetta, the wives of four French officers, all of whom had children, were forsaken by their husbands, and turned into the streets, for the inhabitants feared the Turks would murder them if they suffered the wife of a Frenchman under their roofs!

When these letters were written *Bon John* was very naturally the favourite in Egypt. Some remarkable instances are quoted.

"Near Foua, a captain of the navy had straggled from his boat, was seized by some Arabs, who, from the similarity in his uniform, mistook him for a Frenchman, had plundered and stripped, and were actually about to murder him, when one of them, more sagacious and humane than the rest, tore a button from his coat, suspended his execution, ran to the bank of the Nile, and seeing an English boat, produced the button to the sailors, who acknowledged it by calling out *Ingles*; he instantly returned to his party with the information, who as quickly released their captive, restored to him his effects, and escorted him in safety to the boat.

"An Arab, who had lived at Aboukir before the arrival of the French, upon their taking possession of that place, quitted it, having first covered up most secretly a remarkably good well close to that village. He had constant intercourse with the French during the whole of their stay; but such was his inveteracy towards them that he never divulged the secret. The moment we reached Aboukir, he took Sir Sidney Smith to the spot, a few men soon opened it, and found a large well of the very best water."

Yet this officer believed, that as soon as the French were out of the country, the inhabitants would rejoice to see the English follow them, because they are Christians.

This volume has been ascribed to Major Doyle: we have reason to believe that it is the work of an older officer, but as he has not thought proper to set his name to the title, it would be impertinent in us to announce it in a review. Some inaccuracies of language the reader will have observed in our extracts—we were more displeased with the recurrence of certain slang phrases, common among young men of fashion, who would do well to spare our language, and confine themselves to inventing alterations in our coats, waistcoats, pantaloons, and boots. These, however, are trifling faults. More living authors than one have acquired reputation by books of less observation, only because they were more serious, being dull.

ART. XIII. *Travels in Turkey, Asia-Minor, Syria, and across the Desert into Egypt, during the Years* 1799, 1800, *and* 1801. *By* WILLIAM WITTMAN, M. D. *of the Royal Artillery, &c.* pp. 612.

"IN the present multiplicity of books, to obtrude a new work upon the public argues an opinion in the author, that it either contains some new information, or if the matter is old, that it is in a dress which is both original and advantageous. To the latter the writer of these pages makes no pretensions; with respect to the former, the fault is his own if the work should be found to contain no information but what is already familiar to his countrymen.

"Attached in a professional capacity to the British military mission which accompanied the army of the grand vizier in its route through Turkey, Syria, and Egypt, during the late memorable campaign, he was certainly in a situation peculiarly advantageous for observing the manners, customs, and habits of the Turkish nation, not only with the Grand Vizier himself, but with the principal personages of the Ottoman empire.

"In the course of his travels, he saw many things which, to him at least, were uncommon; and he was in the habit (partly to relieve his mind from the irksomeness of

Digitized by Google

his situation, and partly in the hope of gratifying his particular friends) to note down whatever appeared worthy of remark. On communicating these notes to those for whom they were originally intended, it was their wish to see them in print, as containing matter which, according to their partial opinion, was calculated to interest a still wider circle. Such a task, when he commenced his journal, he did not expect he should have to encounter; and this statement, in every respect consonant to truth, he trusts will shield him from the severity of criticism, which is most properly directed against such publications as are, from the first, intended to challenge the approbation of the public."

Dr. Wittman's situation was indeed, as he boasts, peculiarly advantageous; and if it shall appear, that in his new matter there is little information, and in his old matter no improvement, the fault *is* his own; and a fault it is deserving the utmost severity of criticism, which, begging leave to correct the author, we must affirm, is *most properly directed against such publications as are, from the first, intended to pick the pockets of the public.*

That such was the intention with which this quarto volume was published, we suspected, upon seeing that many of the prints are copied, from what originals it would be difficult to say, as they have been copied so often, but probably from Sir Paul Rycaut. The hand of a modern artist is easily discoverable in the few figures which are actually from modern drawings, such as the two Arnaut soldiers, and the Arab groom. There is internal evidence of this fraud, sufficient to satisfy those who may not have the means of comparison to detect it. The figure of the Capitan Pacha would be familiar to many of those officers who would probably be the first perusers of Dr. Wittman's travels: a portrait of *one of his predecessors* therefore is given. "The costume worn by the Dervises is of a *light quaker colour*, says the author, and a competent idea of it will be formed from plate IV, in which one of their superiors is faithfully represented." In the print this quaker-coloured dress is green.

Nor is it merely in publishing old prints as originals, that Dr. Wittman and his bookseller have displayed their *vamping* abilities: matter a century old is to be palmed upon the public in the same manner, and honest old half-a-crown octavos pilfered to eke out the pages of a modern two guinea and a half quarto. We shall proceed regularly through the travels of this gentleman; we shall expose his ignorance, his want of observation and of information; we shall detect his plagiarisms, and endeavour to glean some information from his five hundred pages.

Dr. Wittman went by sea to Constantinople: never did man display more poverty of imagination, more beggarliness of language, more meagreness of mind, than this writer has manifested in his descriptions of the finest scenery in the world. "We had a distant view of Mount Etna and Strombolo, than which nothing could be more awful and grand. The Lipari islands added to the effect of this fine scene," p. 3.—"The city, harbour, and environs of Constantinople, presented a magnificent spectacle, new in every respect to our eyes, both as to the architecture of the principal edifices, and the construction of the city itself; but which was on the whole extremely fine and picturesque," p. 5.—"I walked to the vicinity of the mosque of Santa Sophia, which is certainly a very massive building, but which, considered in an architectural point of view, is, in my opinion, very inferior to our St Paul's. With the exception of the dome, and of the four minarets which are detached, there is nothing very singular or striking in the pile," p. 34. So much for Dr. Wittman's descriptive powers, and his feeling of what is aweful in nature, or majestic in art. The only visual object which he has had fancy enough to represent is, that, "the minarets bear a strong resemblance in their form to a tall candle, having an extinguisher at its top."

The barracks of the English detachment were at Levant Chifflick, about seven miles from Buyukdere, where the officers resided; "a very agreeable dish called *yourt*, of which the natives are very fond, is made here and brought in with the dessert. It is prepared by allowing a certain portion of milk to become sour, and throwing into new milk as much of this acidulated fluid as will curdle it in a slight degree. It is then eaten with sugar; is very palatable, and mixed with strawberries, becomes a good substitute for cream." Dr. Wittman has noticed another dainty of the Turkish dairy, which we hope will find its way into many a family cookery book. Large shallow vessels having been filled

Digitized by Google

with new milk, are placed over a gentle wood fire, and the milk kept simmering for the space of twenty four hours, when it is left to cool. On the following day the surface, which has assumed a consistent form, is taken off, cut into small portions, and rolled up for use. This is the *kymack* which is so generally used, and so highly esteemed in Turkey. It is an excellent subtitute for butter, and is also eaten with honey, or sugar, or salt.

During his residence at Buyukdere, the doctor relates such daily occurrences, as would be esteemed too dull and unimportant for what is technically called, *stuffing*, in a garrison gazette. "In company with General Koehler, and the other officers, on the 19th, I dined with the Russian ambassador at his palace, at Buyukdere, where we were sumptuously entertained," p. 19.—"On the 20th, twenty men belonging to the mission, and several women were sent to the above barracks. On the 21st, I went on board the New Adventure transport, lying in the harbour of Constantinople: in the afternon I returned to Buyukdere by water," p. 20.—"On the 24th and 25th, I paid my customary visits to the barracks, at Levant Chifflick. During the night of the 24th, Mrs. Wilkinson, wife to a corporal of the royal artillery, fell a victim to a dysenteric complaint," p. 21.—"On the 26th, on my return from the barracks I dined with the general," p. 22. Admirable accuracy! gentle reader, it was Dr. Wittman's habit to "note down whatever appeared *worthy of remark*; and on communicating these notes to those for whom they were originally intended, it was their wish to see them in print, *as containing matter which*, according to their partial opinion, *was calculated to interest a still wider circle.*"

Dr. Wittman is little more amusing or intructive when he digresses from this precious journal of his rides and his dinners: the only things indeed which he seems to have noted upon the spot, except the cases of his patients. The uninquiring and contented ignorance with which he has beheld every thing, is truly marvellous; he tells us of the brazen pillar in the old hippodrome, formed by the twisting of three serpents, and that Mahomet the second, when he took Constantinople, beat off the jaw of one of their heads: but he has not added the circumstances which render this the most venerable relic in existence, that it originally supported the golden tripod, which the Greeks presented to the temple of Delphi, after the defeat of Xerxes. He says, that the house of Osman (Ottoman) established the fifth dynasty of the caliphs, as if the caliphate still subsisted! and he speaks of the mufti of a mosque in Jerusalem, which is like calling an English vicar archbishop, or a French curé, pope.

The famous cannon at the Dardanelles are said to have a diameter of thirty inches; the author saw a Turk seated *in* one of them, eating his meal. Baron Tott's tale has been ridiculed, but the following anecdote will establish his veracity, if farther proof were now needful.

"At the time when Lieutenant-colonel Holloway and Major Hope were engaged in the survey of the castles and coast, a practice was made by the Turks from the great guns at Chennecally for the purpose of convincing the English officers that their large marble and granite balls, discharged *à ricochet*,* would reach quite across the Dardanelles. They indeed furnished a melancholy proof of this; a family of three individuals, sitting in a field on the opposite side, having been killed by one of the shots."

Dr. Wittman witnessed some singular ceremonies of a public breakfast given by a Russian Captain, on board his ship.

"Previously to the breakfast, tongues and liqueurs were presented to us—a custom which we were given to understand is constantly observed by the Russians. During the breakfast, which was of the most sumptuous kind, several toasts, given by the captain, were drank, and cheered three times. The captain now entertained us with a Russian dance, while a part of the crew, cleanly dressed for the occasion, sung to an accompaniment of Russian music. After a short interval, the captain fell on the deck, apparently from accident, when the singers took him

* "In firing *à ricochet*, the piece is no more than half charged, insomuch that it carries the ball to a certain distance only. In its fall, the latter skips, rolls, and makes rebounds *(ricochets)*, as is the case with pebbles thrown in a horizontal direction on the surface of the water, in skimming which they produce what by boys are called *ducks and drakes*. This practice is employed to sweep and clear a covered way, a rampart, &c. and its invention is ascribed to the celebrated Vauban."

Digitized by Google

in their arms, and tossed him in the air, repeating certain phrases. Each of the guests afterwards underwent the same ceremony. The next singular occurrence was, that on the health of the Russian minister at Constantinople being given by the captain, he demanded aloud what others would do for him. Instantly a Russian officer, and nearly twenty of the crew, jumped from the cabin window into the sea, with their clothes on. The stern ladders were the only resource they had to get on board again; and on their entering the cabin with their wet clothes, they danced round the captain, occasionally prostrating themselves at his feet. On our going on shore, the greater part of the barge's crew threw themselves into the water, and swam by her side until we reached the beach. A few piastres distributed among them were, as I apprehend, considered by them a sufficient recompense for the ducking to which they had subjected themselves."

A Turk who had assaulted one of the English mission, and attempted to murder him, was condemned to be beheaded; the sentence being mitigated at Lord Elgin's intercession, he received fifty strokes of the bastinado on the soles of his feet, and was sentenced to twenty years imprisonment in the college of Pera, to learn the Arabic language.

After a long residence in the vicinity of Constantinople, the English were sent to join the Turkish army at Jaffa.

"We found the Turkish troops encamped in the most confused and irregular manner, without any order in the positions they occupied, each individual having pitched his tent on the spot which was most agreeable to his inclination. The only regulation that seemed to border somewhat on system was, that each Pacha, or military governor, was surrounded by his own men. The encampment was on a white sandy soil; and I observed a considerable number of tents converted into cook's shops, while others were set aside for the sale of various commodities, particularly coffee and tobacco, of which, among the Turks, there is a great and constant consumption.

"The situation which had been chosen for the camp manifested an incredible degree of ignorance and imprudence on the part of those who had been entrusted with the marking out of the ground: being placed to leeward of the town, the sea breeze, which constantly prevailed during the day time, distributed to every part of it the putrid noxious effluvia which the streets of Jaffa produced. The tents were absolutely pitched among the abodes of the dead; and the bodies of those who had been interred were in general so superficially covered over by the earth, that the putrid exhalations which were thus generated were intolerable to the passenger, and must have been as baneful as disgusting to those who were constantly exposed to them. To complete the horrors of this scene of filth and depravity, the carcasses of dead animals, such as camels, horses, and asses, were scattered in great abundance among the tents, to corrupt and moulder away, without giving the smallest concern, or apparently offering any kind of molestation to the Turkish soldiery.

"The departure of troops from the Turkish encampment was, as well as their arrival, customarily announced by the discharge of muskets loaded with balls, which, flying at random in every direction, endangered the lives of all those who were within their reach. This practice of firing with bullets, which is followed in every Turkish camp, was indeed become so frequent, that we were under constant apprehensions of being shot. Our tents were repeatedly pierced by the balls; and one of our men, an armourer, was, while at work in our camp, wounded in the shoulder by a musquet-ball. The Turkish solders, who furnish their own ammunition at all times, except on the day of battle, when it is provided for them, conceive they have a right to amuse themselves in this manner at their private expence."

Here Dr. Wittman relates the tale of the massacre at Jaffa; a fact which we would willingly disbelieve, if the evidence did not appear irrefragable. We need not transcribe what has already been placarded upon the walls of every city in England. Yet it appears to us that Dr. Wittman's testimony is of little weight: I have seen the skeletons, he says: but how are they distinguished from the skeletons of men slain in battle? Still less conclusive are the circumstances which he adduces, to prove that Bonaparte ordered his own sick soldiers to be poisoned. An individual was pointed out to him as having been the executioner of these diabolical commands. Is it to be believed that the French army, or that any army, would suffer a man to exist in the same country with themselves, who was known to have been the poisoner of their comrades? Or is Dr. Wittman so ignorant of the nature of evidence and of justice, as to admit rumour for proof, and condemn a man merely because he has been accused?

"I introduce the following anecdote to evince, among other facts, the very unenlightened condition of the Turks, without excepting even their principal men, in whatever regards the sciences. General Koehler was requested by the Grand Vizier to have a map of the world sketched out for him. This request having been complied with, a

conversation ensued, in which the general, having the plan before him, told his highness, among other particulars, that the earth was round. This information caused no small degree of surprise to the Turkish minister; and, it appeared, by his reply, that he was disposed to doubt the truth of the assertion. "If," he observed, "the earth is round, how can the people, and other detached objects on the half beneath, be prevented from falling off?" When he was told that the earth revolved round the sun, he displayed an equal degree of scepticism, observing, that if that was the case, the ships bound from Jaffa to Constantinople, instead of proceeding to that capital, would be carried to London, or elsewhere. So much for the astronomical and geographical knowledge of a Turkish statesman!"

But however the Grand Vizier may be deficient in the sciences, there have been worse statesmen than he in England. In speaking of the convention of El Arish, he compared the English ministry to a physician, who, having given to his patient a dose of medicine by which he was relieved, administered to him an after dose, which rendered him worse than he was at first. Among the many errors of that miserable ministry, this indeed stands conspicuous. —Had General Kleber appeared in France, Bonaparte would probably have sunk into ignominy and contempt, under the accusation of a brave, and honest, and able man.

Here, says the author, my narrative is about to take a new turn. A visit to Jerusalem, and other parts of the holy land, had been for some time projected, and the state of inaction in which we found ourselves at this juncture, prompted us to gratify our ardent curiosity by the accomplishment of such a journey. That Dr. Wittman did visit Jerusalem, there is no reason to doubt; but his descriptions are taken, and his measurements copied, from Maundrel, without acknowledgement or reference to that author.

A Scotch renegado, by name Mustapha alias Campbell, was in the Turkish army, as Cumbaragi Bashi or general of bombardiers.

"An implicit confidence having been reposed in his talents and fidelity, he was, in his early career, entrusted with the superintendance and construction of the military works in the Turkish empire, several of which, executed under his direction, are still in existence. At the time of this visit to the Turkish camp, he was between seventy and eighty years of age, and appeared to be well informed, and to have received a polished education. He had been repeatedly attacked by the plague, relative to which disease he communicated to me a singular fact that had come within his knowledge. A female Circassian slave of great beauty was attacked by the plague, and sunk under the complaint; while her master, who had still continued an intercourse with her during her illness, escaped the infection. From this and other similar cases which have been recited to me, it would appear, that a certain susceptibility is necessary to the reception of the disease, or, in other words, that its contagious action is resisted by a certain state and condition of the body. Could this particular state of the temperament be so well ascertained as to be produced by the means of art, the contagion might be effectually resisted, and its deleterious effects completely prevented. I may perhaps be thought too sanguine when I indulge in a hope, that this discovery, so essential to the happiness of mankind, or some other of paramount efficacy, will one day be brought to light."

The gravity with which Dr. Wittman infers, from this horrid and disgraceful fact, a conclusion which every country apothecary knows will apply to every infectious disease, is truly wonderful. This circumcised Scotchman reminds us of a singular circumstance, which we know to be true. A tradesman in a town of Berkshire, finding that his affairs declined from bad to worse, determined to forsake his country, and turn Turk upon speculation. He communicated his intention to his wife, took leave of her and sent her home to her friends, and sailed for Constantinople and put his design in execution. His wife, or rather widow, received one letter from him after some few years, to say that he was doing well in the world, and had got three wives besides slaves in his harem.

From Jaffa Dr. Wittman proceeded, with the Turkish army, to El Arish, crossing the desert; and thence, on the success of the English, advanced into Egypt. The account of the places which they passed on the march, has been helped out from Sandys. In his description of the *mirage*, some circumstances are mentioned which were new to us.

"It presents the distant appearance of water with such an air of truth and reality, that the shadows of the camels who were in advance, seemed to be reflected on the apparent watery surface. To give a more extraordinary effect to the illusion, the bodies of these animals appeared to be narrowed and elongated upwards, so as to give them the appearance of trunks of trees, the

branches of which had been lopped off. The most elevated of the distant sand hills represented light clouds; while the smaller ones appeared like ships under a press of sail in the midst of beautiful lakes. This phenomenon was more particularly apparent on the levels, which were in some parts covered with a saline substance, finely crystallized, and very shining and brilliant."

The doctor's journal in Egypt is filled with the same impertinences as he thought worthy of remark at Constantinople. "Major Wilson, of Hompesch's regiment, arrived in the camp on the 15th, with dispatches from the British army. He set off in the evening, mounted on a hedgin, with dispatches from the Grand Vizier," p. 304. "The Vizier was at this time indisposed with fever, and required my constant attendance; as did also Mahomed Pacha. Lieutenant Janverin of the royal navy, was at this time sent off with dispatches for Suez. On the morning of the 23d, an officer belonging to the British cavalry stationed in the Delta, came into the camp with letters: his arrival was followed by that of Major Wilson." "I rode in the morning along the banks of the river, to the vicinity of Shellacan, or Charlacan, at the junction of the two branches of the Nile, and had thence a view of Cairo, as well as of the pyramids of Giza. I rode in the afternoon to Harrachneah, a village distant three miles from Shellacan, and eight from Cairo, &c."; and so on, with a diary of rides, and deaths, and dinners, under the title of Travels in Asiatic Turkey, Syria, and Egypt.

Sometimes these valuable paragraphs are varied by others equally important, of a scientific nature. "On the 16th, I rode to Belgrade, and returned to Buyukdere. I brought home with me some of the air of Belgrade to examine." He brought from Jerusalem two bottles of the water of the Dead Sea, which, upon their arrival in England, he means to endeavour to analyze. A portion of the saline matter in the deserts, he collected for future experiments. "I employed myself, on the 24th, in examining the waters I had collected at the different places at which we had stopped in our passage through the desert, and collected the residuous matter for future experiments. I collected some of the mud of the Nile, for the purpose of future examination, and shall on its arrival submit it to a careful analysis." But none of these future experiments appear in this volume. In one instance, the doctor has omitted a scientific description where it would have been useful.

"I procured, at one of the bazars of Cairo, a sample of the stone which is employed by the Arabs to cure the mange in horses. To effect this, they pound the stone, and convert it into a paste, which they spread over every part of the animal, suffering it to remain on for the space of three days, when it is washed off. This stone is collected on Mount Mokatam, is of a yellow colour, of a texture somewhat soft, and is named in Arabic tuff."

Dr. Wittman can occasionally be accurate—as when he tells us that the Reis Effendi shewed him a pair of pistols which he had purchased in London, and which were made by Bennet near the Royal Exchange.

Peace being concluded, the business of the military was at an end. Dr. Wittman returned to Constantinople, touching at several of the Greek Islands on his way, and from thence travelled by way of Vienna to Helvoetsluys. The appendix contains his medical journals, some remarks on plague and ophthalmia, and a meteorological journal.

No person who peruses this volume can possibly believe that Dr. Wittman collected any part of his original materials with a view to publication, except the medical journals. He seems to have raked up all the rubbish in his memory, after his return, with the wilful design of making a quarto book; and to have poached in old travellers, for descriptions, measurements, and anecdotes of historical topography. The trick has perhaps succeeded—and we have only to express our wonder and indignation that any bookseller or any author should be concerned in so disgraceful a transaction.

Digitized by Google

ART. XIV. *Travels through France, Turkey, and Hungary to Vienna, in* 1792. *To which are added several Tours in Hungary, in* 1799 *and* 1800; *in a Series of Letters to his Sister in England. By* WILLIAM HUNTER, *of the Inner Temple, Esq. Third Edition.* 2 Vols. 8vo. pp. 900.

WE notice the third edition of Mr. Hunter's Travels, because it embraces an account, which is now for the first time presented to the public, of "several tours in Hungary." The cursory glance which we have now taken of those letters, which we read when they were published some six or seven years since, has confirmed the opinion which we recollect having entertained of them at that time: they are amusing, but not very pregnant of valuable or interesting information. What Mr. Hunter saw he describes agreeably, and, we doubt not, faithfully; but he did not see much. He trots through France as if he were in a hurry to get out of it, and when detained any where a day longer than he calculated upon, seems to grudge the time. A very faithful diary is kept of the state of the roads, carriages, horses, inns, &c.; but Mr. Hunter forgets that his list of petty grievances, surly postillions, slow-footed horses, bad dinners, and filthy beds, however interesting it might be in a private journal for the perusal of a beloved sister, is excessively tiresome to us, who cannot reasonably be supposed to feel so acutely all that concerned his personal accommodation.

As these letters appeared first in order of time, it is hardly fair, perhaps, to say that the accounts which we have recently received from Sonnini, Olivier, Eton, and Dallaway, concerning the state of the Turkish empire, its inhabitants, its products, policy, commerce, &c. &c. very much depreciate the value of what we find here; but Lady Mary Wortley Montague's letters were published before these, and a great part of the information given here, particularly as to the manners of the Turks, is communicated in a much more minute, as well as more interesting manner, by that fascinating writer.

Mr. Hunter does not appear to be a man of science; we have not a tittle concerning the natural history of any country he visits, nor are his reflections upon any subject usually very philosophic or profound. At Galatz Mr. Hunter dined with the governor, a good-natured but a dull man; this gives our traveller an opportunity of remarking, that good-nature without good-sense "has but few attractions!" the *reasons why* are not forgotten to be added. The Greeks at Galatz are fond of dancing, and we are gravely told that "gaiety is an enviable possession;" that "the song and the dance can, whilst they last, *erase* from the tablet of recollection the galling *chains* of power, or the vexatious *tyranny* of avarice." Mr. Hunter plays at cards somewhere with a man who cheats him—we have a long dull lecture upon honesty! He is compelled to pass the night in a field near a village called Palamont, the inhabitants of which refused him accommodation; in parts it was an absolute marsh, and the croaking of the frogs disturbed the repose of our traveller, who tells us, that he "was wishing for an army of Frenchmen to demolish these execrable musicians!" Such silly frivolous remarks as these meet the eye but too often.. The filth and stench of the Turkish villages and huts, prove to Mr. Hunter "how entirely man is the creature of habit;" and he might surely have added "of necessity."

Mr. Hunter proceeds to observe, that "the elegancies of life do not make us happier! many of its conveniences may be cheerfully dispensed with; but there are comforts which we absolutely require, and which seem to be interwoven with the very existence of rational enjoyment." The first remark, that the elegancies of life do not make us happier, is not true, and at any rate does no great credit to the delicacy and refinement of Mr. Hunter's taste: the latter is one of those vulgar common-place truisms which so frequently offend us in the perusal of these pages.

But it is time that we should proceed to the "tours in Hungary," and collect the scanty information concerning that country which Mr. Hunter has afforded. Hungary, we had already been told in the former part, is, on the whole, a fine country; the climate being good, and the soil fertile. It produces wine, corn, and all kinds of vegetables in abundance, and in great perfection. Game and wild fowl are plentiful, and the breed of oxen, horses, and sheep is much esteemed: in the mountains there are rich and extensive mines of gold, silver, lead, and other metals; and the salt mines are highly productive and valuable. The Hun-

garians are stated to be a handsome, well-formed, hardy race of men; they are indolent, proud, and revengeful; but generous, hospitable, and brave. Their dress consists of a fur cap with a high plume of feathers, a close vest, and a loose jacket trimmed with fur richly embroidered, with pantaloons and half-boots, which are so common, "that many a gentleman has passed his life without ever having had a pair of shoes on his feet."

"The ordinary dress of the burghers and the higher class of peasantry, in this part of the country, consists of a light blue jacket and pantaloons, and huzzar boots with tassels and spurs. The jacket is edged with fur, and both jacket and pantaloons are embroidered down the seams. The poorer class is obliged to be satisfied with a short shirt and trowsers of coarse linen, the fabric of the country. As the weather grows cooler, they throw a rough blanket across their shoulders, and in winter, clothe themselves with a sheep-skin garment, which reaches down to their heels, and which, according to the temperature of the atmosphere, they wear with the wool or skin next them. At night they convert it into a bed. They are tall, stout, and straight grown, but have heavy countenances, and their long black greasy hair and huge whiskers give them the appearance of savages. The men wear round felt hats with rims and broad shallow crowns, and both men and women go without shoes and stockings. The women who are not by any means so well-looked as the men, are kept in a state of slavish subordination, and are not only employed in domestic drudgery but in the laborious parts of agriculture, such as digging, planting, and following the plough."

Buda is the capital of lower Hungary, and served as a centre for our traveller to make his excursions from. We must decline entering upon the description of this city, as it was given in the first edition of these letters. A traveller in Hungary must visit its mines and the famed Carpathian mountains; Mr. Hunter enjoyed every facility which letters of recommendation could afford him; but the badness of the roads, and the obstinacy of his guides, damped a great deal of his ardour; and yet he was so eager for the excursion, that when at Cashau, although the opal mines of Czerwenitz are only a short day's journey from that place, he was so fearful of "being too late for the mountains," that he could not prevail on himself to *spare time* to visit them! Mr. Hunter visited one of the copper mines at Schmölnitz: there are several of them, some worked by the king, and others by private persons. Some of the caverns are one hundred and eighty fathoms in depth, and branch out at different stages in various directions, to a considerable extent. The works under ground are immense; the pumps for raising water from the mines are similar in principle, but the machinery of them is much inferior to those in Cornwall.

"These mines, although some of them have been worked for centuries past, are far from being exhausted, every hundred weight of ore yielding from two to twelve and even fifteen pounds of pure copper. The private mines are richer than those belonging to the king; but the proprietors are obliged to pay a duty of seventeen per cent. on their produce, for the privilege of working them. All the ore, both from the royal and private mines, as soon as it is brought up, is carried to the public smelting houses, where it is melted and proved. The number of workmen employed in the different mining departments surpasses two thousand, who are not paid by the day, but according to the weight and relative value of the ore; and the quantity of pure copper annually produced is about 15000 cwt.

"These mines bring in a considerable revenue to the crown, by which the chief part of their produce is purchased. Copper, simply refined, fetches thirty-six florins a cwt. and, when manufactured into bars or plates, about forty-eight. But the most lucrative use to which it is applied by the government, is converting it into coin; as, by this operation, one cwt. which costs originally thirty-six florins, yields about eighty in money, leaving a profit of forty-four per cent."

Besides copper, these mines produce antimony and sulphur to a considerable amount, and about twelve cwt. of copper is gained annually by cementation.

At Gros Limnitz Mr. Hunter, having a letter to M. Berzevitzi, expressed to that gentleman his intention of scaling the *peak*, but is recommended to proceed to Hradec, with the view of ascending the Krivan, which was supposed to be of easier access. When arrived at Hradec, however, he was "rather mortified" to learn, that he could not accomplish his project, in consequence of a heavy fall of snow. "There is another natural curiosity about five miles from Hradec," says Mr. Hunter, "which is a subterraneous cavern called Demanovo, *but the description of the road deterred me from going to see it.*" So Mr. Hunter returned to his friend Berzevitzi at Gros Limnitz, where he seemed to enjoy his good quarters. Another valiant attack upon Limnitz, however, was determined

upon: after *an hour's march*, finding a snug sheltered spot, our mountaineer and his companion halted, and kindled a good fire! when sufficiently rested, they proceeded till "an insurmountable barrier of snow" put a stop to their intrepid career. Mr. Hunter, unfortunately, is ignorant of mineralogy and botany; he took this excursion simply for the purpose of admiring the grand and awful scale on which nature presents herself among lofty mountains, and merely tells us, that many beautiful and rare alpine plants are to be met with, "the collecting of which, to those who are fond of botanizing," says he very gravely, "must be an interesting amusement!" Such of our readers as are desirous of being acquainted with the natural productions of the Carpathian Alps, we recommend to turn from these unprofitable rambles to Dr. Townson's mineralogical and botanical excursions among them: his travels through Hungary, published in 1797, contain a great variety of curious and interesting information.

At Soovar Mr. Hunter saw the salt-works:

"The mines belong to the emperor. Formerly the salt was made from the rock, which is in great abundance. But, for many years past, it has been collected from the water which flows through the mines, and which is so strongly impregnated with saline particles, that one hundred weight of water yields twenty-five pounds of salt. It is drawn up in large leathern buckets from a well eighty-one fathoms deep, and fifty-five to the surface of the water. The great pan, in which the water is boiled, is emptied every two hours, when the salt is put into casks, which remain four and twenty hours in the drying houses. They manufacture, at present, about two hundred weight daily; but, by the new works which are erecting on an improved and much larger scale, they are in hopes that the quantity produced will not be less than five-hundred weight. This is a profitable concern for the emperor, as the salt costs him only about twenty creutzers the hundred weight, and is sold at three florins eight creutzers. The magazines of wood are also very considerable."

Mr. Hunter visited the copper works at Neusohl, and the amalgamating apparatus, erected by Baron Born, "for the purpose of extracting by a process of quicksilver, gold and silver from their ores;" the invention did not answer; but in one of the rooms Mr. Hunter saw an useful machine for heating water. It was a large wooden vessel in the form of a deep tub, with an iron stove within it, standing on three legs; there was a funnel for conveying the smoke, and a tube passing from the stove to the side of the vessel, for the introduction of fuel: so that the stove, which may be heated to any degree, when the vessel is full, stands in the middle of the water. By this method of boiling there is said to be a saving of six parts of fuel out of seven. This hint is worthy of attention.

Upwards of five thousand men are employed in the works at and near Neusohl, and two thousand toises of wood are annually consumed at the different forges. The fuel is brought from those immense forests which extend thirty or forty miles along the banks of the Grau, where four hundred people are employed a great part of the year in hewing it. The copper, which is sold in plates here for fifty-five florins the quintal, produces, when coined, one hundred and sixty-four.

Having traversed Hungary from east to west, Mr. Hunter profited by an opportunity afforded him in the early part of the year 1800, and made an excursion to the south. The indolence of the peasantry here is remarkable: Mr. Hunter attributes it, very plausibly, to the natural fertility of the soil. The farmer never manures his land, and only ploughs three or four inches deep: it yields, nevertheless, abundant crops of excellent wheat and other grain, tobacco, and a variety of delicious fruits. "Such is the abundance of wood (in the neighbourhood of Essek, the capital of Slavonia) and the laziness of the people, that when they are in want of fuel or timber, to save themselves the trouble of using the axe, they kindle a large fire round the trunk, which is kept burning till the tree falls. They then carry off the large branches and leave the stumps, which I have frequently seen remaining," says Mr. Hunter, "after the ground has been converted into arable land." It is the general remark of strangers, that in many parts of Hungary the houses are disproportioned and inadequate to the population: the manner in which Mr. Hunter accounts for this gives one a striking idea of the semi-barbarized state of the peasantry. Ten or twelve families are joint possessors of the same tenement; the various members of this community are, however, widely dispersed. None but infant children, the superannuated, and the sick, are admitted as constant occu-

Digitized by Google

pants; "the remainder* *is* scattered over the country, and *is* satisfied with an abode in the open air, near the spots where they work in the day time." At Ui Palanka our traveller left his carriage, while he took an excursion on the Danube, the particulars of which he has very agreeably related. The degree of curiosity which this carriage produced here and in some other of the villages, is astonishing: the people had never heard of such a vehicle, and when it remained at any place a day, they flocked from different parts, two or three miles round, to see it! At Temeswar Mr. Hunter wished to purchase a book relating to Hungary, which had been strongly recommended to him. This city, which contains many thousand inhabitants, does not afford a single bookseller's shop!

At Mezzo-Hegyes Mr. Hunter saw the imperial stud, which was founded by Joseph II. for the improvement of the Hungarian horse, by introducing breeds from other parts of Europe, and crossing them with the native stock.

"The number of horses amounted altogether to one thousand and twenty, of which nine hundred were brood mares; and the ground allotted to their nourishment is twenty English square miles. Part of this land is employed in the growth of oats, hay, and a few other general foods. The rest is laid out in pasturages. The houses, stables, barns, and offices, are erected on the most convenient spots, and are constructed both with judgment and taste. There is one long stable, consisting of seventy wide stalls which, at this season of the year, is allotted to the most valuable stallions; and the mares which are reserved for them, to the number of four hundred, graze in enclosures, and in winter are taken up. The remaining five hundred horses are perfectly wild, and range at large. The stallions belonging to these, are in the proportion of one to nine or ten mares, and they have dreadful contentions with each other for favour and superiority. We had an opportunity of witnessing one of their battles. A herd of about one hundred mares was collected together, among which were only three stallions. They were already covered with wounds received in former combats, which however, did not prevent them from immediately commencing an engagement. One of them was soon completely beaten off the course, and, quite conscious of his insufficiency, slunk away unattended by a single companion. The remaining two then began an attack, and never I suppose, in times of chivalry, was a fiercer contest carried on, in the presence of the fair, by two enraged knights. The mares, however, had more compassion than the ladies of those days; and, as if fearful of the consequences, after many dreadful wounds had been by each party given and received, by general consent they interfered, and divided themselves nearly between them. I observed that every time the mares were driven promiscuously together, as soon as they were left to themselves, all those of the same colour separated from the others, and assembled in parties.

"The manner in which these wild horses are caught is very curious. A great many of them are first hunted into an enclosed place of a circular form, and, when you have fixed on any horse you wish to have brought out, a man approaches with a long hair rope that has a slip knot at one end. They are then driven round pell-mell, the man with the rope running after them, and narrowly watching the horse that is wanted. The moment he sees an opportunity, he flings the rope, which is done with such expertness, that it generally secures him by the neck. He is immediately pulled out by main force, and five or six other grooms, who are always in attendance, running up, in one moment he is so fastened and pinioned on every side, that all resistance is completely vain. An exact list and pedigree is kept of every horse, and the colts are all marked at three years old."

This establishment in the course of the last war supplied the huzzars and light dragoons with upwards of ten thousand horses, for which the emperor allowed a hundred florins each. The annual consumption of oats alone is estimated at 100,000 florins; and three hundred and fifty men (whose number in the spring is augmented to five hundred) are employed all the year round.

The concluding letter in these volumes is interesting and full of matter: after some general remarks on the country and its inhabitants, Mr. Hunter enlarges on the political institutions of Hungary. We have compared this account with that given by Dr. Townson,

* Mr. Hunter uses the verb singularly after a noun of number: Mr Gibbon, to whose history we are often referred, and from whom, perhaps, this affectation was copied, is at least consistent in the use of it. Mr. Hunter is not so: speaking of the plain of Rakosch, where the kings of Hungary were formerly elected, he says, "I felt while I was beholding it a mingled emotion of veneration and terror: veneration for that awful exercise of power which a people *administers* when *they* place an equal on the throne; and terror," &c. vol. ii. p. 241.

Digitized by Google

and find the authors agreeing with each other very accurately. The Hungarians do not like their subjection to the Austrian government; the crown of Hungary from being elective, is become hereditary in the house of Austria, whose court is at Vienna. The sovereign seldom visits his dominions, and the inhabitants of Hungary consider their kingdom, blessed with a warm sun and a fertile soil, and containing eight millions of inhabitants, as treated like a paltry insignificant province. It continues yet to be a fundamental law of the land, that every new sovereign, when ascending the throne, shall solemnly swear to the nation to grant them their rights. In the thirteenth century Andrew II. in his *diploma* or coronation oath, allowed his subjects to take arms against him if he infringed them. Several of his successors have signed this diploma, and the same is still in use, except that particular article on the subject of resistance, which was erased in the reign of Joseph I. This diploma of Andrew II. is not an unique instance of royal humility, or to speak more accurately, of spirit and vigilance on the part of the people, forming a constitution for themselves.—Without any formal acknowledgment by the English constitution, of the people's right to take up arms against their sovereign, even in cases of notorious tyranny, the plains of Runnimede and Naseby attest the exercise, and the successful exercise of such a power, when called forth by emergencies. The ancient constitution of Arragon, however, expressly recognised what was called the *privilege of union*. After any violation of the laws, if on application to the king full redress was not immediately granted, the *ricos-hombres de natura et de mesnada*, the nobles of the first rank, the *hidalgos et infaciones*, the equestrian order, or those of the second rank, together with the magistrates of cities might, by authority of their own body corporate, require redress from the king; and in case of refusal *constitutionally* withdraw allegiance, take up arms to oppose him, and proceed to the election of another monarch. This legal association issued its mandates under a common seal, and its operations were conducted with regular and established formalities. Its power was successfully exercised by the Arragonese in the case of Alfonzo III. in the year 1287. Peter IV. ratified the right in the year 1347; but soon after having defeated the leaders of the *union* in battle, it was finally abrogated by him, and every record was destroyed which had formerly confirmed it.*

The government of Hungary is divided between the king and the nobles; the burghers and peasants are excluded from all participation. The king declares peace and makes war, creates nobility, pardons criminals, and convokes diets, but has only a *veto* in legislation: he has the gift of the great offices in church and state, those of the palatine† and keepers of the crown excepted.—The executive government then, of the kingdom, is in the hands of the sovereign; but the raising of supplies for carrying on war, &c. belongs to the nation, who can only grant them in a diet; what in England would be called the *people*, however have very little share in the constitution of the diet. The deputies of the fifty-two counties into which this kingdom is divided, are only the deputies of the nobility; and the *populus*, as they are called in the public acts which are in Latin, are the privileged aristocracy; that is, the nobility and higher clergy. What we should call the people, namely, the body of peasantry and citizens, are contra-distinguished in the public acts from the *populus*, being very emphatically and very truly styled the *misera contribuens plebs*. These burghers and peasants, the misera contribuens plebs, who are scarcely removed from without the verge of vassalage, defray all the ordinary expences of government, whilst the nobles, who legislate and tax them, are exempt from all public burdens: they enjoy moreover the exclusive possession of every post of honour, emolument, and trust: they are exclusive owners of the soil, except what lies within the precincts of the free-towns: and are privileged as to their persons, except for high-treason, mur-

* See Robertson's History of Charles V. vol. i. note xxxii.

† The palatine is elected by the diet from among four candidates, recommended by the king. "This office, which generally lasts for life, is as ancient as the monarchy, and in rank is next to the throne. The palatine governs in the absence of the king: is generalissimo of the kingdom: supreme judge of Sclavonia and Dalmatia: and judge and count of the Cumanians and Jazyges. His salary is only 20,000 florins, but his power and patronage is very great. The ban of Croatia is the next in precedence."

Digitized by Google

der, robbery, and a few other crimes: and lastly, they cannot be arrested till *after* trial and conviction!

A sort of feudal return to government is made for these immunities.—When their country is invaded, the nobles are bound, at the requisition of their sovereign, to take the field, accompanied, according to the extent of their estates, by a certain number of combatants, who are maintained at their expence any where within the bounds of Hungary. Mr. Hunter says, that during the Turkish wars this was a severe and expensive duty; but since the expulsion of the Ottomans, and the mode now universally adopted of maintaining standing armies, it has been attended with scarcely any inconvenience.

The burghers are not so much exposed to the oppression of the nobles as the peasants are, who are bred on their estates, and pass their lives in their service. The situation of these latter, however, bad as it is, has been much ameliorated within the last half century. In the year 1764, the empress Maria Theresa published an *urbarium*, abolishing many ancient usages, and defining the rights and duties of master and peasant, but still they continued under the *glebæ adscriptio*. In the year 1781, Joseph II. suppressed the villanage of the peasants in Bohemia and Moravia, and extended it to Hungary in 1785.

The peasants are divided into different classes, according to the quantity of land they occupy on their master's estate. A peasant of the first class is the occupier of what is called an entire farm, which consist of twenty-four acres, besides an additional acre which is allowed for his house, gardens and barns. The general mode of paying rent for this land is by personal labour, and by giving up to the landlord a certain portion of the produce. He is bound, for example, to work fifty-two days in the year, with a cart and two horses, from sun-rise to sunset; in addition to which he must deliver to his master a ninth part of the fruits of the earth, and of his live stock. From this tax his garden is exempt. If the peasant dies without an heir, his property devolves to the landlord. The annual contribution in Hungary, including the Banat and Croatia, amounts to about 4,400,000 florins, of which the peasants pay upwards of 4,000,000: the residue is levied on the burghers!

Hungary is at this time peopled by Hungarians, Slavonians, Germans, Wallachians, Rusniacks, Illyrians, Armenians, Greeks, Jews and Egyptians. It is a very remarkable circumstance, mentioned by Mr. Hunter, that though inhabitants of the same country, and governed nearly by the same laws, these people seldom intermix, but in general preserve their own peculiar habits, institutions, and pursuits, in their original purity.

Among the hundred plans of reformation, most of them dictated by a sense of justice and humanity, though many of them wild and visionary in the extreme; among the plans of reformation conceived by the disappointed Joseph II. it was a favourite one to amalgamate, as it were, all the subjects of his hereditary dominions: he proposed to govern them by one uniform system of laws; and in one of his mandates required that at the expiration of three years, all public business should be transacted in the German language! Perhaps nothing is more difficult than the introduction of an uniformity of language among different people: William the Conqueror endeavoured to circulate the Norman French among his English subjects, and a little of the jargon yet tingles in some of our ancient records; but if William was unsuccessful, what chance could Joseph have to teach uniformity of tongue to the discordant progeny of Ham, Slavonians, Greeks, Jews, Turks, and Wallachians? The consequence of so violent an attack upon the most ancient and deep-rooted prejudices of the people was such, as ought to have been anticipated: the whole kingdom was thrown into a ferment, and rebellion was frequently on the point of breaking out. Poor Joseph! on his death bed he was obliged to cancel, with his own hand, the acts of his whole government, except that for the suppression of the *glebæ adscriptio*.

On the accession of Leopold II. to the throne, many excellent articles were agreed on by the diet; the liberty of the peasants is confirmed and enlarged: Hungary enjoys the most complete toleration in matters of religion: public offices and seats in the legislative council are open as well to the protestant as the catholic: and no one is obliged to contribute towards the support of any form of religion which he disapproves; so that, with all its complicated system of

oppression, Hungary grants some privileges and exemptions, of which even certain free nations cannot boast.

A neat map of the author's route is prefixed to these volumes, and a portrait of Semlin III.

ART. XV. *Travels through France and Italy, and Part of Austrian French and Dutch Netherlands, during the Years* 1745 *and* 1746. *By the late Rev.* ALBAN BUTLER; *Author of the Lives of the Saints.* 8vo. pp. 472.

"THE letters from which the present publication is formed, were written by the Rev. Alban Butler, (the author of the Lives of the Saints) during his travels with the Honourable James and Thomas Talbot.

"On the perusal of them, with a view to the present publication, it appeared that they were not intended for the press, but rather as outlines for a more perfect work, being in many parts little else than mere jottings, the meaning of which it was frequently difficult to decypher; they are therefore printed with considerable alterations, which are however principally confined to variations in the style, and to the deletion of a few unimportant paragraphs. To render obvious the meaning of the author has been the principal aim of the editor, without attempting to render the phraseology agreeable to the modern standard."

On reading the title and advertisement of this volume, we took for granted that a posthumous work, apparently never intended for publication, describing a journey performed near fifty years ago, through that part of Europe which is the most visited, and therefore the best known, must possess some rare merit or extraordinary information, to occasion its being committed to the press under such forbidding circumstances. We have therefore carefully perused the work before us, and can pronounce it to be sufficiently well written, in the style and manner of other travels of the same period, but containing no peculiar information, except concerning the religious foundations and sacred reliques of the towns through which the author passed. The changes that have since taken place in Flanders, France and Italy, render this volume of no sort of use to the modern traveller: its value must therefore depend on its being a faithful history of the ecclesiastical state of these countries at the time when Mr. Butler visited them. Of its merit in this respect we are not very good judges, neither can we ascertain what degree of interest will be excited by this kind of information in those who are of the Roman catholic communion; but we fear that the protestant reader will not derive from this volume either much amusement or edification. As a characteristic specimen of the work, we select the following extracts:

"Here also is shewn the head of St. Magdalene in the gold case above described, which is enriched with great jewels. Before it is the statue of Ann of Britanny, queen of France, of enamelled gold, very beautiful, though small. She is praying upon her knees upon a pedestal, upon which are two angels supporting the case: this was the present of that queen. The head of the saint, and all its bones, are prodigiously large. It has in its aspect an extraordinary air of majesty, very agreeable. On the left side of the forehead is a piece of flesh uncorrupted, which they call the *noli me tangere*; and say it was preserved incorruptible, because our Saviour touched it with his finger when he bid Mary not touch him. But for this circumstance no good authority is alledged. Two facts at least regarding this flesh are however well attested. A person being desirous to cut off a small piece of it, to put in a reliquary, the flesh which before was dry, immediately on being cut, appeared red with fresh blood; as the verbal process, and the attestations of the physicians called to examine it, confirm. The second remarkable fact alluded to happened thus: The *Chambre de Comptes*, at Aix, (a sovereign court) has upon the death of the king a right to examine all relics, to ascertain whether they are in the same condition as upon the last king's death. Three of these counsellors, prepossessed with the notion that the above circumstance was a cheat, resolved to discover and abolish it. Accordingly, on the death of Lewis XIV. making use of their privilege, they went to St. Maximin's with surgeons and apothecaries from remote towns, suspecting those of the place. These they commanded to examine the piece of flesh even by cutting, and to employ the strongest menstruums to separate it from the bone. But all had no effect; the surgeons cried out, "A miracle!" And the three counsellors were seized with so great fear, that they immediately begged pardon of the prior and the religious, and by way of reparation, or *amende honorable*, drew up and subscribed a judicial attestation of what they had witnessed, and became the most zealous defenders of the truth of these relics; as two of these gentlemen, yet alive in Aix, still continue to declare themselves on all occasions."

"Near it is a church called the Holy Cross in Jerusalem, built by St. Helena after she

Digitized by Google

had discovered our Saviour's cross, and restored by Gregory III. and Cardinal Mendosa, when the title of the holy cross was found under the tribune of the holy altar, in a cavity in the wall. Constantine the Great bestowed on it great riches and costly ornaments, chalices, censers, &c. of pure gold, fully enumerated by Onuphrius: Four marble pillars support the tribune, and under the high altar lie the bodies of SS. Cæsarius and Anastasius, martyrs; and behind it, on the vault over the choir, is painted, in various pieces, the whole history of the *invention* of the holy cross, by Perugini: The paintings are very good and fresh, though old: It is forbidden to any woman to enter the subterraneous chapel, except on the day of the dedication of the church, the 20th of March. We are informed by an inscription, that under the pavement of this chapel is deposited earth brought by St. Helena from Jerusalem and Mount Calvary, and which lay under the cross, and was moistened with our Saviour's blood;—whence this church is called, in Jerusalem, as standing on earth brought from that city. At the altar of this chapel nobody can say mass but the pope, nor does he himself use that privilege oftener than once a year. In a tribune on the right hand, are shewn on Good Friday, the principal relics kept here; which are,—a vial of our Saviour's blood; the sponge by which vinegar was given him to drink; one of the brass nails with which he was crucified; three pieces of our Saviour's cross, with the title in three languages, which was put over his head, adorned with gold and jewels &c.; also some of the cross of the good thief."

We are inclined to suspect, that part of the account of Italy at least is translated from some French work, from the repeated mention of the emperor *Gallien*, and the ecclesiastical historian *Rufin*.

ART. XVI. *Journal of a short Excursion among the Swiss Landscapes, made in the Summer of the Year* 1794. 8vo. pp. 132.

THE first paragraph of this volume provoked from us an indignant exclamation at the affectation of the author's style, and the impertinence of publishing unconnected and unimportant memorandums.

"Left Lausanne on Tuesday morning the twentieth of May, before five o'clock, on a tour that I had often wished to take, merely to see the face of the country—The morning calm and fine; all the opposite side of the lake washed or thick-plated with sun-beams—The pea-green pastures of Savoy, its woods like the tufted moss, and its rocks above with their dishevelled snows all swelled out to view, seeming to have advanced nearer this shore than during winter—Pleasing state of mind from the recollection of the walks I had taken here, the tea-parties at the Champde-l'air, the dances, &c. at Lausanne the last season."

This same impertinent indolence characterises the whole journal, which has been printed, as it appears, without alteration or correction: but the author is evidently a man of quick observation and lively fancy. Such a work can only be judged from samples of its character; let us take his general description of the Valois:

"It does not interest so much by its harmony, proportion, or divine expression, as by the opposites of these; a confusion of all order: 'monstrum horrendum, informe, ingens, cui *lumen* ademptum est!' It rouses our attention by shocks; by being curious, grotesque, odd, seemingly contradictory to nature: and by these more palpable qualities it excites the wonder and surprise of children even; which we all are indeed at least half of our lives. Thus we are constantly remarking or expecting some uncommon height, length, or breadth; some rare appearance; something that terrifies, as of imminent destruction to itself, as well as to the beings on it; or traces of this in past times. And if upon occasion it presents the image of Paradise here and there, it is only to heighten by contrast the surrounding chaos.

"To form an exact idea of it, you must suppose any country whatever, disjointed and broken to pieces by an earthquake; then suddenly thrown together again in a heap—you must then fancy this heap to have become in process of time coated over with trees, mosses, and verdure of all sorts; while cabins, single or in clusters, have been crumbled over it—that the rivers after several falls have gained a more level channel, and passing in their course through several wide and deep chasms, have filled them up, composing thus so many extensive lakes; such is the country we have been going over these seven or eight days past, and are to expect for as many days to come; those rivers just mentioned serving as a clew to guide us, in a most wonderful manner, through this labyrinth of nature.

"In these regions the traveller sees (or thinks he sees) the utmost violence done to the component parts of landscape that can be imagined—Clouds sinking or groveling on the ground; while whole plains are slung up several hundred fathoms into the air—On the topmost pinnacle of these again, a lake weaves its ample web. Precipices cut abruptly down under market towns, with their massive churches upon them, which however stand unshaken, and fearing no harm. Pastures, with their herds and flocks upon them, hung up like a map; and rivers staggering along at a height, that we must call philosophy to explain how they could ascend

Google

there; often convulsed and half-strangled between two rocks—often at a cleft abandoning their brittle fluid to the void, through which it passes to the bottom, where it is shattered into a cloud of fragments.

"Sometimes he sees, the reverse to the poet's image of a downward sky, reflected from a pool of water, an upward earth, not fictitious like the other, but with real shrubs, if not trees, stooping down from it; or he hears a noise like artillery, or like subterraneous winds or waters, and a mass comes down along the valley, to which forests of fir are reeds only, and houses or villages but cobwebs.

"The works of nature in sport giving awkward and rude likenesses of the works of man: as when rocks take the semblance of castles with turreted towers, or of obelisks, winding-stairs, domes, corridors: or as when stuck round with pines that rise perpendicular like so many parallel columns, order above order, the whole forming a sylvan amphitheatre; above our road rivulets dropt straight down into the deepest valleys, fathoming them like a plummet line.

"Various soils crowded together, various climates suddenly succeeding each other—mixture of seasons; snows rising refreshed from the bosom of summer; and in the lap of bleakest ice aromatic herbs and glad strawberries brightning—and of a sudden the ground gives way, when a river in its full magnitude sinks down; nor is its course to be followed but by the ear long afterward; late rising of the sun, and early setting of it.

"Insulated spots of verdure enveloped by rocks; (so many sweet kernels within their shells) putting him in mind of Philip Quarl's fruitful islands, sequestered far in the solitudes of the ocean, and destined to remain for ever untouched by man."

The account of the baths at Loercherbaden was new to us.

"I saw numbers of men, women, and even children, that had come a journey of some days, and were here at a heavy expence, doing penance for their high living, and want of exercise. They must sit in hot water for three weeks; whoever first has red pimples breaking out upon them, and in the greatest number, is considered as having first found grace with the divinity here. (But what a worship this, for children to be initiated into!) By way of strengthening the constancy of these Gentoos, there are little floating tables contrived, on which they are presented (but not in the manner that Tantalus was) with fruit, wine, coffee, novels, and whatever meats they like best. The coming to these baths is at last considered absolutely as a party of pleasure. I own I could not but think this a strange refinement in epicurism, to be thus hugging its sin in the very act of chastising itself."

We have no volume that communicates so lively an idea of Swiss scenery as this hasty journal. The author is a blind admirer of Rousseau, and a very indifferent philosopher.

ART. XVII. *A Tour through several of the Midland and Western Departments of France, in the Months of June, July, August, and September*, 1802. *With Remarks on the Manners, Customs, and Agriculture of the Country. By the Rev.* W. HUGHES. *Illustrated by Engravings.* 8vo. pp. 238.

THE last war had occasioned so long an interruption of intercourse between France and England, that when the door of communication was opened between the two countries, many would pass through it on business, and more from curiosity. To visit France was to visit a new country: the manners and customs of the people, and the appearance of towns and villages, were so changed by the revolution, that every one was eager to amuse his friends; and many thought themselves qualified to amuse the public with an account of *modern* France. In consequence of this communicative disposition, the press has teemed with "Trips," and "Excursions," and "Parties of Pleasure" to Paris: Mr. Hughes makes his appearance under the graver and more comprehensive title of a tourist, and as he tells us that he passed four months in the country, if our expectations, therefore, were too highly raised, the fault was his own for letting us into the secret. By the preface, however, we are opportunely prepared for a descent, for the author says honestly, that his work "is neither more nor less than a series of memorandums and reflections penned sometimes upon the road, sometimes at the inns upon it, and that it commonly partakes of pain and pleasure, of admiration and disgust, and is tinctured with the lassitude and feeble exhaustion of the weary days on which it was written." We are moreover informed that it was intended for the fugitive pages of a magazine; and when it was afterwards determined to bring it before the public in a more grave and ceremonious manner, the author would have corrected his plan and rendered the construction of his sentences less faulty, had not the immediate return to the continent which he contemplated, rendered it utterly impracticable.

Digitized by Google

All that Mr. Hughes has noted down must have been the result of mere observation, for we suspect he is utterly ignorant of the French language, and of course one fertile source of information was dried up, namely, conversation with the inhabitants. Mr. Hughes is fond of introducing French words and phrases; and we may fairly suspect his utter ignorance of the language, when we find that he does not spell the commonest words correctly, and that different genders are jumbled together with whimsical confusion. Among a great many other instances of false spelling and false syntax, we remember, aubugiste for aubergiste, captaine for capitaine, bon bierre for bonne bierre, bon eau for bonne eau, &c. Nor is the English itself at all times so accurate as it doubtless would have been, had Mr. Hughes corrected it at his leisure.

Our tourist landed at Dieppe, which is represented as the sink of filthiness and the picture of misery. From Dieppe he proceeds to Rouen, where he staid a month, and of course had every opportunity of examining the city with attention. The only thing worth delaying us here is the description of a very singular floating bridge over the Seine. It consists of several barges of great burden, which are first arched over, and paved with large stones of granite, then towed into a right line and moored side by side, with massy chains to retain them in their places. It follows from this inconvenient construction, that if a vessel is bound up the river, or to sea, one of these barges at least must be displaced to give her a passage: this is the work of many hours, it seems, and consequently is performed but at stated intervals! There was formerly a bridge of stone across the Seine at this place, which was swept away by the floating ice, and repaired and destroyed again; these circumstances occasioned the adoption of the present cumbrous machinery: it is said that the annual expence of repairing these barges, would be fully adequate to defray at least one-third of the expence of replacing the erection which has been carried away. There are some noble buildings at Rouen; the churches of Notre Dame and of St. Owen are mentioned as particularly fine: the city itself is filthy, and the streets narrow. The markets are spacious and well supplied. From Rouen Mr. Hughes proceeds to Caen; thence to Sable and la Flêche, where he learned some interesting revolutionary anecdotes, which are detailed at very ample length to the reader. Angers is situated just below the confluence of the Sarte and the Mayenne: it is on the borders of la Vendee, and became the theatre of a most dreadful drama.

"For a considerable space of time, not less than 30,000 cartridges were daily distributed among the inhabitants, hemmed in on every side, and absolutely on the very brink of famine;—from the windows of their houses, from the ramparts on which from time to time they took their busy stations, they gazed on the fields which their own hands had sown, on the vineyards which they had pruned and cultivated, loaded with the richest abundance, and serving, like water to Tantalus, but to aggravate the pining misery which consumed them!

"One mournful morning being driven to desperation by their necessities, they rushed furiously out of their prison upon their besiegers—alas! a few of them returned again ere long leaving behind them the slaughtered remains of no less than 800 fathers of families, to say nothing of the youths and unmarried men who fell also in this day's horrible carnage!—the dreadful distress of the evening can only be conceived by those who have witnessed similar scenes! within, without—all was horror and consternation!—one mingled uproar of heart-rending cries and lamentations, and of triumphant shouts from which the shuddering soul of humanity recoils, filled the air;—unsated with blood in the field the victors pursued the flying multitudes to the gates, hewing them down with relentless cruelty, and deaf as adders to the cries and groans with which they begged for quarter—multitudes were of course cut off from retreat, and had nothing to do but seek for refuge in the fields, the vineyards, and the woods!"

"Look, (says Mons. La P—) across the Loire on which we are now standing! for twenty leagues square there is not a field in which human blood has not been shed!—Not a town, not a village, not a cabin, not a roof has been spared!—In one undistinguished desolation all is laid low!" Sincerely do we hope that the British government may not have been so deeply guilty as is here insinuated: but the testimony of one of our own county justices proves, that we were not guiltless of the mean, disgraceful, and nefarious forgery of French assignats. (See cases at *Nisi Prius*, by Isaac 'Espinasse, Esq. page 389, Strongitharm *versus* Lukyn.)

From Angers Mr. Hughes proceeds to Tours, thence to Orleans, and Paris.

Digitized by Google

It will be recollected, says he, that, at Orleans, the British name was tarnished with indelible disgrace by the infamous destruction of the female enthusiast, Joan of Arc, who, being taken prisoner, was burnt in the market-place, &c. Mr. H. is as unlucky in his history, as he is in his French: the maid of Orleans was executed in the market-place at Rouen. At Paris,

"The first business in the morning, after the traveller has somewhat surmounted the fatigues of his journey, is to find out Mons. Perageux, in order to change his paper into *aurum palpabile*. This gentleman is presently found out on the Boulevards, living in a palace, the view of which carries a sort of presentiment to the heart of the squeezing which awaits the purse. Papers being produced, and the accustomed preambles gone through, Mr. P.'s representative asks you in what you will be paid—paper, silver, or gold? Not being as yet up to the tricks of the trade, you incautiously reply "in Louis." Well, in about five minutes, my gentleman having gone to another office for the cash, returns. "The course of Exchange is so and so against you (about five per cent.); and, as for the louis, we purchase them for the accommodation of travellers; you have, therefore, to lose one per cent. more on this account." To crown the whole, having been feathered thus of six per cent. you withdraw with your precious pieces; but, no sooner do you present one of them for payment, than out comes the scales and weights; they are generally light, and you have the further satisfaction of losing from threepence to fourpence-halfpenny more upon most of them."

And does Mr. Hughes mean to bring forward, seriously and deliberately, such a charge of extortion against M. Perrégaux? We know that this gentleman is one of the first bankers in Paris, both as to reputation and to rank: his house is the resort of all those English who carry him letters of recommendation: he has acquired their confidence, and stands high in their estimation. His table is open to them; there they are received with hospitality and elegance, and enjoy the pleasures of his agreeable and sagacious conversation: where he can be of service, his attention to them is unremitted, and his influence at the offices which respect foreigners is always ready to be exerted in their favour. The manners of M. Perrégaux are polished, his mind is cultivated, and his judgment is matured: *we know* that he is respected in London, in Paris, and in several different departments of France, where he has connections. If Mr. Hughes asserts that he has himself been cheated by M. Perrégaux, we certainly are not prepared to contradict the fact, but we should be deficient in justice not to avow that we have several times exchanged the circular notes of Sir Robert Herries, for louis d'ors and six-livre pieces, at the bank of Mr. P.; that he never charged us one sous per cent. for the accommodation of louis; and that so far from his six and twelve livre pieces being *generally* deficient in weight, a single instance of such deficiency does not occur to our remembrance.

Mr. Hughes leaves the task of describing the public buildings, the libraries, the galleries, the museums, &c. to others; and confines himself to a description of the filthy manners of the inhabitants. He seems to have been particularly struck with the indelicacies of the Parisians, and has related them with such careful minuteness, as to give no very high idea of the refinement of his own taste. We have remarked that Mr. H.'s descriptions are generally extravagant; he labours to be very droll and humorous, and occasionally succeeds in raising a laugh: but it is not unfrequently at his own expence.

With some common-place remarks on the French hierarchy under the old regime, and a sort of comparison between the state of agriculture in France and England, evincing no extraordinary knowledge of the subject, this volume is brought to a conclusion. It is altogether a pert uninstructive performance: the style of it is very familiar and very vulgar.

ART. XVIII. *A Rough Sketch of Modern Paris; or Letters on Society, Public Curiosities and Amusements in that Capital, written during the last two Months of* 1801, *and the first five of* 1802. 8vo. pp. 319.

AFTER having accompanied Mr. Hughes in a barren, uninteresting tour, we feel quite revived at being introduced to the society of a gentleman whose taste is cultivated, whose mind is inquisitive, and who communicates the information he has acquired in an easy, graceful manner.

The first objects of curiosity to which a man of taste directs his steps, after his

Digitized by Google

arrival at Paris, are the Thuilleries and the Louvre: in the latter is deposited the finest collection of paintings and of statues in the world. Into this noble museum we are immediately introduced. No one who has not had the good fortune to see this gallery, can imagine how powerful is the impression, how sublime and delightful is the sensation produced on entering this saloon, thirteen hundred feet in length; and on the walls of which are suspended one thousand paintings, many of them of very large dimensions, the workmanship of Raphael, of Rubens, of Guido, of Titian, of the Carracci, of Leonardo da Vinci, of Corregio, of Albano, Domenichino; in that of all the first masters of the French, Flemish, German, and Italian schools. The perspective is most enchanting! The attention, however, is soon dissipated among the splendor and multiplicity of the paintings, and the difficulty of fixing it on a few select pieces is by no means inconsiderable. Our author seems to have felt this difficulty, notwithstanding the administration of the *musée* has so judiciously arranged the painters; particularly those of history, following the chronological order of their birth, that the pictures of each master are as much as possible collected together, and the comparison of school with school, of master with master, and of the same master with himself, is very much facilitated; he felt this difficulty, and has given us much too brief and general an account of the gallery. The Saint Jerome of Domenichino, with which he seems to have been so particularly struck, is, indeed, an extraordinary production; we perfectly recollect the countenance of the dying old man. Arrived at the age of ninety-nine years, and seeing his last hour approach, Saint Jerome caused himself to be carried into the church of Bethlehem, where he had been accustomed to celebrate the holy mysteries. There, placed at the foot of the altar, he summons all his strength, in order to receive, on his knees, the viaticum, but exhausted by fastings, age, and illness, it is unequal to the last effort. Vainly does he attempt to raise his arms, that he may clasp his trembling hands; the coldness of death has already seized his extremities, the relaxed muscles and the stiffened joints are no longer obedient; his arms are motionless, his knees bend, and sinking under the weight of his body, he again falls backwards. In this state of feebleness and agony, the little life which yet remains to him, seems altogether concentrated in his eyes, and on his lips, that eagerly implore the sacrament which the priest is preparing to administer. He, cloathed in the sacerdotal habit of the Greek church, advances towards the holy man, in order to communicate; with one hand he holds the host on the patine, and with the other he strikes his bosom, as he pronounces the sacramental service. Near him the deacon, standing, in the dalmatic vestment, bears the chalice, ready to present it when he shall have received the eucharist: and before him the subdeacon on his knees, holding in his hands the missal. The assistants participate in this pious ceremony: one supports behind the fainting old man; another, on his knees before, wipes away the tears which his situation has extorted. On his left hand Saint Paulina prostrates herself, in order to kiss his hands: all seem moved by the affecting scene.—The composition is completed by a group of angels hovering above in adoration.*

From the gallery of paintings we are conducted into the statue gallery. Our author thinks that the Apollo Belvidere is not now seen to the greatest advantage, the room not being either high or large enough, and too many statues being crowded together. We are of opinion also that the Apollo is not seen to the greatest advantage, but for a different reason: as the Apollo is not a colossal statue, the room seems to be quite lofty enough, and large enough for the purpose; nor is its effect by any means diminished by surrounding statues, over which it is elevated by a pedestal on a perron, two steps high, so that it produces a striking impression even from the hall of the Laocoön. The Apollo, indeed, is by no means crowded by other statues. The further end of the saloon, if our memory does not deceive us, is railed off from side to side; in front of the railing, and near to it, there are but four statues; by the left wall stands the *Mars Victor*, of Pentelican marble; to answer this, on the opposite side stands the *Hercules and Telephus*, or

* We have translated this description from the "Notice des Tableaux," &c. which is sold at the gallery: it is interesting in itself, and serves to shew the nature of that catalogue.

the *Hercules Commodus*, as it is usually called, a statue from the Belvidere: between these, and nearly on a line with them, are *two sphinxes*, of red oriental granite, from the Museum Pio-Clementinum. Between the sphinxes, and behind them, forming as it were the apex of a triangle, stands the Apollo, separated by two beautiful pillars of red oriental granite, from the *Venus of Arles* on one side, and the *Capitoline Venus*, a statue of most exquisite Parian marble, on the other. These pillars are answered by two others at the opposite extremity of the saloon, on either side of the entrance from the hall of the Laocoön. There are no other statues which at all interfere with the Apollo; for as to the *Indian Bacchus* on the right hand wall, and the small statues of *Juno* and *Melpomene* on the left, they are too distant to disturb the attention. The objection that we have to the position of this statue is, that it is impossible to examine it from one point: the front view of it is fine, but we can take no stand on either side or behind it. In the gardens of the Thuilleries one can walk round the statues, and examine them in every possible position. We do not mean to insinuate by this that the gardens of the Thuilleries would be a proper place for the Apollo, the Laocoön, or the Capitoline Venus; certainly not, on the contrary, it is quite melancholy to see the mutilation and other injuries which many fine statues have there received from exposure; but we do not approve of concealing half the workmanship of a statuary by placing the production of his chisel close against a wall.

It is time to quit the Louvre. The following account of the state of society in Paris is very curious.

"As to society, it appears to me, that there are three great divisions, or principal classes, at Paris. The first, in point of antiquity, and perhaps still of public opinion (for, notwithstanding all the laws to the contrary, family prejudices are as strong as ever in France), is that of *l'ancienne noblesse*, who separate themselves almost entirely from the other classes, and live together at the houses of such of their body, as are still rich enough to give assemblies. The second, which I shall call the governmental set, consists of the ministers, of the counsellors of state, of the ambassadors, of the senators, legislators, tribunes, &c. in short, of all the constituted authorities. The third class is what the pride of the first denominates '*les parvenus ou nouveaux riches*;' consisting of the wealthiest individuals now in France; of persons who, taking advantage of the circumstances which have occurred, have enriched themselves during the general wreck of private fortunes and public credit. Army contracts, national estates, and speculations in the funds, have afforded the means, by which many of these individuals have accumulated overgrown fortunes; but several respectable merchants, bankers, and other commercial men, are unjustly confounded with these, and, under the general name of '*fournisseurs*,'* held up to public contempt.

"The first class are still affluent, when spoken of as a body, though few of them have individually large incomes. A distinguished person, connected with the government, and to whom the most important acts of state have been specially entrusted, assures me, that the old proprietors still hold two thirds of the landed estates of France; though, in consequence of the heavy taxes† laid on them during the revolution, by the loss of their woods, of their feudal rights, and of public offices hereditary in their families, (not to mention the present law of descent, by which all children inherit equally), their incomes, though in different degrees, are, in every case, greatly diminished."

"The second class, which I call the governmental, is the most polite to strangers. The second consul has a splendid party every week; and each of the ministers has a day, to which all foreigners may be taken by their respective ministers, after they have been presented at the Thuilleries.

"Le Brun, the third consul, frequently gives dinners; and English parties, who have been invited, assure me, that they are particularly pleasant. He is a man of great literary acquirements, and the conversation at his table generally takes a superior turn.

"The ministerial assemblies are crowded; but the houses are large, the attendance good, and the uniforms of the constituted authorities, and the full dress of the ambassadors, give altogether a splendour to these meetings, which no others at Paris possess.

"The third class—I mean that of '*the parvenus*,'—if not the most elegant, or the most esteemed, is at least the most luxurious. Nothing can exceed the splendour of the persons of this description. The furniture of their houses, the dress of their wives, their

* "Contractors."

† Every landholder in France, in consequence of a law passed in one of the most violent moments of the revolution, and which is still continued, pays one fourth of his real revenue to the state; and as, in particular parts of the country, the rate has been unfairly made, it happens, in some cases, that even a half is paid instead of a fourth. The latter is the *minimum* of the present taxation.

Digitized by Google

table, their plate, their villas, in short, all the '*agrémens*' of life, are in the highest style of oriental magnificence.

"To give you some idea of their manner of living, I will describe to you the house of Madame ———, which I yesterday obtained the permission of seeing, in her absence.

"The house is situate in a street leading from the Boulevard, and is approached by a fine court, of considerable length. The back of the house looks on a very pretty garden, arranged *à l'angloise*. It was formerly the residence of a minister of state.

"The drawing room, and *salle à manger*, were not yet finished. The furniture prepared for them was rich. I did not think it particularly beautiful; but the bed room, and bathing cabinet, exceeded in luxury every thing which I ever beheld, or even ventured to imagine. The canopy of the bed was of the finest muslin, the covering of pink satin, the frame of beautiful mahogany, supported by figures in gold of antique shapes. The steps, which led to this delicious couch, were covered with red velvet, ornamented on each side with artificial flowers, highly scented. On one side stood on a pedestal a marble statue of Silence, with this inscription:

'*Tutatur somnos et amores conscia lecti.*'

On the other, a very lofty gold stand, for a taper or lamp. A fine mirror filled up one side of the bed, and was reflected by one at the top, and another at the opposite side of the room. The walls were covered with mahogany, relieved with gold borders, and now and then with glass. The whole in excellent taste. The bathing cabinet, which adjoined, was equally luxurious. The bath, when not in use, forms a sofa, covered with kerseymere edged with gold; and the whole of this cabinet is as pretty as the bed room. Beyond this room is the bed chamber of *monsieur*, plain, neat, and unaffected; and on the other side a little closet, covered with green silk, and opening on the garden, in which *madame* sits, when she amuses herself with drawing. To conclude, I find the 'loves,' which 'Silence guards,' and of which this paphian seat is the witness, are those of January and May; for the wife is twenty (the greatest beauty of Paris), and the husband something less than sixty."

In letter VI. we have an interesting account of the Abbé Sicard's institution in behalf of the deaf and dumb. Our author was present at an extraordinary meeting, and heard the abbé examine some pupils.

"There were forty or fifty children present," says he, "born deaf and dumb, who were, by the wonderful skill and unceasing care of the respectable abbé, restored to society, to happiness, and themselves. They were seated in different parts of the room, and conversed with each other by means of their fingers, which were in constant motion. They had every appearance of enjoying good health, spirits, and vivacity. There are all kinds of workshops, manufactories, and schools, in the house of the *sourd-muetes* and the establishment is entirely maintained at the expence of the government."

At a *thé*, or evening party, we have a good specimen of the pedantry of Parisian society; Shakespear is unanimously voted to be no poet, and Mr. Fox no orator. It happened soon after that our author was present at a sitting of the tribunat, in the Palais Royal, when a debate took place on presenting the *code civil*; the same subject which called forth the eloquence of Portalis, when he presented the measure to the *corps legislatif*. The subject was an important one, and five or six members had put down their names as intending to speak.

"Nothing," says our author, "could be duller than these speeches, every one of which was read from a written paper. A very ridiculous circumstance arose from this manner of speaking; as each of the discourses had been previously prepared, there was no reference to the arguments used in the debate, and the advocates and opposers of the measure equally disregarded and left unanswered the remarks of those who happened to precede them in the debate."

Admirable judges of oratory!

In this amusing volume we have very ample accounts of all the public establishments at Paris; the respective merits of the different theatres, operas, and performers; we have an account of the different libraries, cabinets, gardens, and museums, of every description; and the concluding letter gives a general view of Paris, principally taken as compared with London. The hospitals and asylums of the former metropolis, as well as of the latter, are numerous, well endowed, and well regulated; they have not been neglected during the united horrors of war and revolution; and our author was assured, by a respectable physician, (not a Frenchman), that even during the most barbarous moments of the sanguinary Robespierre, those useful establishments were not abandoned. We have already mentioned the Abbé Sicard's institution for the deaf and dumb; our author was present at a sitting of the establishment formed for the protection and instruction of the blind, which was scarcely less interesting.

"At the '*séance*,' or public meeting, which I attended this morning, I saw seve-

ral persons, men, women, and children, either born blind, or rendered so by illness, now able to read, to write, to count, to print, and to perform on different pieces of instrumental music. The mode by which they read is by feeling the letters, which are purposely raised on card; and they did so with such rapidity, that it was difficult in hearing them to discover their misfortune. What particularly struck me, was the ingenuity of a blind woman, who had taught her child to read, an infant about five years old, not afflicted with this calamity.

"There is a manufactory of steel carried on in the building, in which the blind turn the wheel; and they also make whips, writing cases, purses, and paper toys of all sorts, which are sold for their private emolument. There is likewise a press, or printing machine, in which the whole process is performed by the blind; and I am told, books published by them, are more than commonly correct. The women knit, sew, and perform other kinds of needlework; and all of them either sing, or perform on some instrument. They gave us a kind of concert, which, if not very good, proved, at least, that they understood the principles of music."

The apathy which prevails among the people of Paris, as to all public events, is scarcely credible; a splendid fête was given in honour of the preliminaries, and of the anniversary of the consular government; a dead calm prevailed among the spectators, they looked on, walked about, and seemed entertained with the shows that were exhibited, yet no cries of triumph, no shouts of joy, expressed the public satisfaction! Some time afterwards the sound of cannon announced the news of the signature of the definitive treaty; the façade of the Thuilleries, its garden, Les Invalides, and the hotel of the minister of marine, were all speedily illuminated.

"It grieves me to add," says our author, "that this important intelligence has produced no effect at Paris. It has scarcely been mentioned in society; and I have walked about the whole evening, admiring the taste with which the public buildings were lighted, and heartily joining in the satisfaction which occasioned them, without meeting one single group of French spectators."

The same indifference was apparent when *Te Deum* was sung at *Nôtre Dame*, in honour of the peace, and the re-establishment of religion. During the illumination there was no noise, and indeed no expression of joy; very few people were seen in the Thuilleries, though the weather was fine, and the day Sunday.

"The more I see of the French," says our author, "the more I am astonished and disgusted at the indifference which they have contracted; their dulness is the more disagreeable from its being unnatural, and I cannot help exclaiming with Voltaire,

Que je plains un Francois, quand il est sans gaieté;
Loin de son élément le pauvre homme est jetté."

Indeed the character of the French seems to have undergone a considerable change: in their private societies they display but little of that vivacity which formerly distinguished them; it is now the affectation to converse on literary subjects, and he that has the most volubility and assumes the most imperious tone of authority, has the best of the argument. From the account before us we gather that there is no restraint on conversation at Paris; persons in high office are spoken of with an asperity and freedom which even in this country would be considered as imprudent; indeed the government has much less jealousy of this sort than we are taught to imagine. Our author attended several of the courts of justice: causes seem to be as well conducted as they can be without a jury, which however is now introduced, it seems, in capital offences. An Italian was lately convicted of assassination; he underwent the punishment of the guillotine, being led to the scaffold in a red shirt, this disgrace being added to the sentence in cases of murder.

"I ought to mention," says our author, "in honour of the present criminal laws of France, that this is the first individual who has been condemned to death during the six months which I have passed at Paris."

Although we have devoted considerable space to this little volume, it contains so much authentic and interesting information, concerning the manners and amusements of the Parisians, as to be amply entitled to that attention which many bulkier volumes merit not. We shall, therefore, make no apology for extracting from the concluding letter some parts of the comparison which it contains between the state of Paris and of London. After having noticed several petty distresses which an Englishman is more particularly susceptible of, our author proceeds thus:

"I must be permitted, however, to observe, that there are reasons of a much more serious nature, which make the English less easy to please than other foreigners. We come from a country where all the arts are carried to a degree of perfection, at least equal to what is attained on the same objects in France, and where, in many things, the ingenuity of our manufacturers is unrivalled

In science and literature we have not been compelled to look from home; and while we now admire the many distinguished writers which France has produced, they are not our only models, and with Locke and Newton, Milton and Shakspeare, we cannot pay that unbounded homage to the genius and learning of our neighbours, which they are apt to demand. The freedom and excellence of our constitution accustoms us to a degree of unrestrained conversation seldom met with at Paris; and the general diffusion of wealth in London, has introduced, among all orders, a degree of comfort which is seldom found even in the proudest houses of the French capital.

"The beauty of our women, and the delicacy of their behaviour, render us less enthusiastic admirers of Parisian belles, and in the happiness of man, of which every one Parisian fashions, than the strangers of other countries.

"The perfection to which the stage has advanced in London, and the splendid manner in which our theatres are lighted, prevents our being greatly struck with the renowned *spectacles* of this place; and the taste, profusion, and magnificence, displayed in our private entertainments, oppose too powerful a constrast to the gayeties of Paris, to allow us to be much delighted with the latter. Our race of horses, and our manufacture of carriages, are both too perfect to render it possible for us to admire the wretched equipages which are here considered as the *acme* of elegance. It is equally impossible for us to praise the gardens of the *Thuilleries*, the Champs Elisées, or the *Bois de Boulogne*, as long as we remember Hyde Park, or Kensington Gardens. Nor can the lighting and paving of Paris excite the admiration of those who have been used to the comfortable *trottoir* and brilliant lamps of the streets of London.

"Having thus stated the reasons, good and bad, for the tameness with which Englishmen often speak of Paris, I shall endeavour to divest myself, as much as possible, of national prejudice, and to lay before you the advantages and disadvantages attendant on a residence in this city.

"In respect to literature, the arts and sciences, certainly every opportunity is offered which knowledge can afford, or which a zeal for letters can desire. In this respect I think Paris is superior to London. Besides the immense acquisitions which it has lately made, and the great and wonderful collections that are constantly open to the public, there are so many private institutions within the reach of men of moderate fortune, that this city would soon rival all the universities of Europe, did not the pleasures of the place hold out temptations dangerous to the morals of youth.

"Literary men also are more respected than in England; and, instead of abandoning society (which is too much the case with men of learning in our country), the industrious, but unprotected Frenchman, who engages in the career of letters, finds his way into the most brilliant circles of the capital. Even the haughtiest of the old nobility admit into their most intimate *coteries*, those who have attained any literary fame, however low their origin, or however mean their appearance. On this head I have given unqualified and unrivalled praise to Paris."

"As to society, that material ingredient which has a head or heart feels the vast importance, I conceive that foreigners arriving either in London or in Paris, without pressing recommendations or exalted rank, may be much embarrassed, and may in both places pass months and even years, without making one proper acquaintance. Yet it appears to me that there is this great and distinguishing difference between the manners of the two capitals, that a person properly introduced to a few families of fashion in London, will rapidly find his way into every society which he wishes to frequent; whereas, in Paris, however well individuals may be received in one or two of the most esteemed houses, that circumstance will not contribute to their introduction to any others; and if a stranger arrives with a certain number of recommendations, he may, after a six months residence, quit Paris without having increased the list of his acquaintance. I speak on this subject from experience. Besides a near relation of my own, two or three families long connected with mine, have still establishments here, and live in the best company of the place. By all these Mrs. —— and myself were well and hospitably received, but the persons whom we met at their houses, neither paid us visits, or in other respects showed us the most trifling civilities."

The relative advantages and disadvantages of a residence in London and in Paris are fully detailed; the comparison seems to be fair and unprejudiced; for this reason it is with great pride and pleasure that we see the palm of pre-eminence bestowed on our own metropolis.

ART. XIX. *A View of Modern France; and British Traveller's Guide from London to Paris, &c. By* DAVID MORRICE. 8vo. pp. 360.

AS the use of this little volume has been wholly destroyed by the war, we copy from it the only facts of general interest.

"At the battle of Marengo, all the kettle drummers of a division of cavalry were killed, except one about fourteen years of age. This boy, without orders, beat a

Digitized by Google

charge, and the cavalry advanced. Enquiry was immediately made who had given the order, but no satisfactory account could be had. The cavalry however charged with success, and after the battle, Bonaparte ordered the drummer before him, and asked him, how he had dared, without order, to beat the charge. The boy quickly replied, "General, I saw a fine opportunity for the division to advance, and no orders were given; I could not resist the temptation, and, did beat the charge."—"My noble boy," replied the consul, "you gave a lesson to your general, and I will reward you for it." He immediately made him chief drummer of his favourite regiment of chasseurs, commanded by young Beauharnois, his step son, and the boy always appears in a superb dress at the parade, with his drums and horse most beautifully adorned with silk and ribbons, gilt ornaments, &c.; and he never passes the first consul, in filing off, without a marked nod and a smile. He will no doubt soon be made an officer."

"It is said, that Mr. West exhibited, among his professional friends in Paris, a painting of the subject of "the pale rider on a white horse," mentioned in the Revelations, and is a most excellent likeness of the first consul. How far the application can be made in a serious point of view, is not for me to give an opinion upon; but much might certainly be said on the subject."

We leave Mr. Morrice, Archbishop Cambaceres, and Mr. Bicheno to determine whether the first consul be the man on the white horse, or Gog and Magog; at the same time hinting to their consideration, whether he may not possibly turn out to be the man in the moon.

The following anecdote is truly shocking:

"I asked a lady in Paris, who is under twenty years of age, and the mother of three children, what made her so indifferent to them, and unmoved by that adversity under which she was labouring; she replied, without hesitation, that she attributed it to the many scenes of horror she had witnessed in Paris, during the revolution, which had steeled her heart against the finer feelings, and rendered her proof against poverty, misery, and distress.—She added, that when a child, she was often promised, as a reward for good behaviour, to be permitted to go and see the victims of political fury guillotined, and has often witnessed the execution of seventy or eighty in the short space of an hour, the young and old scrambling for places, to see well, as if they had been at a play. She also observed, that to see two or three cart loads of dead and perfectly naked bodies, go by her window in the course of a morning, was very usual."

ART. XX. *Letters from France written by* J. KING, *in the Months of August, September, and October*, 1802. 8vo. pp. 168.

IF the declamations and interrogations of this author were all omitted, the "occurences" announced in the title page might have been comprised in one letter of the ordinary length. The words and the matter of the volume are in the same proportion that the husk of a cocoa nut would be to the kernel of a filbert.

Mr. King has communicated one very interesting fact; he was introduced to Santerre, and conversed with him upon the execution of Louis XVI. Santerre entered on the subject without hesitation; he said it was expected there would be a cry for mercy, and a tumult in consequence, and he had received orders to fire on those who should begin it; the scaffold accordingly was surrounded by aristocrats, many of whom were well known men; the Marseillois were preparing to answer them and support the sentence, and a contest would in all probability have ensued, as bloody as the carnage at the Thuilleries, or the massacre at the prisons. The thought occurred to Santerre to bid the drums strike up; the watch word could not be heard, nor the cry raised, and thus the whole danger was prevented, and the lives of thousands were preserved.

Santerre added that

"Though the duty of seeing the king's sentence executed, devolved on him, it was impossible he could rejoice at an event, that however necessary was distressing and lamentable; he deplored it as much as any man in France, and tried all he could to prevent it by repeated visits to the Temple, to instruct the king by what measures he might still save himself; he said several expedients were proposed to the king, but his rejection of them evinced that he had no confidence in the nation and would retort upon it if ever he possessed power. Once he thought the king would accede to his overtures, but he required some hours to ponder on them; he saw the queen in the interim and declined further treaty. In the last extremity he made another effort, he went once more to the king, and told him his life was in danger if he temporized any more, but if he would listen to his overtures the king would be saved and liberated, he would forfeit his existence if he failed; again the queen interposed, and Santerre was set at defiance. Soon after

his doom was fixed and negotiation was unavailable."

Mr. Fox refused to visit Santerre. When we consider how that great and excellent man has been calumniated, we do not wonder at his refusal, yet we wish he had shown more courage in this instance, and more caution at the Thuilleries. The master-key of the Bastile is in Santerre's possession, he has likewise several species of fetters from the "king's castle," of which one pair had been found on the wrists of a man recently dead, who had been starved to death, either by design, or by a still more atrocious neglect.

The following anecdotes deserve selection:—

"Nothing marks the inconsistency of the French temper, more than this fact: on a day when several victims were immolating to the fury of Roberspiere, a great concourse of people had assembled; on that very spot, at the foot of that very scaffold where they suffered, a mountebank had reared his motley chair, and was exhibiting his monkey antics; and while some were gazing at the strokes of the guillotine, others were laughing at the buffoon tricks of this unfeeling fool."

"What a soul had the wife of the Marechall de Monchy; her husband being taken to the Luxembourg, she was there as quick as him; she was told that the act of arrestation did not mention her; "if my husband is arrested I too am arrested;" he was carried to the revolutionary tribunal, and she accompanies him; the public accuser tells her she was not sent for: "if my husband is sent for I shall be with him;" he is condemned to death; he is placed in the murderous car; the executioner tells her she is not condemned: "if my husband, wretch, is condemned, I too am condemned." I come to the sequel; must I so often depreciate the revolution? these occurrences make us shudder, and induce us to believe that there are as many evils under a democracy, as under any other government. This unparalleled woman suffered with her husband; she had committed no crime: she was testifying a conjugal love and heroism beyond example, and yet she was beheaded; the executioner, the judge, and every monster accessary to her death, was guilty of a most atrocious murder."

"There was a trial in England respecting some forged assignats; the person who forged them, confessed it in open court, and said it was done with the approbation of the secretary of state; perhaps this was a falsehood, but it is on record, and no one from government has condescended to deny it. Lord Kenyon, the moral, simple, blunt, independent chief judge of that day, in summing up, told the jury, that in war there were certain laws by which nations were bound, such as not using poisoned arms, quarters in war, &c. &c.; but forging assignats did not seem an offence against the faith of nations, &c. &c. About that time a projector presented himself to Roberspiere, and shewed some curious plates for forging English bank-notes; Roberspiere rewarded his ingenuity with a commitment to the Conciergerie."

Bonaparte, it seems, wishes to efface all recollection of the fate of the royal family; no one is permitted to see the dungeons of the Conciergerie where they were confined: a cowardly and vain precaution, as if the people could be made to forget their own power! Mr. King was in Paris on the day when the usurper was chosen consul for life; he heard some murmurs, and though, according to the continental custom, a fine was imposed on those who did not illuminate, he saw many a dark and gloomy window. Massena and Moreau, he says, have a distinct circle and no intercourse with any one out of it: if another change was to happen, it is from their integrity and moderation that the republic would expect to be freed from military servitude. They had a violent altercation with the first consul, and said to him, Sir, be more modest! you have not much to presume upon: if each of us takes back the laurel of which you have robbed us, your brows will be naked! This is a suspicious anecdote, and Mr. King discovers a strange want of discrimination or of knowledge when he classes Moreau and Massena together for their integrity and moderation. In military talent they are perhaps equal, and each has rendered more essential service to France than ever the Corsican performed: the campaign in Switzerland saved the republic, and it was in Germany that the emperor was finally disabled. But as Massena has the genius of an Italian adventurer, so also has he all the unprincipled rapacity of the character. There were but two generals in the French army in Italy who left behind them a fair name, Joubert, and Baraguay D'Hilliers: it is an act of justice to mention them; their bills were regularly paid, and they were remembered with gratitude when Massena and Bonaparte were execrated.

Where Mr. King repeats what he has heard and relates what he has seen, in common courtesy we are disposed, and

in common justice bound, to believe that his relation is faithful. But his remarks are usually common-place and shallow, and in many instances so utterly without foundation that it is evident he can have taken little pains to examine, and little time to reflect. Every man, he says, travels safely in France, "either that the police is better regulated than in England, or there are national distinctions, and the French are not so dishonest as we are. Is it that our distresses are greater? Does liberty lead to licence? Is our education conducive to it? What makes this difference? All Paris is a crowd, yet a pick-pocket is a phenomenon; burglaries are seldom committed, and we scarcely ever heard of a highwayman." P. 7. Yet at this very time it was not safe to travel in the provinces without an armed escort.

Again, we are told, "there is not yet that ostentation and luxury of the nobility which formerly insulted the misery of the people; there is no vain display of opulence." Could Mr. King be ignorant of the ostentation of opulence in the generals? of their unmanly luxury? of their Asiatic splendour as well as Asiatic vices?

ART. XXI. *The Stranger in France; or, a Tour from Devonshire to Paris; illustrated by Engravings in aqua tinta of Sketches, taken on the spot. By* JOHN CARR, *Esq.* 4to. pp. 261.

THIS is an amusing narrative; but during the short breathing time of peace, we had so many trips and tours in France, that if there were not a good deal of sameness in the accounts which have been published of them, we should be justified in suspecting the accuracy of the observer, or the fidelity of his description. Mr. Carr sailed from Southampton to Havre in a packet, which had on board a great number of emigrants, who, in consequence of the decree which had recently passed in their favour, were returning to their beloved *natale solum*. As the insolence and indelicacy of custom-house officers are proverbial, it is but justice to those who searched the baggage of these anxious exiles to record, that they "exercised a liberal gentleness, which gave but little trouble and no pain. They who brought nothing into a country but the recollection of their miseries," is the remark of Mr. Carr, "were not very likely to carry much out of it but the remembrance of its generosity." They were also received on their own shores without any violence or insult.

Mr. Carr makes the same observation concerning the celebrated bridge of boats at Rouen, which we noticed in our review of Mr. Hughes's Tour (see p. 81), that it is clumsy, heavy, inconvenient, and expensive: its repairs are estimated at about four hundred pounds a year. A handsome light stone structure; with a centre arch covered with a drawbridge for the passage of vessels of considerable burden, or a lofty flying iron bridge, would be less expensive, and Mr. Carr thinks, more safe and ornamental.

The French revolution afforded numberless examples of heroism and humanity in the female sex: the horrors of a dungeon before their eyes, and the fatal snap of the guillotine ever startling upon their ear were insufficient to subdue the courage which was inspired by affection. At Rouen, Mr. Carr dined at the table of Madame G——, and sat next an elderly abbé who seemed to be much esteemed by every person present.

"During the time of terrour (as the French emphatically call the gloomy reign of Robespierre) the blood of this good man, who, from his wealth, piety, and munificence, possessed considerable influence in Rouen, was sought after with keen pursuit. Madame G—— was the saviour of his life, by concealing him, previous to her own imprisonment, for two years, in different cellars, under her house, which she rendered as warm and as comfortable as circumstances, and the nature of the concealment would allow. In one of these cells of humane secrecy, this worthy man has often eaten his solitary and agitated meal, whilst the soldiers of the tyrant, who were quartered upon his protectress, were carousing in the kitchen immediately above him."

Such instances as these are sunbeams in the storm, which cast a partial splendour and give hopes of a returning calm.

In the provinces, all criminal offences are tried before a tribunal composed of civil and military judges. Mr. Carr attended the trial of a notorious offender, and speaks highly of the arrangements of the court: it is one of the peculiar characteristics of these courts, that conviction is immediately followed by punishment. The trial of this unhappy

offender, whose fate was anticipated, had been postponed five months for the purpose of affording him an indulgent procrastination. At ten minutes after one, he was sentenced to lose his head at four o'clock in the afternoon! Mr. Carr summoned resolution to witness the execution: which we are sorry to learn appears to have passed almost unnoticed by the market-women, and who seemed only intent on the sale of their apples. In describing the dispatch with which the guillotine performs its office, Mr. Carr alludes to the fate of governor Wall, and concludes his chapter by relating an anecdote of the terror and infatuation of guilt, displayed in the conduct of this wretched man, in the *presence* of a friend of his, from whom he received it.

"A few years before governor Wall suffered, fatigued with life, and pursued by poverty, and the frightful remembrance of his offences, then almost forgotten by the world, he left the south of France for Calais, with an intention of passing over to England, to offer himself up to its laws, not without the cherished hope that a lapse of twenty years had swept away all evidence of his guilt.

"At the time of his arrival at this port town, the hotel in which Madame H—— was waiting for a packet to Dover was very crowded—the landlord requested of her, that she would be pleased to permit two gentlemen, who were going to England, to take some refreshment in her room; these persons proved to be the unfortunate Brooks, a king's messenger, charged with important dispatches to his court, and governor W——. The latter was dressed like a decayed gentleman, and bore about him all the indications of his extreme condition. They had not been seated at the table long, before the latter informed the former, with evident marks of perturbation, that his name was W——, that having been charged in England with offences, which, if true, subjected him to heavy punishment, he was anxious to place himself at the disposal of its laws, and requested of him, as he was an English messenger, that he would consider him as his prisoner, and take charge of him.

"The messenger, who was much surprised by the application, told him, that he could not upon such a representation take him into custody, unless he had an order from the duke of Portland's office to that effect, and that in order to obtain it, it would be proper for him to write his name, that it might be compared with his hand-writing in the office of the secretary at war, which he offered to carry over with him. Governor W—— still pressed him to take him into custody, the messenger more strongly declined it, by informing him that he was the bearer of dispatches of great importance to his court, that he must immediately cross the channel, and should hazard a passage, although the weather looked lowering, in an open boat, as no packets had arrived, and that consequently it was altogether impossible to take him over, but again requested him to write his name, for the purpose already mentioned; the governor consented, pens and paper were brought, but the hand of the murderer shook so dreadfully, that he could not write it, and in an agony of mind, bordering upon frenzy, he rushed out of the room, and immediately left the town.

"The messenger entered the boat, and set sail; a storm quickly followed, the boat sunk in sight of the pier, and all on board but one of the watermen, perished!!!

"The great disposer of human destiny, in vindication of his eternal justice, rescued the life of this infatuated delinquent from the waves, and from a sudden death, to resign him to the public and merited doom of the laws."

In the course of the last war, we heard it frequently asserted, that no peace with the republic would be permanent, because it must be fatal to the consular interests: the return of the French armies would be attended with new insurrections; it would be impossible that so many soldiers should settle quietly to domestic labours, they would be clamorous for pay, and the increased consumption of provisions would create scarcity and confusion. Too true, indeed, it is, that the last peace was not permanent; but in order to correct so false an idea as this we have now noticed, it is worth mentioning that Mr. Carr, in the course of his walks and conversations with the workmen whom he met, found that most of the masons and gardeners of Rouen had fought in the memorable battle of Marengo, at which it appears that a great part of the military of France, within four or five hundred miles of the capital, were present. The change, he says, was worthy of observation: we saw men sun-browned in campaigns, and enured to all the ferocity of war, assuming at the sound of peace all the tranquil habits of ingenious industry, or rustic simplicity.

It may give some idea of the confidence of the present government of France in its own strength, that at the windows of the principal print-shops of Paris, Mr. Carr saw exposed to sale prints representing the late king in his full robes of state, under which was

written *Le Restaurateur de la Liberté*, and the parting interview between that unhappy sovereign and his queen and family in the Temple, upon the morning of his execution. It is very probable, as Mr. Carr conjectures, that the motto is intended as an equivoque, but at any rate the permission of a representation, which must excite so many monarchical prejudices, indicates great confidence on the part of government. Mr. Carr heard "Rule Britannia" played on a hand-organ in Paris: we heard the duke of York's march in the same metropolis about two years ago, and in one of the southern provinces our patriotism was excited by "God save the King" on a hand-organ.

Mr. Carr seems to have been exceedingly fortunate in his introductions, and though a *stranger in France* had every reason to feel himself perfectly at home. He goes to every public place of amusement, and of course sees all the museums, libraries, galleries, national buildings, &c. &c. which he describes agreeably, though sometimes in rather too high-flown language. His book is full of anecdotes, and if some of them bear no very striking internal evidence of truth, there are many interesting ones to which no suspicion can attach. The following is too honourable to the parties to be passed over, and adds another to the thousand instances of female fortitude and affection, which were displayed during the revolution. Mr. Carr had letters of introduction to Monsieur O——; he was at his country house about nine miles from Paris, an invalid. Heavy losses, a painful separation from his native country for the preservation of his own life and the lives of his family, had undermined his health and made sad inroads upon a delicate constitution. It was in the afternoon of one of the finest days in June that Mr. Carr accompanied the lady of this gentleman in her carriage to the chateau. After an elegant supper, when Madame O—— and her daughter had withdrawn, Monsieur O—— entered into a very interesting account of his country, of the revolution, and of his flight.

"He spoke of his lady with all the tender eulogium of a young lover. Their union was entirely from attachment, and had been resisted on the part of Madame O——, when he first addressed her, only because her fortune was humble, compared with his. He informed me, and I must not suppress the story, that in the time of blood, this amiable woman, who is remarkable for the delicacy of her mind, and for the beauty and majesty of her person, displayed a degree of coolness and courage, which, in the field of battle, would have covered the hero with laurels. One evening, a short period before the family left France, a party of those murderers, who were sent for by Robespierre, from the frontiers which divide France from Italy, and who were by that archfiend employed in all the butcheries, and massacres of Paris, entered the peaceful village of la Reine, in search of Monsieur O——. His lady saw them advancing, and anticipating their errand, had just time to give her husband intelligence of their approach, who left his chateau by a back door, and secreted himself in the house of a neighbour. Madame O——, with perfect composure, went out to meet them, and received them in the most gracious manner. They sternly demanded Monsieur O——; she informed them that he had left the country, and after engaging them in conversation, she conducted them into her drawing room, and regaled them with her best wines, and made her servants attend upon them with unusual deference and ceremony. Their appearance was altogether horrible; they wore leather aprons, which were sprinkled all over with blood, they had large horse pistols in their belts, and a dirk and sabre by their sides. Their looks were full of ferocity, and they spoke a harsh dissonant patois language. Over their cups they talked about the bloody business of that day's occupation, in the course of which they drew out their dirks, and wiped from their handles, clots of blood and hair. Madame O—— sat with them, undismayed by their frightful deportment. After drinking several bottles of Champaign and Burgundy, these savages began to grow good humoured, and seemed to be completely fascinated by the amiable and unembarrassed, and hospitable behaviour of their fair landlady. After carousing till midnight, they pressed her to retire, observing that they had been received so handsomely that they were convinced Monsieur O—— had been misrepresented, and was no enemy to the good cause; they added that they found the wines excellent, and after drinking two or three bottles more, they would leave the house, without causing her any reason to regret their admission.

"Madame O——, with all the appearance of perfect tranquillity and confidence in their promises, wished her unwelcome visitors a good night, and after visiting her children in their rooms, she threw herself upon her bed, with a loaded pistol in each hand, and overwhelmed with suppressed agony and agitation, she soundly slept till she was called by her servants, two hours after these wretches had left the house."

Mr. Carr's is certainly altogether a very amusing book; the attentions

Digitized by Google

which he received may excuse him for having drawn a more flattering portrait of the people of France, than is usually pencilled by Englishmen who have not been so fortunate as to the society into which they were thrown. The volume is ornamented with a variety of views taken by Mr. Carr on the spot: they do credit to his taste, and doubtless to his accuracy.

ART. XXII. *Paris as it was and as it is; or a Sketch of the French Capital; illustrative of the Effects of the Revolution, with repect to Sciences, Literature, Arts, Religion, Education, Manners, and Amusements; comprising also a correct Account of the most remarkable National Establishments and Public Buildings. In a Series of Letters, written by an* ENGLISH TRAVELLER *during the Years* 1801-2, *to a Friend in London.* 8vo. 2 vols. pp. 1040.

THIS will be a very useful as well as entertaining companion to the Englishman at Paris, should a speedy peace allow him to visit the capital. The author has given a more ample and minute account of the various places of amusement, public buildings, galleries, scientific and learned institutions, &c. than any of the numerous travellers whose descriptions have come before us. His account is interspersed with a variety of historical anecdotes, illustrative of the French character and manners, and his attention is very properly employed in estimating the utility and intrinsic importance of those military, naval, and civil institutions which have been so multiplied since the era of the revolution. We ape the French in their fashions and their fooleries; it would be more becoming if, impressed with the just sense of the advantages they are likely to derive from their various schools for public services, we were to rival them in similar establishments. The author of these pages is desirous of calling the attention of the British government to this subject, and by way of stimulating the ambition of British genius, he assures us that the arts and sciences in France are now making a rapid and simultaneous progress; first, says he, because the revolution has made them popular in that country; and secondly, because they are connected by new ties which in a great measure render them inseparable. Facts are then recurred to, less with a view to draw from them immediate applications, than to develope the truths resulting from them. "With them, method is an induction incessantly verified by experiment; whence it gives to human intelligence, not wings which lead it astray, but reins which guide it."

In a letter on the state of French literature, we find some ingenious remarks and shrewd distinctions. Under the constituent assembly the literary genius of the French was turned towards politics and eloquence; under the legislative assembly, literature was constantly cultivated under several forms, although the literati themselves became victims of the political convulsions of their country. The national institute was established under the directorial government. It was at one time insinuated in many periodical publications of this country, that literature had been totally annihilated in France during the course of the revolution. This is a mistake; and our author seems justified in stating that "its aberrations have been taken for eclipses;" it has followed the revolution, says he, through all its phases. The *literati*, he observes, are now considered as men of secondary importance, the *savans* taking the lead; to these latter, who have revived the drooping arts and sciences, France is under the greatest obligations. The utility of the objects to which genius and labour are devoted, give them a fair title to preference; the consequence has been, that while the French government has flattered men of letters, its solid distinctions and honours are reserved to men of science. Science and literature, however, must ever go hand in hand; and we are not at all surprised at the result of our author's observation, namely, on the one hand, that few men of science are unacquainted with the literature of their country; and on the other, that very few literati are unacquainted with philosophy and the sciences, and above all with natural knowledge. The general inference then is, that "French literature has not received any apparent injury from the revolutionary storm: it has only changed its direction and means: it has still remaining talents which have served their time, talents in their maturity, and talents in a state of probation, and of much promise."

Digitized by Google

ART. XXIII. *The Praise of Paris: or a Sketch of the French Capital; in Extracts of Letters from France in the Summer of* 1802; *with an Index of many of the Convents, Churches, and Palaces, not in the French Catalogues, which have furnished Pictures for the Louvre Gallery. By* S. W. F. R. S. F. A. S. 8vo. pp. 186.

"THE Praise of Paris"! Surely this is not the language of impartiality; but all things must be estimated by comparison, and in order to justify his eulogy, Mr. Weston could not do better than compare Paris with itself. "In the year 1792," says he, "I ran from Paris with fear and trembling, because she was possessed, like a demoniac, with a spirit of carnage, and reeked in the blood of August and September. During the interim between 1792 and 1802, when I revisited her again, she had continued in a state of siege for ten years, beset with troubles from without and violent agitations from within, and perpetual spoil. But all things have an end; and now on my return to the same place, before so full of confusion and disorder, I find it swept and garnished, restored to its senses, and in its right mind: this extraordinary change calls aloud for commendation, and is a sufficient apology for my title *The Praise of Paris.*"

We could have wished Mr. Weston to have "extracted" more fully from his letters; not that there is any dearth of information on the ordinary topics of enquiry, what is the colour of the consular livery? how many theatres are there? who dances best, Vestris or Didelot? Our tourists have not neglected to give an ample list of libraries and museums, but Mr. Weston has probably examined them with an antiquarian eye, and could easily have enlarged his too scanty list of curiosities; without much expence of labour to himself he could have set before us a much more ample and diversified repast; he has given us a *bonne bouche*, but it is rather calculated to excite than satisfy the appetite.

In the medal room of the national library is a gold dish found at Rennes in 1774, of the year 960 of Rome, and 208 of Christ; it was found in repairing a house belonging to the chapter, six feet two inches below the surface, with a clasp, a chain four feet one inch in length, four coins of Posthumus encircled with a fillagree, and furnished with a ring to hang them about the neck, and ninety-three imperials, of which thirty-four the flower of the die, are placed in the series of the emperors.—The whole weighed together seventy ounces. Round the dish are sixteen imperial heads, let into the border with wreaths of parsley leaves or laurel encircling each. The coins begin at Hadrian, and end at Julia Domna. This border surrounds two bass reliefs, one of which, the largest, forms the centre piece: the rapid description which Mr. Weston gives of this "inestimable treasure of antiquity," makes us anxious to see the promised plate and dissertation of Citizen Millin. Has it yet made its appearance?

We transcribe the following letter, as it affords a specimen of Mr. Weston's critical acumen:—

"A sepulchral urn, with a Greek inscription on it, has been found at Marseilles, in a part of the ancient Abbey of Saint Victor, which was demolished in the revolution, in order to erect on its scite a soap manufactory. About eight feet below the cellars many urns were found, one in particular, with a Greek inscription upon it, which has been published by Monsieur Fauris Saint Vincent, in Citizen Millin's Magazin Encyclopedique, for the year V. of the French Republick; having been first revised by the very learned D'Ansse de Villoison, who has corrected it all through, except in the last line: he is of opinion that it is of an age later than Augustus, from the form of the letters, or, perhaps he might say, than Severus. The monument was in an horizontal position when found, though originally intended to be set upright. It is made of a common, though very hard stone; its length is five feet; and its breadth nineteen inches below, and seventeen above the inscription, which is engraved long ways on the stone. Fauris St. Vincent is of opinion, that this monument served first for the person in the inscription; and in process of time was used for some other person; and had had its position changed from upright to horizontal. The urn is without a cover, though it appears that it once had one, and, perhaps, a small statue on it in its erect state; some few bones were found in it. The inscription is thus engraved on the monument:

ΓΛΑΥΚΙΑ ΕΣΤΙ ΤΑΦΟ
ΠΑΙΣ ΔΑΝΕΘΗΚΕ ΝΕΟΣ
ΔΕΙΖΑΣ ΕΚ ΜΕΙΚΡΟΥ ΠΡΟΣΠΑ
ΤΕΡ ΕΥΣΕΒΙΗΝ ΟΥΚ ΕΦΘΗΣ
Ω ΤΑΛΗΜΟΝ ΙΔΕΙΝ ΓΟΝΟΝ ΟΙΟΣ
ΑΝ ΗΝ ΣΟΙ ΓΗΡΑΙΩ ΤΕΥΧΕΙΝ
ΟΥ ΤΑΦΟΝ ΑΛΛΑ ΒΙΟΝ Η ΦΘ
ΝΕΡΑ ΔΥΜΑΣ ΠΑΝΤ ΑΔΙΚΟΥ
ΣΑ ΤΥΧΗ ΜΗΤΡΙ ΜΕΝ ΕΝ ΕΝ
ΓΗΡΑ ΔΑΚΡΥ ΘΗΚΑΤΟ ΤΗΔΕ
ΓΥΝΑΙΚΙ ΧΗΡΙΑΝ ΔΥΣΤΗΝΟΥ
ΠΑΙΔΟΣ ΑΜ ΟΡΦΑΝΙΗ

"This is the form of the inscription, as published by the French; and it consists of two hexameters and five pentameters. Monsieur Villoison has filled up the lacunæ, and corrected the slips of the graver; and presented it in the following form:

Γλαυκία ἐστὶ τάφος, παῖς δ' ἀνέθηκε νέος·
Δείξας ἐκ μικροῦ πρὸς πάτερ' εὐσεβίην.
Οὐκ ἔφθης, ὦ τλῆμον ἰδεῖν γόνον οἷος ἄν ἦν σοὶ
Γηραιῷ τεύχειν οὐ τάφον, ἀλλὰ βίον·
Ἡ φθονερὰ δ' ὑμᾶς πάντ' ἀδικοῦσα τύχη·
Μητρὶ μὲν ἐν γήρᾳ δάκρυ θήκατο, τῇδε γυναικὶ
Χηρίαν δυστήνου παιδὸς ἅμ' ὀρφανίῃ·

"In English:

"This is the tomb of Glaucias, that a youth has consecrated to his father, as a testimony of his filial affection, of which he has given proofs from his infancy. It was not thy lot, O wretched Glaucias! to live long enough to see what thy son was able to do for thee; not in providing thee with a monument, but in procuring thee means of living in thy old age. To thee, and thine, Fortune has been uniformly unjust; to thy aged mother she has given tears; to thy wife widowhood, with a wretched orphan-son!

"In order to correct the measure of the seventh verse, Monsieur Villoison writes Χήρᾳ, which by no means expresses the sense required of widowhood, as he seems ready to confess. What is then to be done? Χηρίαν may be Ionice for Χηρίαιν, as, it is well known, προμηθίη and συμπαθίη are for προμήθεια and συμπάθεια, in Herodotus and Aretœus, and ἰνσεβίη in the inscription itself; and then it may also be short, like the adjectives in ων: quorum penultima corripitur Ionicè, et Doricè, of which Dr. Burney has collected all the instances in his review of Mr. Professor Porson and Wakefield, τοῦ μακαρίτου; but the next word is unmanageable as it stands, and must be corrected; I read, instead of ΔΥΣΤΗΝΟΥ ΑΣΤΗΝΟΥ which means the same thing, and the sense is preserved, and the metre restored. Ἀσηνόν in Hesychius is explained δύσηνον· χαλεπόν. See also the Etymologicon magnum, where ἄσηνος is a poor wretch who has no place to set his foot. This agrees very well with an orphan. It is not improbable that Δ should be engraved for A, since μικρὸν has been written for μικρὸν, θηχαῖο for θήκαῖο, and δείζας for δείξας; and it is highly so, that the author should have thought χηρίαν could be made a dissyllable. The correction here proposed is effected by leaving out one letter; in the sixth line there are two too many, EN."

Prefixed to this little volume is an image of Isis, with the following account of its preservation:

"Paris is derived from Par Isis, because it was built near the famous temple of that goddess, not far from the scite of the abbey of Saint Germain des Prés. At the establishment of christianity the temple was destroyed, but the idol remained till the beginning of the sixth century, when it was thrown as a trophy into a corner of the church of Saint Germain des Prés, founded by Childebert with the title of The Holy Cross, and Saint Vincent. This same trophy existed in the time of Cardinal Briçconnet, Abbé of Saint Germain, in the latter end of the fifteenth century, who ordered it to be broke to pieces, which order was probably never executed, as the image of Isis nursing Orus is now at the Petits Augustins, and was brought thither, with other monuments, out of a French church. Λευκετία, now called Lutetia, is derived from Λευκότης, whiteness, from the white plaister quarry on which Paris is built. From Λευκότης came Lucotesia, and, finally, Lutetia, the second syllable having been dropped for shortness, as in regatta for remigatta, and Saint Meric for Saint Mederic."

Mr. Weston is not inattentive to the state of manners and amusements among the Parisians, and the reason we have said nothing about his account of them is, that we have found something else to interest us: we find the description, too, more ample in many other volumes, where there is little else to delay us.

ART. XXIV. *Letters of a Mameluke: or a moral and critical Picture of the Manners of Paris. With Notes by the Translator. From the French of* JOSEPH LAVALLEE, *of the Philotechnic Society, &c.* 2 Vols. 12mo. pp. 576.

THESE letters are written in the manner of Miss Hamilton's letters of a Hindoo Rajah, but the character of the Mameluke is not so well supported as that of the Rajah: nothing can exceed the absurdity of putting such remarks and reflections as are interspersed through these pages, into the mouth of a Mameluke. The author seems aware of this, and yet suffers the absurdity to remain rather than take the trouble of correcting it. For a Mameluke to criticise the works and opinions of the old French philosophers; to send to his friend Giafar, a native and inhabitant of Egypt, remarks on the dramatic merits of Racine, Corneille, &c.; to give him an historical account of the factions which have reign-

ed in France for two or three centuries; and to talk as familiarly about the heroes of Greece and Rome as he would of his own Beys and Pachas; what can be half so absurd?

But if the picture of French manners is a good one, it signifies little whether the artist is a Mameluke or a Frenchman: the worst of it is, that when a man sits down to draw his own portrait, he may take a likeness, but it will most probably be a flattering one. That is a good deal the case here: the French are allowed to have a great many foibles and fopperies, but the more our Mameluke becomes acquainted with them, the more impressed he is with the goodness of their hearts, the variety and transcendency of their virtues. Let us speak of these, says he in one of his early letters: the French have one that is not sufficiently remarked, nor is it esteemed according to its value; it is that in general they never do mischief with reflection. To understand me, observe that it seldom happens that the man inclined to do mischief with a premeditated intention, repairs it. The French are not wicked; they are only mischievous.

Philosophers have long and idly puzzled themselves about the causes of the French revolution: some attribute that event to the derangement of the finances, others to the oppression of an insolent nobility; some to the disorganization of the military, others to the introduction of commerce; some seek it in an individual cause, others in the co-operation of many. What philosophers, moralists, and politicians, however, have sought for without satisfaction or success, is at last discovered by an emigrant from the banks of the Nile! "In this country," says he to his friend Giafar, "the native inhabitants were called *Gauls*: their origin is of the most remote antiquity. Who knows it? no one. It is fifteen centuries since a conquering people came and incorporated themselves with them: they called themselves *Francs*. They possessed the same bravery, but not the same manners. It is imagined that they have been mixed, that every shade of distinction has disappeared. This is not the case: like two rivers, they have flowed in the same bed without mixing. During twelve years which they have just employed in their modern revolution, a thousand events appear to them an enigma. They are blind: let them look, the solution is there: the *Francs* always rough, always untamed, always licentious: the *Gauls* always frivolous, always inconstant, always superstitious; and *both always terrible in war*. There lies the whole mystery."

"For fifteen hundred years, two nations very distinct, inhabit the territory of France; a nation of victors, and a nation of vanquished; there is the grand cause; a complete mixture has never been effected: the present epoch is the first moment when it is beginning to take place." Our Mameluke traces the relative situation of these two nations, through the several dynasties of France; the Gauls have always continued to be the *people*, and the Franks their masters. "From the time of Clovis to the end of the eighteenth century, what was constantly the favourite expression of the monarchs, of the great, of the nobles, &c.? *Our brave ancestors the Francs*; and what is very worthy of remark is, that never, no never, was it employed by the people." Our Mameluke admits, indeed, that for some centuries this species of formula was used more from habit than from sentiment; and like a true systematist, exclaims, "but what signifies that? it is the true vestige: *our ancestors the Francs!*" So that the first grand cause of the revolution was a determination on the part of the aboriginal Gauls, the people, to drive away from their territory the lineal descendants, pure and uncontaminated no doubt, of those Franks who had invaded it 1500 years before, and had kept in their hands the offices, the honours, and emoluments of state ever since!!!

Although, as we have already observed, the author of these letters has given his countrymen credit for all that is generous, brave, ingenious, &c. he satirizes with sufficient severity those follies and vices which he discerns, or rather which he acknowledges, in their character; he reprobates very properly their singular propensity for duelling, which we regret to learn is daily encreasing throughout the republic, and which our author thinks has taken so deep a root, that it can never be extirpated. "The ordinance the most certain against duelling," says he, "would be an ordinance which should prohibit Frenchmen from exercising their wit. They fight, say they, to avenge their offended honour; this is a mere pretext; out of a hundred duels, ninety-nine have no other cause than a witty sally or a

repartee. The sally makes the auditors laugh; and if the repartee is gay, lively, and strikingly pointed, all of a sudden the laughers change sides. Here then is a victory lost at the very moment when one party was beginning to enjoy it! It is very well known that the rage for duelling was attended with very serious evils in the army, not among the officers merely, but the privates, who are said to have gone out in bodies consisting of a brigade perhaps, and settled some affair of honour! Many of our readers will recollect the account in the Paris papers, (Nov. 3, 1803,) of two soldiers of the Parisian guard, who fenced with sabres, naked to the waist, in the *Champs Elysées*. Women of the first fashion and elegance attended the *spectacle!* fortunately for one of the combatants, whose blood began to flow, an officer interfered by his authority and saved his life. The translator of these letters says, that within this last year, even ladies have begun to fight with pistols: in May 1802, a Madame Beunaigly fought and wounded with a pistol a Madame de Tourville, whom she accused of having seduced her lover!

On the whole, though by no means disposed to think highly of the execution of this work, it would be injustice not to say that there are several little traits of French character delineated, which, perhaps, scarcely any one but a Frenchman would have touched upon.

The translation is wretchedly executed, abounding both with Gallicisms and blunders.

ART. XXII. *Travels from Moscow, through Prussia, Germany, Switzerland, France, and England. By* NICOLAI KARAMSIN. *Translated from the German.* 3 vols. 12mo.

OUR readers will naturally be curious to know the remarks of a Russian traveller, even in his tour through Germany, Switzerland, and France; but will survey, with peculiar interest, his observations on our own dear native country. We shall therefore devote a larger space to M. Karamsin on this account, than perhaps we should be induced to do from the sole merit of his publication.

We learn, from the work before us, that M. Karamsin is a young Russian nobleman, well versed in German literature, and deeply enamoured of Sterne, and some other English authors of the same stamp. Neither science, nor natural history, nor politics, nor statistical details, appear to be the objects of his attention: he travels not like the illustrious Peter, to bring back to his country the arts and the sciences, but to satisfy at least a harmless curiosity, concerning the manners and social habits of the principal nations of Europe, and a desire of seeing and conversing with those literary men, from the perusal of whose works he had derived the greatest pleasure. The study, however, of men and national characters is attended with peculiar difficulty: it requires long residence, habits of great intimacy, a perfect command of the language of a country, quick discrimination, and a habit of seizing minute circumstances as they arise; in short, such a combination of natural talents and fortunate opportunities, as are very rarely found to unite in one person. But though M. Karamsin ranks not in the same class with the late Dr. Moore, he appears to have been by no means negligent of the occasions afforded him of collecting interesting anecdotes, or describing his interviews and conversation with the literary characters of Germany and Switzerland; and if, in the other parts of his travels, he is guilty of egregious misrepresentation, it appears to be rather attributable to ignorance than an intention to deceive.

M. Karamsin, on leaving Moscow, took the road to Petersburgh, whence he proceeded through Courland, and the Prussian part of Poland, to Berlin. At Konigsberg, he had an interview with the celebrated Kant, who appears to be an amiable old man, of simple manners and liberal sentiments. Too many pages are devoted to conversations with innkeepers and his fellow-travellers in the stage-coach: an innkeeper is the same animal all the world over, and ignorance and brutality are not peculiar to Prussian officers.

From Berlin, M. Karamsin, passing through Leipsig, Weimar, and Manheim, arrived at Strasburgh. "When we reached the French boundary the postillion stopped. A fellow of a filthy appearance, approaching the coach, addressed us, '*Vous êtes déjà en France, Messieurs, et je vous en felicite.*' It was the custom-house officer, who expected a few sous for this gratification."

At Weimar, our traveller relates his visits to Herder and Wieland. To the

former, the golden key of flattery gave him an easy admission, but the latter was by no means so readily accessible: his cold forbidding manner had well nigh repulsed the adventurous Russian; perseverance and compliments were, however, at length victorious, and the first ceremonious interview was succeeded by a social evening, in which they parted mutually satisfied with each other.

" Never, never," says M. Karamsin, " shall I forget him. You should have seen, my friends! with what frankness and energy he speaks, though nearly sixty years old; what animation pervades every feature of his countenance in conversation! His mind has not yet begun to grow old, and his powers are unimpaired. The same richness and playfulness of poetic genius which distinguish his Oberon, Musarion, and other works, is found in his last production, Clelia and Sinibald. It appears even, that the last fruits of his muse approach nearer and nearer to perfection. He has been known in Germany as an author for upwards of thirty-five years. His earliest essays attracted public attention. The severity of criticism, which then began to prevail in Germany, certainly found many faults in these first flights of his youthful genius; though it could not deny the author the merit of a peculiar art of representation, a fertile imagination, and exquisite sensibility. But the period of his fame properly commenced with the publication of his Comic Tales, which are inimitable in their kind; and were in Germany considered as unique. The reader cannot but admire the wit, taste, and beauty of the language, and the skill in narration which prevail in these pieces. Poems after poems by him have since appeared; the last of which always appeared the best. Germany has long acknowledged him one of her first-rate poets. He now reposes beneath his laurels, but he does not slumber. The French have renounced their former contemptible opinion of German literature, which was not without foundation, at a time when the Germans occupied themselves with the departments of dry literature. If the principal and most impartial of the French literati now confess, that the Germans have not only overtaken them in many things, but even surpassed them in many others, it must be confessed, that Wieland's works have partly contributed to produce this effect; though they are not remarkably well translated into the French language."

M. Karamsin entered Switzerland at Basle, and on his way thither from Strasburgh, made an acquaintance with a young Dane, who is the hero in many of the incidents afterwards recorded in our traveller's journal.

" He is the son of Mr. Becker, of Copenhagen, apothecary to his Danish Majesty, and has studied medicine in Germany; but chiefly devoted himself to chemistry, under the instruction of Klaproth at Berlin. After this he traversed almost all Germany on foot, with his dog and his hanger, sending his trunk before him by the coach. He is now going to see what is remarkable in Switzerland, and then intends to visit France and England. He loves his dog with the tenderest affection. On the road he kept looking out behind, every now and then, to see whether he was following the coach; and as he observed, a few miles from Basle, that the animal was fatigued, and began to lag behind, he wished us a good journey, and got out of the coach, that he might follow slowly after with his faithful companion."

At Zurich, M. Karamsin visited Lavater, with whom it appears that he had been before engaged in a correspondence, and whom he seems to reverence as the wisest of mortals. His first reception, though cordial, was not so tenderly sentimental as the inexperienced enthusiasm of our traveller expected. He obtained, however, by this acquaintance, an introduction to most of the Swiss literati, and in the next interview with Lavater, found himself quite at ease, and upon terms of intimacy. Numerous anecdotes and little traits of character, are related concerning this celebrated man, which show in a striking manner his great benevolence and great vanity; and the result of the whole on the mind of the reader, will be esteem for the one, and indulgence for the other.

" Every day augments my admiration of Lavater; he has not an hour's leisure and the door of his closet is never shut. Hither throng beggars asking charity,—the afflicted who seek consolation,------travellers who, though they want neither, at least contribute to occupy his time. Besides, he visits the sick not only of his own parish, but likewise of many others. This evening, after writing several letters, he took his hat, and requested me to accompany him. I should like to see where he is going to, thought I, and followed him. We went out of one street into another, and at length through the gate of the town. We arrived at a small village and entered a cottage. " Is Anna yet alive?" demanded Lavater of an old woman who came to meet us. " She scarcely breathes," replied she, with a flood of tears; and opened the door of a chamber; where I beheld, in a bed, an aged and emaciated woman, whose wan and livid countenance bespoke the near approach of death. Two boys and two girls stood round the bed and wept. The

Digitized by Google

moment they saw Lavater, they ran and kissed his hands. He approached the patient, and asked her how she did. "I am dying! I am dying!" she replied, but was unable to say more. Her eyes were fixed on her bosom, which heaved with inward convulsion. Lavater sat down beside her, and began to prepare her for her departure. "Thy hour is come;" said he, "thy Saviour awaits thee. Be not thou afraid of the grave! Not thou, but only thy mortal body, will be deposited in it. In the moment when thy eyes are closed to the light of this life, the glorious morning of an eternal and better life will shine upon thee. Be thankful to God that thou hast attained a good old age, and hast seen thy children and grand children grow up, matured in honesty and virtue. They will for ever bless thy memory, and will once embrace thee with raptures in the mansion of the blessed. There, there, we shall all form but one happy family." These last words he uttered in a tremulous voice, and wiped his eyes. He then prayed, blessed the dying sinner preparatory to her exit, and took his leave. He kissed the children, told them not to weep, and at his departure gave them some money."

"On Saturday evening Lavater shuts himself in his closet, to consider of his sermon, and which he completes in an hour. In fact it cannot be a difficult task, if all his sermons are like that which I heard to-day. "The Saviour has taken all our sins upon himself; for which he is entitled to our warmest gratitude." These thoughts, which he enlarged upon and embellished, comprised the whole substance of his discourse, exclamations, and declamation:—nothing more! I must confess I expected something of a superior kind."

By a ludicrous mistake, the Zurich volunteers obtained a compliment from M. Karamsin, which all the praises that British volunteers have received, and may hereafter receive, can never equal.

"I went with Mr. T. to see the Zurich militia exercised. Almost all the inhabitants of Zurich were present, for it is to them an uncommon spectacle. A circumstance occurred here rather grating to my feelings: Professor Breitinger, whom I had not yet seen since my return from Schaffhausen, met me amidst the crowd, just as the manœuvres were finished; and, after the usual compliments, asked me how I liked what I had seen? Conceiving that he alluded to the Fall of the Rhine, my imagination instantly recalled that scene, in all its magnificence; the earth trembled beneath me; the roaring was tremendous; and I replied with ecstasy and enthusiasm, "Oh! who can ever find words to describe this magnificent spectacle! we can only gaze in silent astonishment!" "They were our volunteers," replied he with a bow, and left me."

At Murten is the charnel-house, where are kept the bones of the banditti, who were led on by the duke of Burgundy, in 1476, to desolate Switzerland, and extinguish its liberties. They were attacked on the shore of the lake of Murten, by the united and valiant mountaineers, and of the whole host of 30,000 men, the leader alone escaped the fate which they deserved. Upon this honourable trophy M. Karamsin makes the following observations, which we can indeed excuse in the sentimental slave of an autocrat, though we are unable to read them with patience.

"I started at the melancholy sight of these proofs of our perishable nature. And, ye Swiss, can ye exult over these lamentable trophies? Were not the Burgundians, as men, your brethren? Had you bathed with your tears the remains of these thirty thousand unfortunate fellow-creatures, and committed them to the earth, accompanied by your benediction; had you erected in the field of triumph a sable monument, with this inscription---*Here the* Swiss *fought for their country. They conquered, but tears mingle with their songs of triumph!*—then should I have bestowed the tribute of unreserved praise! Hide this monument of barbarism; and, if ye pride yourselves in the name of Swiss, forget not that you have the still nobler appellation of men."

It is not in human nature that a free people should feel regret for the destruction of foreigners, whose sole objects in the invasion of their territory, are rapine and subjugation. The tears that mingle with the songs of triumph for liberty secured, are tears of unalloyed rapture: in that heavenly moment, when the father glories in his fallen son, when wounds are badges of honour, when all private feelings are absorbed in the public welfare, when each individual ceases to be a man and feels only that he is a Greek, a Swiss, a Briton! how can the prostrate Persian or Burgundian be considered as any thing but a slaughtered wolf?

Among other celebrated characters in Switzerland, whom our traveller had an opportunity of visiting, was the excellent Bonnet, an old man, but "whose eyes still sparkled with fire, whose voice was still sound and harmonious; in a word, Bonnet, from whom a second *Palingenesie* might be expected." Our limits will not allow us to quote the interesting particulars which M. Karamsin relates concerning this good man; we cannot, however, avoid mentioning

a curious anecdote that is inserted here concerning Lavater. He and his son were visiting Bonnet, when Lavater started up on a sudden, tore off the wig from Bonnet's head, and said to his son, "Look, Henry! wherever you can behold such a head, there learn wisdom!"

The route of M. Karamsin from Geneva, by Paris, to Dover, presents us with nothing new. Paris has been often described more minutely, and with greater accuracy. Our traveller does not appear to have been introduced to any celebrated character in France except the Abbé Barthelemi, and the only memorials of the interview are a few mutual compliments.

In England his only associates were the members of the Russian embassy; he seems not to have been acquainted with a single family, or a single individual, either of rank or talents; and if to this is to be added his ignorance of the language, we may readily excuse his misrepresentations.

The following sketches of London are among the most interesting and the least erroneous of this part of his book:

"I sent for a barber, and they brought me a thick phlegmatic Englishman, who, having first unmercifully flayed my face, plaistered my head with flour and tallow. "Alas, I am no longer in Paris," I said to myself, with a sigh, "where the powder-puff of the ingenious lively Rulet played like a gentle zephyr around my head, and strewed it with a resplendent-white aromatic rime." To my complaints that he was flaying me, that his pomatum stunk, and that his hair-powder was only coarse flour, the unpolished English barber sullenly answered, "I don't understand you, Sir!"

"I put on my Parisian frock, bethought me of dear France with a sigh, and walked out in a very melancholy mood. But the cloud that darkened my soul soon vanished at the sight of the beautiful illumination, which presented itself to my wondering eyes.—Though the sun was scarcely set, all the lamps in the streets were lighted up. There are thousands of them, and which ever way I turn I behold a fiery string, as it were, extended through the air; I had never before seen any thing similar to it, and I no longer wondered at the mistake of a German Prince, who on making his entry into London, imagined that it was an illumination provided on purpose to welcome him with peculiar marks of honour. The English are fond of light, and they spend millions to supply, by artificial, the want of the solar rays—an indubitable proof of the national wealth."

"Whoever calls London noisy must either never have seen it, or must have no correct idea of what a noisy city is. London is populous it is true; but, compared with Paris, and even with Moscow, it is extraordinarily quiet. The inhabitants of London seem to be either half asleep, or overcome with lassitude from their excessive activity and exertion If the rattling of the carriages did not, from time to time, shake the auditory nerve, a stranger might frequently suppose he had become deaf, while passing along some of the most populous and most frequented streets. I stepped into several coffee-houses, where I found from twenty to thirty persons reading the newspapers, and drinking their port; while the profoundest silence reigned in the room, except that perhaps every quarter of an hour, one hears a solitary "*Your health, Gentlemen!*" Can it then excite wonder, that the English are such deep thinkers, and that their parliamentary orators know not when to leave off, when once they have begun to speak: it would seem as if they were tired of, and willing to make amends for their usual taciturnity.

"But if my ears thus enjoy rest and quiet, my eyes are the more busily engaged. In London, too, the women are very handsome, and they dress with tasteful simplicity; they are all without either powder or paint, and wear hats, which seem to have been invented by the Graces themselves; they seem rather to fly than to walk; their neat little feet, which peep out from under their snow-white muslin robe, scarcely touch the pavement. Over their white corset an Indian shawl is spread, on which their fair hair descends in charming ringlets: for to me, at least, it seems that the greater part of the English women have fair hair: the most beautiful of them, however, are brunettes. The physiognomies of the men may be arranged under three classes; they are either surly, good-natured, or brutish. I can safely swear, that in no other country have I seen so many brutish faces as here; and I am now convinced that Hogarth drew from nature.—Such physiognomies are, it is true, only to be met with among the populace; but then there is so much variety, so much characteristic expression in them, that ten Lavaters would scarcely be able to point out the bad qualities and propensities which they indicate."

Digitized by Google

ART. XXIII. *Travels through the Southern Provinces of the Russian Empire, in the Years* 1793 *and* 1794. *Translated from the German of* P. S. PALLAS. Vol. II. 4to. pp. 537. 41 Plates, Vignettes, and Maps.

THE present volume is occupied by Professor Pallas's tours in the Crimea and the island of Taman, and his general observations on the inhabitants and productions of this interesting country.

The northern half of the Crimea is flat, and but little worthy of notice; accordingly the whole of the five journies here recorded, were occupied in exploring the interior, the southern coast, the peninsula of Kertsh, and the opposite isle of Taman, between which the Cimmerian Bosphorus affords a passage from the sea of Azof to the Euxine.

The professor entered the Crimea in the month of October, by the Isthmus of Perekop, a flat neck of land about eight versts and a half in breadth, by which the Tauric peninsula is connected with the mainland. In ancient times, when the country was colonized by the Greeks, this important pass was shut up by a strong wall with towers, in order to protect the isthmus against the incursions of the Tauro-Scythians; and from that time to the present the fortress and lines of Perekop have been esteemed the key of the Crimea. The Russians since their conquest of this territory, have stationed a strong garrison here; not indeed to defend it from the incursions of the northern barbarians, but, on the contrary, to secure to their armies an easy access, if such of the miserable inhabitants, as have not yet emigrated, should attempt at any time to throw off the yoke of their conquerors.

From Perekop our traveller proceeded by the direct road to Akhmetshet or Sympheropol, the capital of Taurida, where he passed the winter. This town is pleasantly situated in a plain on the banks of the Salgir, a river of extraordinary rapidity, and surrounded and sheltered on every side by fertile hills. The old Tartar part of the town is exceedingly dirty and ill built, and the governor's palace and other edifices, raised since the Russian conquest, are for the most part ruined and abandoned, since the late incorporation of the Crimea with the government of New Russia, and the impolitic restrictions upon its commercial intercourse.

The winter proved unusally stormy and severe, and the large floats of ice that drifted during several weeks from the sea of Azof into the Euxine, so retarded the progress of vegetation, that the blossoms of the cornel-tree did not make their appearance till the end of March. Before the spring was well confirmed, Professor Pallas set out on a tour to the south-western part of the Crimea, and fixed his head-quarters at Akhtiar or Sevastopol. This is a considerable town, situated on a noble harbour of the same name, which is generally compared to that of Malta or Mahon. A division of the Russian navy is stationed here; but, except security from storms and a productive fishery, this port is possessed of few conveniences. Timber and firewood are extremely scarce and dear: the ships require new sheathing every second year, on account of the ravages of the worm; and the inhabitants of the neighbouring villages have been deterred from supplying the market, by the riotous conduct of the sailors.

The district between the harbour of Akhtiar and that of Balaklava, which also runs a considerable way into the country, was formerly called the Heracleotic Chersonese, and in the time of Strabo was covered with monuments of Greek art and civilization. Under the Genoese, by whom it was afterwards possessed, this colony continued to increase in splendor and consequence. The domination of the Turks and Tartars expelled the merchants, and reduced the towns and villas to heaps of ruins; and even these ruins are rapidly disappearing, since the conquest of the Crimea by the Russians, who take indiscriminately the squared freestone, the blocks and columns of marble, for the construction of barracks and batteries. The remaining fragments of ancient buildings are described by our traveller, together with the numerous and extensive caverns and subterranean chapels of Inkerman, which appear to have been scooped out of the soft limestone rock by the Arian monks, in the later ages of the Byzantine empire, who found here a secure retreat from the persecutions by which they were harassed.

After a minute survey of the mineralogy and antiquities of this neighbourhood, the professor returned to Akh-

metshet, and soon after again set out on a journey along the south-western coast of the Crimea. Not far from Balaklava, in a plain at the foot of a high ridge of limestone mountains, are the pits whence the celebrated Keffe-kil, or earth of Kaffa, is procured. This is a very saponaceous clay of a grey colour, forming a stratum from fifty to seventy feet beneath the surface, and was formerly exported in great quantities to Constantinople, where it was used in the baths by the women for washing their hair. At present, however, only a small quantity of it, about a hundred poods annually, is exported: because, during the late war, when the commercial intercourse with the Turks was interrupted, researches were made in Anatolia, where an earth was discovered in every respect similar to that formerly obtained from the Crimea, and which now serves as a substitute at Constantinople.

The village of Tschorguna, the residence of an intimate friend of our traveller, forms his next resting-place, whence he made several little excursions among the neighbouring mountains; and as the various strata of which the peninsula is composed, are all visible here, the professor takes the opportunity, in this part of his work, of giving a perspicuous general sketch of the orology of the Crimea.

The northern extremity of this peninsula is perfectly flat, and the country continues rising with a very gentle and scarcely perceptible ascent towards the south, for nearly half its length: the surface then becomes undulated, and low single hills, declining towards the north, begin to make their appearance, divided, at first, from each other by plains, and afterwards by narrow vallies, and at length combining into a high connected ridge, terminated abruptly to the south, presenting barren white terraces and precipices. The whole of this tract consists of recent calcareous layers, either of foliated limestone mixed with shells, of chalk interspersed with flint, or of a calcareous marl, easily disintegrable by exposure to the air. This upper stratum rests upon a compact ancient calcareous rock, in some places approaching to the quality of marble; in others in the state of breccia, of a bluish-grey colour, containing but few petrifactions and those coralines; sometimes of a greyish black colour, and then fetid. This stratum extends beyond the first mentioned tract in a southerly direction, in some places reaching quite to the coast; it declines towards the north in a gradual manner, but forming a larger horizontal angle than the former, and like that is terminated by abrupt precipices to the south. In some places, this calcareous stratum is covered with rubble stone, mill stone, sand stone, agglutinated sand, or loose pebbles: but the higher parts form flats of limestone, called by the Tartars *Yaila*, which afford, during the summer, a cool and plentiful pasturage for their flocks and herds. The loftiest mountains of the Crimea, especially the Tshatyrdag, or Tent mountain, which is about 1200 feet above the surface of the sea, are, for the most part, composed of this stratum.

The limestone beds rest upon slate clay, and almost vertical argillaceous schistus, in which are occasionally found veins and masses of hæmatite; and this is the lowest stratum that has hitherto been observed. The abrupt termination of the mountains upon the southern coast, continues even below the surface of the sea, the only anchoring places being near the promontories; while, for the most part, no bottom is to be found even a single verst from the shore.

The valley of Baidari, which was visited by the late empress of Russia, and has been described in such glowing language by Lady Craven, appears to enjoy a fame superior to its merits; Professor Pallas does not think it comparable to the vales of Caucasus. Its form is that of

"An extensive, oblong and hollow valley, upwards of sixteen versts in length from south-west to north-east, and from eight to ten versts in breadth. On its southern side, it is bounded by the woody alpine terrace of the rocky wall proceeding along the sea-coast; towards the east, by the steep border of the Yaila of Ussundshi, which here presents the lofty mount Tolaka, and likewise by a few other ridges consisting of rock; on its northern side, by similar ridges and eminences, that separate it from the dale watered by the brook Usenbash, as well as from the woody mountains of Kokulos and Aithodor; lastly, on the western side, by the above-mentioned ridge towards Varnutka. The central part of this large valley is hilly, and well provided with wood: from its hollow grounds, the springs, brooks and ditches collect their waters into the Kasikly-Ousenben; which, by means of a narrow valley in the

vicinity of Tshorguna, opens itself a passage towards the north-west, where the mountains are more dissevered, and less elevated. Beside the detached villages of Varnutka and Kutshuk-Miskomia, the dale also contains those of Kaitoo, Baidar, Saffük, Kalendé, Beeyouk-Miskomia, Tylú, Uirkusta, Baga, Ussundshi, Savatka, and Skelá; which are collectively inhabited by at least 700 families of turbulent Tartars. Luxuriant woods, consisting throughout of umbrageous trees, cover this extensive tract, except in such open parts as have been converted into arable land. Excellent oak-trees still occur here; though, during the late war with the Turks, the best timber for ship-building was carried off, in order to supply the Russian fleet stationed in the Black Sea. The walnut-tree likewise prospers uncommonly in this, as well as in the vale of Shulü, and in all the southern vallies environed by mountains, where the oldest and most bulky of these trees are to be met with. In the village of Uirkusta, there is one particularly celebrated: it stands in a garden, is of a prodigious extent, and has in some seasons been productive of from eighty to one hundred thousand walnuts."

The next division of the volume before us, relates the particulars of a journey over the Tshatyrdag, and through the south-eastern mountains of the Crimea: it is principally occupied by minute details of topographical mineralogy and botanical lists, and presents nothing peculiarly interesting to those who are unacquainted with the country.

The last of the author's journies in the Crimea, and that which is the longest and most abundant in curious information, extended through the interior of the Crimea, along the peninsula of Kertsh, and to the isle of Taman. The first interesting object is the town of Karassubazar, the most flourishing of any in the whole country, on account of the brisk and advantageous trade that it carries on with a populous neighbourhood: a considerable number of manufactures are established here; the markets are copiously supplied with cattle, and with fruit and vegetables of all kinds, from the beautiful orchards that surround the place; and the Jews residing here make great quantities of wine. The ruined town of Eski-Krim, near Kaffa, is next described, and presents a melancholy instance, that Russian conquests are to the full as destructive as those of the Turks. The rapacious and desolating spirit of Potemkin was let loose to range uncontrolled in this fine country. He destroyed the relics of Grecian civilization, and the finest specimens of Tartar architecture, to furnish materials for barracks, distilleries, and churches, of which the greater part were never finished, or have been already abandoned. The abundance of mulberry-trees in this neighbourhood

"Suggested to prince Potemkin the idea of establishing here a seminary for rearing silk-worms, and a nursery for additional plantations. With this view, he engaged in the Russian service a certain count Parma, of Milan; who was appointed director of the institution for raising silk; and, though possessing a very imperfect knowledge of the business, he enjoyed a handsome salary. Several Tartar buildings were also assigned to him, as well as 1,850 dessatines of the richest soil around the town, both for the planting of mulberry-trees, and for settling the colonists devoted to the culture of silk. But the disturbances during the late war prevented the execution of this project on a large scale The director obtained his pay regularly till the year 1796; and all his efforts have been productive only of from six to ten pounds of silk annually, and in the last year of twenty pounds weight; beside which, he has laid out a nursery of several thousand mulberry-trees. In consequence of such failure, the attempt has been totally relinquished."

The port of Kaffa itself, which from its commerce was called Little Constantinople, and was inhabited for the most part by Greek and Armenian families, which had been the principal emporium of the Genoese in the Black Sea, and had continued to flourish under the rule of the Tartar princes, "since the late Turkish war, when the Russians made themselves masters of Kaffa, and especially after the occupation of the whole peninsula, was almost depopulated, in consequence of the numerous emigrations: so that, with the exception of a few small quarters, it now presents a prodigious heap of ruins, that cannot fail to excite commiseration."

From Kaffa our traveller proceeded to the peninsulá of Kertsh and the isle of Taman, a low flat district, resting upon beds of coal and pyritical schistus, and remarkable for springs of petroleum, and the volcanoes of mud which have from time to time broken out here. The latest of these phenomena happened in the year 1794, and is thus described in an official document, written by the inspector of quarantine at Taman:

"On the 27th of February, at half past eight o'clock in the morning, the following

extraordinary events took place at the hill situated on the northern isthmus; which, across the bay, is only twelve versts distant from Taman, but sixty versts by the circuitous road over land. First, a rustling in the air was perceived, with a very violent gust of wind, that did not continue above a minute; and then a noise, resembling thunder, was heard from the hill: soon after, a column of black thick smoke burst forth from its summit, and was succeeded in about a minute by another of violent flame, which at that distance appeared to be at least fifty fathoms high, and thirty in circumference. This flame continued from a little after half past eight till within 10 minutes of 10 o'clock An express was dispatched, as soon as the flame, the vapour, and the noise had apparently subsided; but he returned with an account, that the hill had rent, and presented an opening, the extent of which could not be ascertained; as every access to it was rendered impossible, by the sudden and successive streams of hot mud that overflowed it in every direction, and were sometimes accompanied with flames and smoke. The eruption, however, was not attended with any shocks of an earthquake.

"According to the collected testimonies of persons, who witnessed the awful scene from Taman and Yenikalé, and who visited the mountain immediately after the eruption, it commenced with a noise resembling a peal of thunder, both in its strength and duration. Prior to, and for some time after the report, the inhabitants perceived a whistling and rustling in the air. A white vapour ascended during the explosion, and was succeeded by a black sooty smoke, through which appeared a column of red and pale-yellow flame, rising in a perpendicular line to double the height of the mountain, and spreading on the top not unlike a sheaf of corn; though a considerable wind agitated the atmosphere. The column of fire was visible for about twenty-five minutes, when it gradually vanished, but the smoke continued from four to five hours; dispersing itself in thick heavy clouds on both sides, which also subsided on the following day. During the first explosion, the hill threw up quantities of mud into the air, and scattered it about in every direction to the distance of a verst. The great mass of mud proceeded from the gulf, or crater, by raising and removing the argillaceous earth from the surface, which at that time was frozen to the depth of seven feet. At first it flowed rapidly, then gradually slower, on all sides of the hill; and, according to the information of credible witnesses, who, a few hours after the eruption, rode thither from the farm, it was not perceptibly warm, though a thick vapour arose from it, owing to the cold state of the atmosphere. Some Kozaks, dispatched to the place, on the contrary, assert that the mud, when first disgorged, was hot. The confused whistling, and bubbling noise were heard till a late hour of the night; and the mud was forced out sometimes to the height of twelve feet, even on the third day."

The ejected mud was of a deep blue colour and viscous consistence, containing in many places brilliant cubic crystals of pyrites: in the course of the summer, it became hard enough to bear the weight of a man, at which time the crater was upwards of twelve feet in diameter, and a noise was distinctly heard from its bottom, similar to the boiling of a large covered kettle. In order to account for these eruptions, the professor supposes, with high probability,

"That, at a considerable depth under the island of Taman, as also beneath part of the peninsula of Kertch, there is a stratum of coal or bituminous schistus in a state of slow combustion; and that, in consequence of the discharges which happen so frequently and in so many places, the sea breaks in, and forms bays in the hollows, that have become extinct: hence are generated various kinds of vapours and gases, which by their elasticity force themselves through the clefts of the superincumbent strata, or through old craters; or, where they meet with less resistance, make their way upwards with a loud report; and thus give rise to all the phenomena before mentioned, and also to transient inflammations of hydrogen gas, on the accession of external air. As soon as the force of the vapours, which supported the stratum incumbent on the burning layer, has subsided, in consequence of having found a vent, the fragments of this shattered horizontal stratum fall in succession, and by their pressure discharge the mud, consisting of ashes and sea-water, at first with rapidity, but afterwards more slowly, through the newly formed apertures. Hence we may account for the saline nature of this mud, which still rises with bubbles of vapour, as also for the roots of sedge, which have in some cases been carried by the sea-water into these subterraneous cavities and mingled with the mud; and, lastly, for the fragments of various fossils, through the superincumbent strata of which the vapours have forced their way."

The latter part of this interesting volume consists of general remarks on the Crimea, in which the reader will find much entertainment, as well as instruction.

The principal inhabitants of the Crimea are Tartars, the descendants of those Mongols who formed the army of Tshingis-Khan; in some districts they remain pure and unmixed, exhibiting the characteristic Tartar features, and retaining most of their old customs: for

the most part, however, there is a considerable mixture of Turkish blood, even among their highest nobility; and the inhabitants of the southern vallies, by their strong beard, light hair, and peculiar features, evince how far they are removed from the pure Tartar race. The dress of the wealthier classes resembles that of the Circassians or Poles, except that the head is covered with a cotton cap, generally of a green colour, and edged with black or grey lambskin. The women are handsome, and wear long garments of silk, richly adorned with ermine. fur, or gold lace; they tinge the nails of the feet and hands of an orange colour, and are very skilful in the use of cosmetics.

"Male and female slaves are not common in that country; but the nobility support numerous idle attendants, and thus impoverish their estates; while their chief pride consists in rich and beautiful apparel for themselves and their wives; and in handsome equipages to ride into town; being accompanied by a train of domestics, who follow them on every excursion, though the chief employment of the latter is that of giving their master his pipe, at his demand; standing in his presence, or assisting him to dress; and, in all other respects, living in the same indolent manner as their lords. Another source of expence is the purchase of elegant swords, and especially of excellent blades; the distinction between the different sorts of which, together with their names*, constitutes among the nobles a complete science. They are also great admirers of beautiful and costly tobacco-pipes, together with expensive mouth-pieces of milk-white amber, that are likewise used by the Turks, and of tubes of curious woods; but the *Kalliun*, or the pride of the Persians is scarcely known here; and the Tartars only employ small ornamental bowls made of clay, which are almost every moment filled with fine-cut leaf-tobacco. The generality of these noble lords, or murses, were so ignorant, that they could neither read nor write; and, instead of signing their names, they substituted an impression of their rings, on which a few Turkish words are engraven. Some of the young nobility, however, are beginning to study not only the Russian language, of which they perceive the necessity; but also apply themselves more sedulously to reading and writing, and thus become more civilized. The expence of wearing apparel for the women shut up in their harems is, according to their manner and fortune, little inferior to that of Europeans; with this single difference, tha the fashions among the former are not liable to change. Even the wives of the common Tartars are sometimes dressed in silks and stuffs, embroidered with gold, which are imported from Turkey. In consequence of such extravagance, and the extreme idleness of the labouring classes (who only exert themselves for procuring the necessary subsistence), there are very few wealthy individuals among the Tartars. Credulity and inactivity are the principal traits in the Tartar character. To sit with a pipe in their hands, frequently without smoking, for many hours on a shady bank, or on a hill, though totally devoid of all taste for the beauties of nature, and looking straight before them; or, if at work, to make long pauses, and above all to do nothing, constitute their supreme enjoyments: for this mode of life, a foundation is probably laid by educating their boys in the harems. Hunting alone occasionally excites a temporary activity in the murses, who pursue their prey with the large species of greyhound, very common in the Crimea; or with falcons and hawks."

The soil and climate of the Crimea are treated of at length, and a very satisfactory account is given of the agriculture and horticulture of the Tartars: the principal articles of cultivation in the fields are winter and spring wheat, and a species called the Greek or Arnaut wheat; it is distinguished from the preceding by being of a bright yellow colour, and semi-transparent. It is imported in large quantities to Turkey and Italy, where it is employed in preparing the best macaroni. Rye and barley are grown in considerable quantities; but oats only on the shore of the sea of Azof, where indeed they generally turn out very ill. Common millet and fox-tail grass are used green as fodder for horses, or the seeds are collected for human food, and as the chief ingredient of the intoxicating drink called *Busa*. Chick pease, flax, and tobacco are also important crops. Artificial irrigation is universally practised in the Tartar gardens, which in consequence yield vast quantities of maize, Bucharian millet, melons, cucumbers, and gourds. The egg-plant, hibiscus esculentus, with all the common vegetables of Europe, are also in general use.

The vine is an object of sedulous culture, and twenty-four different varieties

* "The principal names of the blades, partly manufactured at Damascus and in Turkey, and partly of those made in Persia, are as follow: Ters-Maimun (in which the human face appears totally distorted, whence it derives its name, signifying a distorted ape); Kirk Merdoen, or forty steps; Chorassan, Sungur, Tavan, &c."

are enumerated by our author as growing in this peninsula. The vineyards are situated in the bottoms of valleys, for the convenience of watering the plants (which are trained low like currant bushes) during the droughts of summer.

"All the white grapes in Sudagh, Tokluk, and Koos, as well as in other parts of Tauride, are merely pressed in troughs, composed either of large flat stones, or of wood: the lees are passed through presses of a simple construction, and the must, instead of being allowed to work, is poured into casks, the bung-hole of which is left open until the fermentation be completed. These different processes are so negligently conducted, and most of the proprietors permit such large quantities of bad grapes to be expressed with berries of a better quality, that it is matter of surprise to find the wine, in general, tolerably good. On the contrary, those who are more cleanly, and pay greater attention to the preparation of their wines; who suffer the grapes to become perfectly ripe; gather them in favourable weather; pour the juice into clean casks; give the must a small addition of good brandy, previously to fermentation; supply the vessels properly; proceed cautiously in clarifying the wine, which process must be performed in the beginning of March, or earlier; thoroughly fumigate their casks with sulphur, and keep them in good order; such cultivators obtain wines, especially in Sudagh and Koos, which in point of excellence may vie with the best and most salubrious liquors designed for the table. Farther, if the grapes be judiciously selected, dried in the sun, in ovens, or by other means, they will yield a sweetish wine, that is in no respect inferior to what the Germans denominate *Straw-wine*."

A particular section is allotted to the description of the orchards in the Crimea. These appear to have been planted by the Greeks and Armenians; for the trees in almost all of them are old, though very prolific. The pears, apple, quinces, plums, mulberries, and walnuts are remarkably good and plentiful. Figs, pomegranates, peaches, and apricots requiring more attention than the Tartars are willing to bestow, have degenerated, and are reduced almost to a wild state.

The animals of the Crimea are described, perhaps too concisely. The most important is the Tauridan camel, with two hunches: in no other country, we believe, are camels used as beasts of draught; here they are harnessed to four-wheeled waggons, being scarcely ever employed in carrying either men or burthens. The grey sheep, that furnishes the costly lamb-skins of the Crimea, can only be reared to perfection in the north-western angle of the peninsula.

"Of these handsome grey furs, or *Shmushki*, upwards of 300,000 are in some years exported by the way of Perekop, mostly to Poland; where they are in great request, and sold at a high price. They are disposed of, on the spot, according to their beauty and greater or less abundance, at three rubles and upwards a-piece. They are brought up, chiefly in the spring, when many lambs perish, and are particularly numerous after late frosts and long winters, which prove fatal to many of the young animals in the month of March. The sheep feed principally upon a species of *Centaurea*, that is common in the Crimea, forming large round bushes, with innumerable small flower-buds, by the Tartars termed *Kurai*, or *Bin-Bash*; for which purpose large quantities of it are collected, especially on the *Tarkhanskoi-Kut*. Of black lamb-skins, more than 50 or 60,000 are annually exported from Crim-Tartary."

An account of the salt-lakes, the commerce and manufactures of the Crimea, and the author's journal of his route to Petersburgh, conclude the volume.

We consider this work of Professor Pallas's, as incomparably the best of all those that have been published, descriptive of the Crimea; we meet with none of those exaggerations so common among modern tourists; and, in the true exhaustive spirit of a German, the author has left but little to be gleaned by future travellers. In justice to the merits of the book, in its English dress, we ought to mention that the plates and maps are numerous and remarkably well executed, but the translation is by no means free from faults. We can overlook in a work of merit a few Germanisms, and where occasional obscurities arise, can pardon the translator for not making a luminous version of a perplexed original: but his insufficient acquaintance with the science, and even terms of mineralogy, has introduced, in more places than one, errors and inconsistencies that most assuredly are not to be attributed to the learned author.

Digitized by Google

ART. XXIV. *A Supplement to the Account of the Pelew Islands; compiled from the Journals of the Panther and Endeavour, two Vessels sent by the Honourable East India Company to those Islands, in the Year* 1790; *and from the oral Communications of Captain H. Wilson. By the Rev.* JOHN PEARCE HOCKIN, *of Exeter College, Oxford, M. A.* 4to. pp. 72. 2 plates.

WE presume that none of our readers are unacquainted with the interesting narrative, drawn up by the late Mr. Keate, of the shipwreck of the Antelope, an East India packet, commanded by captain Wilson, on the Palos or Pelew Islands. The kindness and hospitality with which our countrymen were received by the natives, and the delicate attentions of Abba Thulle, their respectable king, and his worthy brother, must have made a deep and favourable impression upon every mind. The liberal confidence in the honour of captain Wilson evinced by the king, in entrusting to his care Lee Boo, his second son, to be instructed in England in the arts of civilization, is equally to the credit of both parties: and the premature death of this promising youth by the small pox, after a few months residence in London, has, we doubt not, excited the most sincere regret and sympathy.

Although, by the death of Lee Boo, the connection between Great Britain and the Pelew islands might seem to be dissolved, the directors of the East India company were sensible that there yet remained obligations for them to fulfil: they resolved, therefore, to dispatch an expedition to these remote and unfrequented islands, to notify the melancholy event that had taken place, and to manifest their gratitude by a present of such articles, as would be particularly acceptable to the king and his people.

Accordingly, about seven years after captain Wilson had left Pelew, two of the company's vessels were equipped at Bombay, under the command of captain M'Cluer; and Messrs. Wedgeborough and White, who had formed part of captain Wilson's ship's company, were appointed lieutenants. On the 24th of August, 1790, the vessels sailed from Bombay, and after touching at Madras, Ceylon, Bencoolen, Java, and New Guinea, in order to take on board cattle and seeds of various kinds, they arrived at the place of their destination on the 22d of January, 1791.

A most joyful and affecting interview now took place between the English and the natives. The good Abbe Thulle was yet living, but his brother and several other chiefs, together with Blanchard an Englishman, (formerly one of captain Wilson's crew, but who chose to remain behind among these friendly islanders) had fallen in battle about five months before. When the king was informed of the death of Lee Boo,

"His countenance, which before bore the most evident marks of joy, became composed and thoughtful; and after remaining some time silent, as if wishing to recollect himself, he exclaimed, "*Weel, weel, weel a trecoy!* (in English, Good, good, very good)." The king then paused a little, as if to gain relief; but on his again entering on the melancholy subject, he said, he never entertained a doubt of the goodness of the English, or the captain, but rested assured that they would cherish and take care of his son. That the return of the ships with his friends the English, convinced him his opinion was right, when he gave Lee Boo to the care of captain Wilson; that he had counted upon the line the captain gave him, as far as one hundred knots, or moons, and then despairing of ever seeing his son or the captain again, he had caused the line to be buried, supposing that the vessel which the English had built at Englishman's island (Oroolong) was not large enough to carry them in safety to China, as they had sailed before the good moon set in. He then mentioned the death of Blanchard, but frequently paused in reciting so melancholy a tale, many of his own family having been slain with him in battle."

A few days after, the presents from the East India company were landed, consisting of cattle, sheep, goats, pigs, &c. together with various packages. After a feast given by the king, the packages were opened.

"The effect upon the multitude was wonderful; they were struck with amazement, and could not utter a word, but gave frequent *ha's* of astonishment. The king instantly distributed the arms to the principal rupacks, recommending them to be kept clean, and fit for service when wanted.

"In the morning, the vessels were removed nearer to the shore, and moored within hail; the grindstones, shovels, saws, and remaining packages of utensils were landed and presented to the king: when these were opened, and the different things exposed to view, and their uses were explained to him, Abba Thulle himself was lost in silent thought for some time.

"In about an hour he broke silence, and calling his rupacks and principal people around him, made a long harangue, wherein the word *Engleese* was frequently repeated. He then distributed different articles, with his own hands, to several persons, apparently with a regard to their rank.

"Mr. Wedgeborough relates the account of this transaction, in the following words. "I was present at the time when the presents were landed, and am sure it is impossible to describe the effect the sight of the different articles had upon the multitude, most of which they were strangers to, even in idea. When arranged before Abba Thulle, and he was told they were for him, he was perfectly at a loss for utterance, or how to express his gratitude to the English rupacks, as he styled the honourable company. He asked why they sent so many things, when they knew he had nothing to send in return; that his country, if he could send it, would be inadequate to the things now before him. At length, being made perfectly to understand that no return was expected; that these things were sent to him from England, in acknowledgment for his great humanity and kindness to our countrymen, when the Antelope was shipwrecked on his coast: he very modestly replied, that the services he had rendered those people were very trifling; for their being situated at Oroolong, put it out of his power to give them the friendly assistance he so naturally wished to have done."

The king, in return, made a present of one of the islands to the English, which was taken possession of with the usual formalities. Captain M'Cluer having left one of the ships behind to superintend the gardens and new plantations, and take care of the live stock, proceeded with the other to Canton, some of the natives voluntarily accompanying him. He returned to Pelew in June, and had the satisfaction of composing all the differences between his new friends and the Artingall people, without having recourse to violence, and establishing Abba Thulle as acknowledged chief of all the Pelew Islands. The commander thinking his benevolent mission not yet completed, sailed again with both ships to New Guinea and Bencoolen, and returned in January, 1793, bringing two full cargoes of cattle and stores of every kind. During his absence, Abba Thulle had died, and his brother had succeeded to the sovereignty.

From the last intelligence received from these islands, it appears, that a small trade is now carried on occasionally by the English, between Pelew and China; and that the munificent gratitude of the East India company has been attended with complete success; the live stock having greatly multiplied, and the rice producing two abundant crops every year.

Digitized by Google

CHAPTER II.

THEOLOGY

AND

ECCLESIASTICAL AFFAIRS.

SUCH of our readers as take any interest in theological enquiries, will be no less pleased than surprised to learn, that amidst all the agitation of renewed warfare, and all the alarms excited by the peculiar circumstances of our country, this branch of literature has not been neglected. The list of theological publication is nearly as large as usual; and many of the works which it contains are important and valuable.

I. The entrance upon this part of our labours is auspicious. *Dr. Stock*, the learned bishop of Killala, with zeal and industry worthy of the cause of sacred literature, has enriched the catalogue of biblical versions, by publishing "*The Book of the Prophet Isaiah, in Hebrew and English.*" His chief object, indeed, has been to exhibit the original text in a metrical arrangement; but in the progress of his work he has produced a new translation of this sublime prophecy, generally distinguished by correctness and taste. *Mr. J. M. Good* has employed his learning and talents in a similar useful service. He has selected a book usually esteemed sacred, and certainly not undeserving of all the aid and embellishment which can be derived from his extensive knowledge and cultivated taste; and the *Song of Songs* is now presented to the English reader, in a state which must afford him pleasure, though it may not, with all the accompanying notes, appear quite to harmonise with the pure word of God.

Mr. Warner has published an English Diatessaron, which, we doubt not, will prove an acceptable present to those whose knowledge of the scriptures is confined within the limits of their native language.

A third edition of Dr. Willan's *United Gospel* has appeared, enriched with many useful additional notes.

II. The works which compose the second class in our department, are for the most part valuable. The three volumes of *Notes on the Bible, by the late Rev. C. Balkley*, edited by Dr. Toulmin, will be found a very important acquisition to the Student in Divinity. Of Mr. Bryant, in his *Observations upon some Passages in Scripture*, some may think—"*Arma trementibus ævo circumdat nequicquam humeris.*" These observations are founded upon the principles to which he is well known to be attached, and discover a zeal for the interests of religion, which years cannot lessen. The very learned translator of Michaelis having been again attacked by his "Anonymous Adversary," has ably illustrated *The Hypothesis proposed in the Dissertation on the Origin and Composition of our Three first Canonical Gospels.* Dr. Findlay, in answer to a passage in Dr. Geddes' preface to the second volume of

Digitized by Google

his Translation of the Bible, has published a little tract of considerable merit, upon *The Divine Inspiration of the Jewish Scriptures, asserted by St. Paul*, 2 *Tim.* iii. 16. Another Scottish divine, of the name of M'Conochie, has ventured upon a new hypothesis, which he has stated in "*A Dissertation concerning the Writer of the Fourth Gospel*;" and Mr. Granville Sharp has met with an able but no courteous opponent to his system concerning "*The Use of the Article in the Greek Testament*," in a writer who stiles himself not inaptly, *Gregory Blunt*.

III. Upon the evidences of natural and revealed religion, the publications of the last year are neither numerous nor important. The Rev. T. Robinson's "*Enquiry into the Necessity, Nature, and Evidences of Revealed Religion*," may be considered as a useful compilation. The *French Translation*, by M. Chirol, of the Bishop of London's *Abridgment of the principal Proofs*, &c. is deserving of commendation. An anonymous essay on *The Mild Tenor of Christianity*, will be read with pleasure and advantage. Mr. *Crighton's Enquiry into the Origin of True Religion*; and Dr. Priestley's Tract, entitled, *Socrates and Jesus compared*, claim a place in the list of those publications which are designed to promote the cause of revelation.

IV. Though necessarily of a mixed nature, yet Dr. Hill's *Theological Institutes* will be most properly referred to the class of controversial or *dogmatical* Divinity, and takes the lead among the works of this kind, which have issued, during the last year, from the press. Mr. Vidler in his *Letters to Mr. Fuller on the Universal Restoration*, has shewn himself an able disputant upon an important article of christian doctrine. Dr. Hales has very successfully opposed the fanaticism and the ignorance of some self-constituted teachers, in a pamphlet entitled *Methodism Inspected*; and a more serious attack has been made upon the same denomination of christians, by Mr. Nott, in his *Bampton Lectures*. A writer among the Quakers, who signs himself *Verax*, and who has already signalized himself as a champion against orthodoxy, has published, in reply to his antagonist *Vindex*, *A Vindication of Scriptural Unitarianism, and some other primitive Christian Doctrines*.

V. The Sermons of the last year are uncommonly numerous. Not fewer than ten volumes have fallen under our notice. The authors are Dr. Brown of Aberdeen, Dr. Gleig of Stirling, Dr. Shepherd, the Rev. Messrs. Gilpin, Nares, St. John, Warner, Buddo, Tayler, and a Layman.

Many patriotic effusions have passed from the pulpit to the press, in the form of *Single Sermons*. Among these are, *Broadhurst's* Sermon at Bath, *Bulmer's* at Thorpe, *Overton's* at York, &c.

The Fast-Day also, as might have been expected, has furnished us with excellent discourses, from the pens of *Parr*, *Belsham*, *Rees*, *Butler*, *Digney*, *Glasse*, *Madan*, *Jervis*, *Corrie*, &c. &c.

Besides these, Sermons upon miscellaneous subjects have been published by *Wrangham*, *Kentish*, and *Skurray*.

From the Society for the Suppression of Vice, the public have received *An Address, setting forth the Utility and Necessity of such an Institution*. Mr. Fellowes has printed *A Supplement to a Picture of Christian Philosophy*; and Mr. Eaton has in *A Familiar Conversation*, endeavoured to inculcate the Christian Virtues of *Moderation, Candour, and Liberality*.

Digitized by Google

VI. No works of devotion have appeared during the last year.

VII. The controversy which has been excited by those who call themselves "The True Churchmen," is still going on; and its conclusion is, we apprehend, yet at a great distance. Mr. Daubeny has, during the past year, added himself to the list of Mr. Overton's opponents; and endeavoured to repel from the articles of the church, the charge of Calvinism, in a work entitled *Vindiciæ Ecclesiæ Anglicanæ.* Dr. Prettyman also has more briefly attempted the same, in *A Charge delivered to the Clergy of his Diocese;* and the editors of the Churchman's Remembrancer have republished, in the same cause, *Dr. Winchester's Dissertation on the xviith Article of the Church of England.* Mr. Myles has published *a chronological History of the Westleian Methodists*, which furnishes much information respecting the rise and progress, and internal government of this formidable sect.

It was not to be expected that Mr. Hook's *Anguis in Herba*, noticed in our last volume, would pass without animadversion, from those who consider *Pluralities* and *Non-Residence* incapable of being defended; *A Reply* has accordingly appeared, written by *A Member of the Established Church.*

These, with a few of less note, constitute the works in Theology, which have been published since we closed our former volume, and of which we now proceed to give a fuller account.

THE SCRIPTURES.

ART. I. *The Book of the Prophet Isaiah: in Hebrew and English. The Hebrew Text metrically arranged: the Translation altered from that of Bishop Lowth. With Notes critical and explanatory. By* JOSEPH STOCK, *D. D. Bishop of Killala, M. R. I. A. and formerly Fellow of Trinity College, Dublin.* 4to. pp. 185.

NO part of literature promises to be productive of more valuable consequences, than that which embraces the important objects of restoring the purity of the original scriptures, and of presenting them to the unlearned reader, in versions more free from error than those which are now in his hands. And it is one of the pleasing features of the present age, that men, high in rank and in renown for learning, devote their talents and their time to this excellent pursuit. Our shelves groan under the massy folios of learned and laborious interpreters; our libraries overflow with erudite researches into the meaning of passages, many of which owe all their difficulty to the error or the ignorance of a transcriber; and become plain and intelligible by a different reading, supported by the authority of an ancient copy; or suggested by skill, acquired in an habitual attention to sacred philology. The industrious commentators of former times are not to be contemned: their learning and their zeal have illuminated many an obscurity, and unravelled many an intricacy in our holy books: but the labours of Wetstein, Mill, and Kennicott have encouraged a more useful race of biblical critics, whose elucidations are more attractive to persons of genius and of taste, and adapted to become more speedily and more generally beneficial. In this distinguished and meritorious service, our own country has already earned the highest praise; and scarcely a year passes which does not add another name to the honoured list of those, who, by labouring to recover the original text, and to render perfect our already valuable English version, perform the most acceptable service which criticism can render to the world, and prove themselves the real friends and benefactors of mankind. To the revered names of Newcome, Lowth, Blaney, Chandler, Dodson, Geddes, Campbell, Wakefield, &c. we have now to add that of Stock, an Irish prelate, *haud parvi nominis.* From the editing of Greek and Roman classics, he has very laudably turned his talents to sacred criticism. To this he was

Digitized by Google

incited by his friend and relation, the late archbishop Newcome; and the leisure that was necessary, he found during the late troubles in Ireland, which drove him from the active duties of his station, and compelled him to seek a retirement favourable to the pursuit of sacred literature.

"In the space of one year," he observes, "I had read over the greatest part of the Old Testament in Hebrew; and, during my progress, my ear became so accustomed to a certain rhythm, or metre, seeming to pervade the whole of that sacred volume, that I rested at last in a conviction that not the psalms and the prophecies only, but the historical parts also, commonly supposed to be written in prose, are in fact composed in verse, with no other difference from the rest but that they want the ornaments and bolder features of poetry."

Like the right reverend translator, we are "not fond of controversy, especially in questions of no great importance, and confessedly difficult of solution;" but it is our duty to offer some observations which have occurred to us upon that which constitutes the leading feature of his work.

His Lordship thus states what appears to him to be fact, with respect to Hebrew metre. Preface p. viii.

"The manner of chaunting the psalms in our cathedrals, which has flowed, without interruption, into the Christian church from the Jewish, affords, in my apprehension, the easiest and clearest answer to the question, What is Hebrew metre? The psalms, we know, are divided into verses; verses into two parts, responsively sung by the choir; and of these parts each is distributed into musical bars of the length of four crotchets, which is called *common time*; all words included within the same bar, be they many or few, are pronounced by the choir in the same *time*; the many rapidly, the few by a lengthened utterance, without regard to quantity, or the importance of the respective words in the sentence. Bars of this description measure the length of the Hebrew verses, at least of far the greatest part of them; so that to the four crotchets in the bar the ear discerns four rests, or feet, corresponding in the verse, and the measure becomes exactly similar to that of our English verses of eight syllables, as in the hundreth psalm,

With one consent, let all the earth
To God their cheerful voices raise, &c.

The exceptions to this general rule are, that sometimes in a stanza a line of the common length is succeeded by one of three feet or six syllables, as in Lam. ch. iii. throughout: and frequently a stanza is made to begin or end with a hemistich, instead of a whole line, of which the very first line of David's psalms presents an example."

That the nature of Hebrew metre is such as is here represented, we shall not pretend either to deny or assert. The subject appears to us, after much deliberation, involved in impenetrable obscurity. Of a language, concerning the mode of reading which there has been so much dispute, and ever will be so much real difficulty, we think it vain to expect to discover the proper rhythm. No doubt it *was* capable of poetic numbers, and a great part of the books of the Old Testament was composed in a manner which adapted them to the purpose of recitation to musical instruments; but no attempt to reduce them to their original measures, we are fully persuaded, can now be successful. Of the scheme of bishop Hare, we may venture decidedly to speak as fanciful and erroneous; and the more simple systems of Newcome, Lowth, and Stock, are open to objections, which their own labours furnish. The bishop of Killala, indeed, goes far beyond all his predecessors, when he converts prose into verse, and imparts to a genealogical table the dignified march of a religious ode. That one of the earliest methods by which the descendants of the patriarch Abraham conveyed the knowledge of past events to their posterity, was by giving them a poetical form, may be inferred from the uniform practice of remote antiquity; but that in the more advanced state of the Jewish people, in the days of Ezra, or even of David, their history was metrical, is a position which will not be easily proved, or readily admitted. Hebrew scholars will, in general, perceive some greater difference than the mere want of ornament, between the song of Moses after the passage through the Red Sea, and his directions concerning the formation of the tabernacle; and conceive that something more than the absence of the bolder features of poetry, distinguishes the book of Nehemiah from the love song of Solomon.

Whatever may be thought of the bishop of Killala's system, and of the extent to which he applies it, his zeal and diligence will meet the highest praise.

"Persuaded," he observes, preface p. ix.

Digitized by Google

"of the fact, that the general run of verses throughout the Old Testament, are what the learned bishop Lowth distinguishes by the appellation of *Tetrameters*, I conceived a wish to see how the first of the prophets, Isaiah, would appear in his proper dress, as a poet, his lines being reduced to metrical arrangement. Accordingly, I prescribed to myself the laborious task of transcribing the original; purposing at the same time to accompany the text with the justly celebrated version of bishop Lowth, corrected where it should appear necessary, either by the late discoveries of the excellent German critic and translator, Rosenmuller, or by my own observation."

Strictly adhering to his system, Dr. Stock has thrown into a metrical form, not only those parts of Isaiah which are confessedly historical, and taken with very little variation from the book of Kings, but even the titles of the different prophecies which are introduced into this oracular fasciculus: with what effect let the reader judge.

Ch. i. v. 1.

"The vision of Isaiah, the son of Amos,
which he saw concerning Judah and Jerusalem,
In the days of Uzziah, Jotham, Ahaz,
Hezekiah, kings of Judah."

Ch. xxxvi. 1.

"It came to pass in the fourteenth year
Of king Hezekiah,
There went up Sennacherib, king of Assyria,
Against all the fenced cities of Judah,
And he took them."

Ch. xxxvii. 2.

"And he sent Eliakim, who was over the household,
And Shebna the scribe,
And the elders of the priests,
Covered with sackcloth,
Unto Isaiah, the son of Amos, the prophet."

v. 12.

"Have the gods of the nations delivered those
Which my fathers have destroyed;
Gozan and Haran,
And Rezeph, and the sons of Eden, which were in Thelassan?"

By the help of masoretic punctuation, the originals of these passages are made to assume something like the appearance of metrical arrangement; but is it credible that these plain and undignified relations should have been invested even with the exterior garb of poetry? Remove the points, and the charm is dissolved. Take away this artificial clothing of the masora, and not even the *disjecti membra poetæ* will be found.

In his arrangement of the stanzas, which are generally acknowledged to be poetical, Dr. Stock is not always more successful. We cannot perceive any advantage that is derived from such a location as the following.

Ch. vii. 17.

"Jehovah shall bring upon thee, and upon thy people,
And upon thy father's house, days,
Such as have not come, from the day that Ephraim departed
From Judah; even the king of Assyria."

Ch. xv. 5.

"The heart of Moab belloweth out at the bare approach thereof,
Even to Zoar, *like* a heifer of three years.
For in the ascent of Luhith, with weeping
Shall weeping go up; in the road of Horonaim
The cry of destruction they shall raise up."

Ch. xxi. 8.

"And he cried, A caravan!
Sir, on my watch I stand
Constantly, during the day; and on my ward
Have been set for nights together."

The division in the Hebrew exactly corresponds with that which is preserved in the translation; and a small portion of taste only is necessary to convince the reader, that such an arrangement is not deserving of the name of verse. Such instances as these are indeed few: but in many passages, we think, the bishop's ear has deceived him, and induced him to make some lines too long, others too short; injudiciously to mix hexameters, tetrameters, trimeters, and dimeters; and occasionally to destroy the parallelism, which appears to us to constitute the surest guide in the mazes of Hebrew poetry. The bishop has trusted too much to the Masoretes, with whose cumbersome punctuation he has loaded and disfigured his page.

It is time to advert to the translation. Here the bishop has been more fortunate. His first object, as we have already seen, was to produce a metrical arrangement of the Hebrew text, accompanied with the version of Lowth, corrected where necessary. As he proceeded, corrections of this nature became more numerous than he expected, till, at length, almost a new translation arose. To judge, therefore, of the real advantage which the labours of Dr. Stock have produced to sacred literature, (for all relating to

metrical arrangement, we think of little or no importance,) we must examine how far he has improved the version of the bishop of London. To select every passage in which an important alteration is made, would needlessly occupy our pages; all that is necessary, and all that will be required, is the quotation of a few of the more striking examples.

Ch. i. 17. Lowth, following Bochart, and not to his own satisfaction, translated אשרו המוץ "*cursed that which is corrupted.*" Stock, justified at least by all the versions, renders these words, "*Help forward the aggrieved.*"

iv. 5. "Yea, over all shall the glory be a covering," *Lowth.*—"A burning that shall overshadow all glory," *Stock. i. e.* a conflagration, whose splendour shall eclipse all glory. The great objection to Lowth's rendering is the violation of grammar, a masculine noun being made the nominative to a feminine verb.

vi. 13. ועודבח עשיריה
ושבה והיתה לבער

"And though there be a tenth remaining in it,
Even this shall undergo a repeated destruction." *Lowth.*

"But yet in it shall be left a tenth,
And it shall recover and serve for pasture."

Two versions cannot more widely differ than these. Dr. Stock ably and successfully defends that which he has adopted.

x. 13.

"And I have brought down those that were strongly seated." *Lowth.*

"And I have let fall the curtain of the inhabitants." *Stock.*

"The metaphor," he observes in a note, "here employed, appears to me to have escaped the commentators, by their not knowing the meaning of the word כביר which is well explained by Parkhurst to denote a mosquito net or curtain, used in hot countries by people of the better sort, to guard them at night from the noise and stings of those very troublesome insects, the gnats. It is a thin curtain of gauze or goat's hair, let down from the tester of the bed, enclosing it on every side, and thereby completely concealing the person in bed from view. To let fall the curtain of the inhabitants, therefore, is to hide them from view, to put them out of sight, by destroying them."

Ch. xi. 14. What in Lowth's version is rendered,

"But they shall invade the borders of the Philistines westward;"

Dr. Stock has translated,

"But they shall fly on the shoulders of the Philistines westward."

"They shall extend their conquests from the west to the east; and this they shall effect by the help of such as were formerly their bitterest enemies; the Philistines shall aid them with shipping, (which is what is here meant by flying on the shoulders of the Philistines),; Edom, &c."

Ch. xviii. 1.

"Ho! to the land of the winged cymbal." *Lowth.*

"Ho! to the land shadowed with sails." *Stock.*

Rosenmuller interprets it, "the land of the double shadow." Dr. Stock well observes, "the ancient versions agree in speaking of sails in this place, of which *wings* כנפים are an apt representation; and the rest of the description points to nautical business."

Ch. xxxvii. 13.

"Of Honah and of Ivah."

Upon this passage, Dr. Stock has added at the end of his work a note, which we recommend to the attention of our readers.

"In thus translating the words רעיה חנע I have been misled by the crowd of former interpreters, who concur in representing them as proper names. On reflection I am persuaded, they are not so, but should be rendered, *removed and overturned*; that is, each of those several princes, who opposed the Assyrian monarch, is now a vagabond and reduced to ruin; a forcible conclusion of the argument addressed to Hezekiah. If I am right in this interpretation, I owe the discovery to a perusal of Dr. Hutter's excellent translation of the New Testament into Hebrew, a work which I cannot sufficiently commend, as a great help to scholars desirous of becoming well versed in Hebrew phrascology," &c.

This translation has been republished in England, to the conclusion of the Acts, by the Rev. R. Caddick, of Christ Church, Oxford.

Ch. liii. 3.

"Despised, nor accounted in the number of men." *Lowth.*

"He is despised and abject above all men;" "אישים belongs here to both the preceding words, *despised* and *abject*, and is used in Hebrew and Arabic as a mark of the superlative degree: *abjectus virorum*, i. e. homo abjectissimus." *Stock.*

Digitized by Google

These few specimens may enable our readers to judge in some measure of the work of the right rev. translator. Our limits will not allow us to quote many other improvements upon the version of Lowth. There are larger portions in which his critical skill is more apparent, and his success of greater importance: among these we mention particularly the concluding verses of the third chapter, and the prayer of Hezekiah, ch. xxxviii. in the rendering of which, however, he acknowledges his obligation to Scheidnis, a German critic.

In departing from the version of Lowth, he has not always displayed the same judgment or taste.

Thus in ch. xxx. 17, Dr. Stock omitted the term *ten thousand*, which Lowth has shewn to be necessary.

"One thousand at the rebuke of one;
At the rebuke of five, ten thousand of you shall flee:

is certainly to be preferred to

"One thousand at the rebuking of one,
At the rebuking of five shall ye flee."

"The crown of the cup of reeling
Thou hast drunken, thou hast *swooped* off:"

is, we conceive, no improvement upon bishop Lowth's rendering of ch. li. 17.

"The dregs of the cup of trembling, thou hast drunken, thou hast wrung them out:"

swooped means to fall like a hawk upon its prey.

"I will give them the reward of their work with faithfulness:"

which is Lowth's rendering of ch. lxi. 8. is not judiciously neglected for

"I will give them their toil's-worth honestly."

Other instances of a similar nature might be quoted.

The notes which accompany this version are "drawn into the narrowest compass consistent with usefulness." In these the author "confines himself very much to the province of a verbal critic, leaving (as he modestly says) to those who are better qualified for the undertaking, the important office of unfolding the mystical sense of the prophet, or of shewing the accomplishment of his predictions." The conjectural emendations, which are suggested or defended in these, are frequently judicious, and some of them admitted very properly into the text. Ch. i. 8. for נצורה *pressed with siege*; Dr. Stock would read נצולה *pilluged*. Ch. xvii. 11. for נהלה *possession*, he proposes בהלה *hurry*. Ch. xxi. 8. for אריה *a lion*, he reads אוחה, "which denotes a company of persons on a road, and was a natural exclamation for the watchman who descried them." Ch. xxix. 2. for כאריאל which Lowth interprets, *as the hearth of the great altar*; Doederlein and Rosenmuller, *as a strong lion*; Dr. Stock proposes to read כאריו־אל *tanquam a Deo decerptus, the torn of God.* This ingenious reading receives no little support from the version of the lxx and the Arab.—These may serve as specimens.

Amidst these we wish the bishop of Killala had admitted the conjectural emendation of Ch. xiv. 12. שלח or שולח or rather שליח for חולש which Mr. Wakefield long since proposed in his edition of Virgil's Georgics, of which the learned translator could not be ignorant; and which, without the support of the lxx, would recommend itself to every person of taste and judgment.

Before we conclude this article, we must be allowed to express our surprize that, in this valuable edition of the prophecy of Isaiah, no notice whatever is taken of any of the *Variæ Lectiones*, published by De Rossi.

Though all the copies he has collected may not have equal authority, there are some readings which present a just claim to notice, and from which every editor and translator of the sacred text may derive considerable assistance. We could point out passages, in which Dr. Stock might have applied to this useful work with much effect.

Nor do we think that Dodson's version should have been altogether unnoticed; which, although the work of a layman, and undertaken upon a principle which can never be fully established, is not below the respectful regard of a scholar and a prelate.

Digitized by Google

ART. II. *Song of Songs: or Sacred Idyls. Translated from the Original Hebrew, with Notes Critical and Explanatory. By* JOHN MASON GOOD. 8vo. pp. 210.

IN his notes upon bishop Lowth's prelections, the learned professor Michaelis has observed, "that no interpreter of this exquisite poem has yet appeared, properly prepared for the task: all who have hitherto attempted it, having been more solicitous to explain the mystical sense, than to exhibit its first and obvious meaning as a song of love." The task, indeed, he acknowledges to be by no means easy. "He who undertakes it, must be deeply skilled in the Oriental languages; well versed in the knowledge of ancient manners; acquainted with natural history; accustomed to the frequent reading of Arabian poetry, especially of the amorous kind; and lastly, must be himself a votary and a favourite of the muses."

In none of these qualifications does Mr. Good appear deficient. His knowledge of the Oriental languages, both ancient and modern, is extensive; with the love-songs of the Arabians he seems to be intimately acquainted; and to a true taste for poetry, he unites the character of no mean poet. They who may differ from him in respect to the propriety of every part of the arrangement which he has adopted, or not admit the justice of all his renderings, must still regard this as by far the most elegant, and, at the same time, the most faithful translation which has yet been given of this beautiful poem.

"The Song of Songs," (he observes in his preface) "has hitherto been generally regarded as one continued and individual poem either as an epithalamium (ασμος nuptialis) accompanied, in its recitation, with appropriate music; or a regular drama, divisible, and, at first, clearly divided into distinct acts or periods. Since the commentary of the learned and elegant Bossuet, bishop of Meaux, upon this admirable pastoral, and more especially since the confirmation of his ingenious conjecture by that excellent critic, the late bishop Lowth, the latter opinion has more generally prevailed; and the poem has been arranged into seven parts, one being appropriated to every day of the bridal week, or period of time allotted among the Hebrews for the celebration of the nuptial solemnity.

"Great as are the authorities for both these speculations, I have ventured to deviate from them in the version now offered to the public. The Song of Songs cannot be one connected epithalamium, since the transitions are too abrupt for the wildest flights of the oriental muse, and evidently imply a variety of openings and conclusions; while, as a regular drama, it is deficient in almost every requisite that could give it such a classification: it has neither dramatic fable nor action; neither involution nor catastrophe; it is without a beginning, a middle, or an end. To call it such, is to injure it essentially; it is to raise expectations which can never be gratified, and to force parts upon parts which have no possible connection. Bishop Lowth himself, indeed, while he contends that it is a drama, is compelled to contemplate it as an imperfect poem of this description.

"It is the object of the present version, therefore, to offer a new arrangement, and to regard the entire song as a collection of distinct idyls upon one common subject, and that, the loves of the Hebrew monarch and his fair bride: and it has afforded me peculiar pleasure to observe, from a passage I have accidentally met with in the writings of Sir William Jones, long since the composition of the present work, that some such opinion was entertained by this illustrious scholar.

"In forming this arrangement, I have followed no other guide than what has appeared to me the obvious intention of the sacred bard himself: I have confined myself to soliloquy, where the speaker gives no evident proofs of a companion; and I have introduced dialogue where the responses are obvious: I have finished the idyl where the subject seems naturally to close; and I have recommenced it where a new subject is introduced. Thus divided into a multitude of little detached poems, I trust that many of the obscurities which have hitherto overshadowed this unrivalled relique of the Eastern pastoral, have vanished completely; and that the ancient Hebrews will be found to possess a poet who, independently of the sublimity of any concealed and allegorical meaning, may rival the best productions of Theocritus, Bion, or Virgil, as to the literal beauties with which every verse overflows." *Preface p. iii.—vi.*

Agreeably to this system, the whole poem is divided into *twelve* idyls; the new translation, metrically arranged, occupies one page; and on the opposite page is a corresponding poetical version, to which the notes, which are numerous and interesting, are adapted. We shall select as a specimen the fourth idyl, both because it is short, and is accompanied by notes which will serve to shew the general character of that part of the book, and introduce a beautiful little poem from the Persian.

Digitized by Google

IDYL IV.

ROYAL BRIDE.

Ch. iii.

1. On my bed, in the night,
I sought him whom my soul loveth.
I sought him, but found him not.

2. I arose, and went into the city;
In the streets, and in the broad-ways,
I sought him whom my soul loveth:
I sought him, but I found him not.

3. The watchmen of the city beheld me:
"Saw ye," said I, "him whom my soul loveth?"

4. But a little had I passed from them,
When I found him whom my soul loveth:
I held him, and would not let him go,
Till I had brought him into my mother's house,
Into the dwelling of her who conceived me.

5. I charge you, O ye daughters of Jerusalem!
By the roes, and by the hinds of the field,
That ye stir not, nor awake
My beloved until he please.

Mr. Good's version is as follows.

ROYAL BRIDE.

"'Twas in the night: my head the pillow pressed,
And anxious dreams, disturbed my throbbing breast;
I sought the darling object of my pain;
Intent I sought him—but I sought in vain:

Abrupt I rose, in hopes my love to meet;
Wide through the city, wearying every street,
I sought the darling object of my pain;
Intent I sought him—but I sought in vain.

The midnight watchmen found me as I strayed;
Of them I sought, with spirit deep dismayed,
"Saw ye the darling object of my pain!"
Of them I sought him—but I sought in vain.

Not long I left them, ere, with rapture crowned,
The darling object of my pain I found.
I held him firm, forbade him more to roam,
And instant brought him to my mother's home.

Daughters of Salem born!—by all ye prize,
The graceful hind, the roe with luscious eyes,
I charge you stir not—hushed be every breeze,
Watch o'er my love, nor wake him till he please."

NOTES.

"*And anxious dreams*—) The word "*dream*" does not occur in the original; but from the period of time, the place, and position of the fair bride, there can be no doubt she is here describing a dream. In the earlier ages of the world, in which visions of the night were made the medium of divine communication, as well to those who were without the pale of the Jewish hierarchy, as to those whom it embraced, dreams were pondered upon with far more deference than at present; and, for this reason, the images in natural sleep appear to have been often more vivid and permanent. Much of the beauty of ancient poetry, therefore, both sacred and profane, has been exhausted in delineating the history of individual dreams. In the sacred scriptures this is so frequent as to render it useless to enumerate instances. In Virgil, Moschus, and Bion we meet with many similar narratives; but the Odes of Anacreon are, of all specimens of poetry, the nearest, perhaps, in this respect, to the idyls before us. The third and eighth, in the arrangement of Barnes's edition, are both of this description most precisely: and the former, in its general tale and construction, so extremely resembles the seventh of the present idyls, that the reader will find it introduced under the poem for a comparison. Gessner has happily referred to this species of poetic fiction in his idyl, entitled Daphnis. The delighted swain applies to heaven, and supplicates that dreams of love and of himself may descend on the fair idol of his heart: and if she do not dream of him, his object, at least, is obtained by the supplication; for when the morning arose, and his beloved appeared at her window—*holdselig grüst sie ihn und holdselig blickt sie ihn nach;—denn sie hatte seinen nachtlichen gesang behorcht*—"tenderly she saluted him, tenderly her eyes still followed his footsteps:—for she had listened to his midnight song."

"*Intent I sought him—but I sought in vain.* This lineal iteration, chorus, or intercalary verse, as it is called by Dr. Lowth, is in perfect unison with the true spirit of the idyl or eclogue. Theocritus is full of the same figure: his very first idyl affords us an instance of it—

Αρχετε βυκολικας, Μωσας φιλαι, αρχετ' αοιδας.

which is repeated at the commencement of every sentence, till the poet has nearly finished his song.

"The first idyl of Bion, in like manner, offers us a similar instance—

Αιαζω τον Αδωνιν· Απωλετο καλος Αδωνις·

The latter part of the verse being in a small degree, and with great elegance, varied in almost every recurrence.

"Gessner has occasionally introduced a similar iteration, though not very frequently. The first idyl, however, furnishes us with an example in the soliloquy of Alexis, who concludes his pathetic apostrophes with, "*Ich sie liebe mehr als die biene den frühling liebt*"—"I love her more than the bee loves the spring."

"The lyrists of every country, both sacred and profane, have been as attentive to

this beauty as the pastoral poets. It occurs in a great variety of the psalms, and other poetical parts of the bible; and the reader may also turn to Anacreon's Ode xxxi, in which the burden is—

Θελω, θελω μανηναι.

"The Gazels of the Asiatics are often composed with the same spirited figure. In a paper on the resemblances of Grecian and Oriental poetry, which I some time ago inserted in the Monthly Magazine, I gave an instance of it from one of the Gazels of Hafiz. The following, to an unknown fair, from Khakani, will afford the reader another example.

"What art thou?—say: with cypress shape,
Soft jasmine neck, but flinty heart:
Tyrant! from whom 'tis vain to escape—
O tell me who thou art?

I've seen thy bright narcissus-eye,
Thy form no cypress can impart:
Queen of my soul! I've heard thee sigh—
O tell me who thou art?

Through vales with hyacinths bespread
I've sought thee, trembling as the hart:
O rose-bud-lip'd! thy sweets are fled—
Tell, tell me who thou art?

Wine lights thy cheeks; thy steps are snares;
Thy glance a sure destructive dart:
Say, as its despot-aim it bears,
What fatal bow thou art?

Thy new-moon brow the full moon robs,
And bids its fading beams depart:—
Tell, thou, for whom each bosom throbs,
What torturer thou art?

Drunk with the wine thy charms display,
Thy slave Khakani hails his smart:
I'd die to know thy name!—then say
What deity thou art?"

"Longpierre has quoted an ancient and anonymous epigram, so perfectly correspondent with the idyl before us, excepting that the research of the devious lover is not crowned with the same success, that I cannot avoid citing it, nor conceiving that the idea was suggested by this beautiful passage in the Song of Songs."

"Lecto compositus, vix prima silentia noctis
Carpebam, et somno lumina victa dabam:
Cum me sævus Amor prensum, sursumque capillis
Excitat, et lacerum pervigilare jubet.
"Tu famulus meus (inquit) ames cum mille puellas,
Solus, Io, solus, dure jacere potes?"
Exsilio; et pedibus nudis, tunicaque soluta,
Omne iter impedio, nullum iter expedio.
Nunc propero, nunc ire piget; rursumque redire
Pœnitet; et pudor est stare via media.
Ecce tacent voces hominum, strepitusque ferarum,
Et volucrum cantus, turbaque fida canum.
Solus ego, ex cunctis paveo somnumque, torumque,
Et sequor imperium, sæve Cupido, tuum."

"In bed reclined, the first repose of night
Scarce had I snatched, and closed my conquered eyes,
When Love surprized me, and with cruel might,
Seized by the hair, and forced me straight to rise.
"What! shall the man whom countless damsels fire,
Thus void (said he) of pity, sleep alone?"
I rose barefooted, and, in loose attire,
Block up each avenue, but traverse none.
Now rush I headlong—homeward now retreat—
Again rush headlong, and each effort try;
Ashamed at heart to loiter in the street,
Yet in my heart still wanting power to fly.
Lo! man is hushed—the beasts forbear to roar,
The birds to sing, the faithful dog to bark—
I, I alone the loss of bed deplore,
Tyrannic love pursuing through the dark."

The second idyl of Moschus is constructed upon precisely the same plan. It thus opens most beautifully:

Ευςωπη ποτε Κυπρις επι γλυκιν ηκεν ονειρον
Νυκτος ότε τριτατον λαχος ίσταται, εγγυθι δ' ηεε
Υπνος ότε γλυκιων μελιτος βλεφαροισιν εφιζει,
Λυσιμελης, πασαις μαλακα κατα φαεα δεσμων,
Ευτε και ατρεκεων πασι μαινηται εθνεα ονειρων.

Nigh was the dawn, the night had nearly fled,
When a soft dream approached Europa's bed;
'Twas Venus sent it: honey from the cell
Not sweeter flows, than flowed the sleep that fell:
Loose lay her limbs, her lids with silk were bound,
And fancy's truest phantoms hovered round."

The name of the fair bride, in whose honour these amatory idyls were composed, is not come down to us; nor is it yet agreed among commentators who she was. She has generally been regarded as the daughter of Pharaoh: but as Mr. Good very justly observes, "the few circumstances that incidentally relate to her history in these poetical effusions, completely oppose such an idea." Our author also, with great probability, conjectures, that the marriage between Solomon and the Egyptian princess was a match of interest and policy: whereas, on the contrary, the matrimonial connection here celebrated, was one formed

Digitized by Google

upon the tenderest reciprocal affection. From the bride's own words we learn that she was of Sharon, a canton of Palestine, and from the respectful attention paid to her by her attendants, and the appellation with which they address her, we have reason to believe, that, "though not of royal, yet she was of noble birth."

"How long," observes Mr. Good, "his (Solomon's) partiality for this accomplished bride continued, we know not. The histories of his life, which would probably have given us some information upon the subject, and were composed by the prophets Nathan, Abijah, and Iddo, have unfortunately followed the fate of all his own works, except the book of Proverbs, of Ecclesiastes, and the Song of Songs. The anonymous histories of him which are still preserved, however, in the sacred books of Kings and Chronicles, are minute and explicit in many points; and it is probable that the lady did not long live to enjoy his affection, or her name and some anecdotes relating to her would have been here communicated. That the Hebrew monarch conducted himself with great kindness towards her, we may fairly conclude from the uniformity of his actions and the known generosity of his disposition, a generosity that induced him, seven or eight years after his marriage with the daughter of Pharoah, to build for this princess a superb palace, in splendor resembling his own, at a distance from the city of David; and which tempted him, in direct disobedience to the divine will, to erect temples and altars for the use of all his queens and concubines, dedicated to the respective deities whom they idolatrously worshipped." Pref. p. xvii.

There are, we believe, few translators or interpreters of scripture who would speak with equal *tenderness* of this voluptuous and dissolute monarch. Mindful of our character and our years, we have been long accustomed to call things by their right names; and have too much respect both for ourselves and for the generation that is to succeed us, to dignify wantonness and irreligion by the name of *generosity*. We will not dispute the monarch's generosity in building a superb palace for his queen; we cannot doubt of the warmth of his affection, nor of his sincerity and continuance of his kindness to the *Rose of Sharon*: but in forsaking the religious, which were at the same time the political institutions of his country, so far as to gratify his concubines by the introduction of idolatrous rites into his kingdom, we must think (what we have ever thought) that he exhibits a melancholy and a warning instance of the inevitable tendency of sensual indulgence, to destroy all regard for moral distinctions, and all reverence for religious truth; and to hurry its unfortunate victim to the neglect even of worldly policy. The monarch of Israel was a man of ardent passions; under the guidance of which he violated the wisest injunctions of the great legislator of his people. To throw over his libertinism the splendid veil of *generosity*, was certainly not necessary for the translator's purpose, and ought to have been avoided as of evil tendency.

After perusing the passages we have selected, our readers may be anxious to know what Mr. Good thinks of the claim which the Song of Songs has to be considered as of canonical authority. When the book first came into our hands, our feelings were, we are persuaded, such as theirs will be. We opened it in the midst of the notes; we felt that we were still men, and we were warmed by the blaze of beauty that surrounded us. The amatory effusions of the Oriental and the Grecian muse that glow in every page, arrested our attention; and, though not surprized, we were for some time captivated by the striking resemblance that prevails among the Persian, the Asiatic, and the European amorets, and the love-song of the Hebrew monarch. It had long since appeared to us, that the Song of Songs had no right to a place in the sacred canon; though it might be very well placed upon the same shelf with Anacreon, Secundus, and other poets of the same temperament. The studied display of passages not only similar, but proved, or attempted to be proved, to have been borrowed by love-lorn bards from the "Sacred Idyls," justified the opinion we had already formed. Our surprize, therefore, was not small, when, upon adverting to the preface, we found the learned translator claiming for this poem the rank of an inspired production, as affording not only "the veil of a sublime and mystical allegory, delineating the bridal union subsisting between Jehovah and his pure and uncorrupted church; and an admirable picture of Jehovah's selection of Israel as a peculiar people, and of the call of the Gentiles: but also a happy example of the pleasures of holy and virtuous love, and inculcating, beyond the power of didactic poetry, the tenderness which the husband should mani-

Digitized by Google

fest for his wife, and the deference, modesty, and fidelity with which his affection should be returned; and considered even in this sense alone, fully entitled to the honor of constituting a part of the sacred scriptures." We are proud to discover in the sacred volume the model of all the correct morality, and the rational theology of the ancients: we receive the highest pleasure in tracing the sources, whence flowed all the good principles which the philosophers of antiquity imbibed, up to "Siloe's brook that flowed fast by the oracle of God;" but it is not without considerable pain, and even disgust, that we see the sacredness of divine inspiration attributed to a work which, according to its warmest admirer, has suggested many passionate if not licentious thoughts, to the votaries of illicit love.

To sum up, in a few words, an opinion of the work before us: the arrangement is new and ingenious; the translation faithful and elegant; the poetical version is, for the most part, correct and beautiful; the notes are full of profound learning and good taste. It is a work which every scholar will peruse with pleasure; from which the divine may reap improvement; but notwithstanding all the "delicacy of diction" of which the translator boasts, it is a work which we would carefully guard from the eye of youthful modesty.

ART. III. *The United Gospel; or Ministry of our Lord and Saviour Jesus Christ, combined from the Narrations of the Four Evangelists. By* R. *and* M. WILLAN. *The third Edition, with many additional Notes and Observations.* 8vo. pp. 234.

THIS work, which has been several years before the public, and not without just reason favourably received, is designed "to exhibit the events of the gospel history in their proper order of succession;" not by bringing together the accounts of each evangelist, and placing them in parallel columns, but "by combining the accounts of the four histories, and relating every circumstance in their own words;" selected and arranged, so as to afford the fullest history of every transaction. In determining the order of the events, one evangelist is not uniformly preferred to another; but greater regard is paid to him who gives the fullest account of the different periods of our Lord's ministry.

On the subject of the duration of Christ's ministry, Dr. Willan agrees with the late Primate of Ireland in assigning to it a period of three years.

On the merits of this work, it is not our province to enlarge; it belongs to our plan only to announce the sanction which the public have expressed in calling for a third edition. We cannot however refrain from presenting our readers with a specimen of the notes which accompany this edition of the *United Gospel;* they are in general valuable, especially those which contain remarks connected with the author's profession. Mrs. Willan has also contributed to the information which this part of the work conveys.

Of the prevalence of the opinion respecting the agency of malicious spirits on the human body, among mankind, in all ages, and in all countries, Dr. Willan has collected the following curious evidence.

"The diseases thought, in Asia, to arise from dæmoniacal possession, or to be otherwise inflicted by evil spirits, by the moon, planets, &c. were epilepsy, catalepsy, tetanus, hysterical and other convulsions, palsy, apoplexy, carus or lethargy, incubus, somnambulism, melancholy, mania and phrenzy, idiotism, loss of memory, sudden loss of voice, any singular deformity, and a wasting without apparent cause.

"Socrates and Plato, in Phæd. describe two species of mania; one arising from bodily disease, (νοσημάτων ἀνθρώπων) the other, from a change of state effected by divine impulse, (ὑπὸ θείας ἐξαλλαγῆς τῶν εἰωθότων νομίμων γιγνομένη) which he refers to Apollo, Bacchus, the Muses, Venus, and Eros or Cupid. Epilepsy was among the Greeks so generally referred to supernatural influence, that it was termed, even by their physicians, the 'sacred disease.' Hippocrates seems to have been the first who combated this opinion of his countrymen. He thinks the disease no more deserving the appellation of sacred than many others, as fever, ague, phrenzy, &c. After exposing the absurdity of those who pretend to decide from some variation of the symptoms in different cases, whether the fits were occasioned by Cybele, Neptune, Hecate enodia, Apollo nomius, Mars, or some of the heroes, he severely reprehends the exorcists of his time as impostors, affecting a degree of sanctity and wisdom inconsistent with the general tenor of their conduct, and pretending to set aside what more than human power had in-

Digitized by Google

flicted, by means of incantations, magic ceremonies, lustrations, and sometimes by the most contemptible juggling.—Comp. Acts xix, 13-19. He endeavours to point out the exciting causes of epilepsy, and to establish a rational method of cure for it, finally observing, that sheep, goats, &c. are often affected with it; and that in them the effect on the brain is, on dissection, found the same as in men to whom it had proved fatal. Hippoc. & Gal. de morbo sacr. Arist. probl. i.—Alex. Trall. i. 15.

"Aretæus, of Cappadocia, a celebrated physician, whose works were published about the same time as the gospels, speaks on this subject with candour and moderation. In describing the chronic species of epilepsy, 'which neither the skill of the physician, nor any change of constitution through life can remove,' he makes the following remarks: —'The nature of this disease is not easily explained; some think it inflicted by the moon on offenders, whence they call it the sacred disease. However, it might have the denomination of sacred on other accounts, either from its magnitude, every thing great being deemed sacred, or because it could not be removed by human means, but only by divine power, or from the opinion that a demon had entered into the patient, or for all the reasons together.'—De Caus. Affect. lib. i. The same author, like Plato, refers mania, in some instances, to supernatural impulse. (ανθρωπος δε ὑπο μανιης)—Lib. i. cap. 6. He observes on tetanus, that it is a calamity out of the course of human nature, (εξαθεωτος ἡ συμφορη) and an incurable malady. Loc. cit.

"Oribasius and Aetius, Greek physicians of the fourth century, have made nearly the same observations. The former, referring to the opinion of dæmoniacal influence in another disease, says, 'the incubus is not an evil spirit, but should rather be considered as the prophet and minister of Æsculapius,' because it often denotes the accession of epilepsy, apoplexy, or mania.—Synops. lib. viii. cap. 2. Aet. Tetr. ii. 2, 12.

"Succeeding writers have distinguished between epilepsy arising from physical causes, and the analogous disease referable to the operation of demons. Actuarius and Nicolaus Myrepsus, the last of the Greek physicians, mention specific antidotes for persons affected with demons and evil spirits.—Act. Med. 5, 6. Myreps. de Antidot. i. 2. It is to be noticed, that the more ancient physicians also called the remedies 'sacred, (ιερα) which they applied in the cure of the diseases above enumerated.

"The opinion of the Romans on demoniacal possession, may be easily understood. It is indeed manifest, from the various words in their language, as well as from their medical terms, e. g. ceritus, lymphaticus, larvatus, bacchatus, furiatus, lunaticus, syderatus, panicum, corybantismus, lues deifica, sacer ignis, &c. See Plin. Hist. Nat. xxiv. 17. & xxxiv. 15; and Coel. Aurelian. de Morb. Cron. lib. i. cap. 4. 5. & de Morb. Acut. ii. 30.

"Among the Arabian physicians, John Serapion says, that 'mania is a species of the demon.' Epilepsy, he observes, has several names; among the rest, that of the divine or sacred disease, because it is referred to the operations of demons, whence it is injurious to the principal organs of the body.

"Avicenna (lib. ii. tr. ii. cap. 561) mentions, that in his time a certain Jew cured epileptic patients, and demoniacs, by some mode of fumigation. Though doubtful respecting the particular remedy employed, he does not question its efficacy in such cases.

"The following passages on this subject from Alsaharavius, (Pract. cap. 84) contains also the sentiments of an Arabian writer many years prior to him. 'Of the symptoms of epilepsy caused by demons, I was always doubtful, till of late they were manifest to me. I saw the complaint under various forms; some patients suddenly fell senseless to the ground; changed countenance; spoke in foreign languages, with which they were not before acquainted; read, wrote, and treated of sciences which they had never learned; finally, when they recovered, these extraordinary powers were lost; and they returned as well to their natural complexion, as to their usual state of intellect. I was wholly ignorant of the causes of this malady before I had read the works of Hamen, the son of Isaac, who treats, among other pathological enquiries, of the diseases caused by the evil Ghin, or demons called Eblis. In the management of these disorders, if human genius be foiled, or unable to decide with certainty, leave all to the Creator, who will shew mercy on the works he hath framed. Physicians, through fear or want of information, are not forward in treating on this subject; however I have no doubt, but that the cure of such diseases is one of the ancient sciences which are, at this day, concealed from the knowledge of men."

These curious quotations, we readily acknowledge, "fully prove that the opinion respecting the agency of malicious spirits, on the human body, has prevailed among mankind in all ages;" but that this opinion is confirmed either by the conduct or the words of the founder of christianity, is much more than we are prepared to own. Such an opinion, these quotations most clearly shew, have been the offspring of ignorance and superstition.

With the following short but very important remark upon Matt. xxvii. 63, we will conclude this article:

"This text, and some other similar passages, as Matt. xii. 40, where it is said,

Digitized by Google

'the son of man shall be three days and three nights in the heart of the earth,' have produced much cavilling among the enemies of christianity; since it appears that our Lord remained with the dead only from the eve of the Sabbath, to the morning after it. So heavy an objection need not rest on the shoulders of the churchmen, but should descend with all its weight on the medical profession; in which it has been usual, from Hippocrates to Galen, and from Galen to Sydenham, and onwards, to reckon days precisely in the same manner as the evangelists; thus at whatever hour of the day or evening a fever commences, that day is called the first. If shiverings take place at six o'clock p. m. and the fever continues over the next day and night, but should have its crisis on the second morning at seven or eight o'clock, this fever would be denominated a fever of three days. Those who will not respect ancient medical authority and usage, must be referred on this, as on all other important points, to the learned and elaborate collections of Grotius, Hammond, Whitby, and Doddridge."

ART. IV. *The English Diatessaron; or the History of our Lord Jesus Christ, &c. By the Rev.* R. W. WARNER. 8vo. pp. 330.

IN the year 1800, was published by Dr. White, the celebrated Arabic professor of Oxford, a work under the title of Diatessaron, being a narrative, in Greek, of the history of our Saviour, compiled from the writings of the four evangelists. It is divided into parts or periods, and is furnished with useful marginal indications of the time and place of the events and discourses which are recorded. That hypothesis respecting our Lord's ministry is here adopted, which assigns to it a duration of three years and a half. This work of Dr. White, Mr. Warner here presents to the public in an English dress, using the words of the common authorised version. The utility of the general design is obvious. In adapting the different narratives to each other, and to chronological computation, some room is left for the exercise of judgment, and perhaps, after all that has been said and written upon the subject, of controversy. In this part of the work, Mr. Warner, however, assumes only the office of an editor; the system rests with the original author. We should have thought it a more desirable plan, if no part of the original had been omitted, but the most circumstantial narratives placed in the text, and parallel passages of the other evangelists, inserted in the form of notes. In one circumstance of technical arrangement, in which Mr. Warner has departed from Dr. White, he has rendered his work rather less convenient: the chronological and topographical remarks are placed only at the beginning of the sections; the parts also are numbered only at the commencement of each, while, in the Greek edition, these notices occur in every page.

To the narrative, Mr. Warner has subjoined notes, intended to be explanatory and illustrative of the text to common readers, which are usually selected with judgment. Into original criticism he rarely deviates, and cautiously abstains from topics of theological controversy. His liberality, however, appears in the sources of his information: he has not disdained to borrow aid from those who are usually termed heretics; nor, what is still more to his credit, to pay them the tribute of praise which is justly due, at least in many instances, to their sagacity, learning, and love of truth, even from those who dissent most widely from the opinions which they have seen it their duty to maintain.

SACRED CRITICISM.

ART. V. *Notes on the Bible: by the late Rev.* CHARLES BULKLEY. *Published from the Author's Manuscript; with Memoirs of the Author and his Works, by* JOSHUA TOULMIN, *D. D.* 3 vols. 8vo. pp. 685, 502, and 489.

THE author of this work has been long known to the public, as an ingenious and learned writer upon subjects of considerable importance. From a well written memoir of his life, prefixed to the third volume, we learn that he was descended from the pious Henrys, and that he received his academical education under the excellent Doddridge: a name of which the protestant dissenters will never cease to boast; which learning and piety will never cease to honour. Soon after he left Northampton, he appears to have joined himself to the general baptists; and for a long series of years he continued the labours of a

Digitized by Google

Christian minister, with ability and success, in the service of a congregation in Barbican, London, afterwards removed to Worship-street. He died in April 1797, in the 78th year of his age.

The work which is now presented to the public, was, we are told, a favourite production with the author himself. During his life he was very desirous that it should be published; and for this purpose, about the year 1792, caused proposals to be printed and circulated. "But though," says the editor, "his particular friends generously came forward to countenance the design, the names amounted only to about half the number which was requisite for putting it to the press." Finding so little encouragement, he relinquished his design, and, towards the close of his life, bequeathed the work to his sister: "hoping that, at least, she would not suffer it utterly to perish, even though it should not be able to go abroad." A bookseller, whose generosity Cowper has celebrated, and others of less name have frequently experienced, having taken upon himself the charge and risk of publishing the work, and the present editor having engaged to conduct it through the press, it is now presented to the public, and will, we doubt not, be esteemed as a valuable addition to English biblical literature.

The character which Dr. Toulmin has drawn of this posthumous publication, is full and accurate. In his own words we shall lay before the reader the remarks in which we are anticipated.

"It does not offer notes on every passage, or on connected paragraphs, but proposes illustrations of particular verses, drawn from all kinds of writers, in a long course of reading. The quotations, of which it consists, tend to illustrate the portions of scripture, under which they appear, by parallelism of sentiment and language, or by explanations of allusions or customs, or by remarks on grammatical idioms and anomalies, or by hints of other kinds. They are borrowed from a great variety of authors, Heathen, Jewish, and Christian, ancient and modern. In this mode of commenting, Mr. Bulkley has been preceded by Grotius, Raphelius, Westein, and many learned foreigners: and at home, Doddridge, Chandler, Bishop Pearce, and Wakefield, have furnished specimens of it. But this work, considering the fulness and extent to which the plan of it is pursued, may, I conceive, be considered as an *unique* in the English language.

"It promises, therefore, to be acceptable to the biblical student, and will supply the young preacher with many fine passages, from the stores of Greek and Latin erudition, with which to illustrate his representations of devotional and ethical truths derived from the Old and New Testament. It may also be expected, to procure from some fastidious and sceptical critics respect to the scriptures, when they find them abounding with sentiments, language, and modes of expression, similar to those which have been admired in Grecian and Roman classics: but the propriety and beauty of which, because they present themselves in the scriptures, they are apt to overlook. No reader can lay down the work, after inspection of it, without a deep conviction, that the religious and moral truths, which are contained in the scriptures, are congenial to the human mind in its most pure and improved state: and the irreligious and those who are indifferent to divine truth may blush, when they observe how a Plato, a Maximus Tyrius, an Epictetus, a Cicero, and a Seneca, spoke on topics of a religious and moral nature."

As affording a fair specimen of the plan upon which this work is conducted, we select the following passages.

"Proverbs, Ch. xxii. v. 6. Train up a child in the way he should go: and when he is old, he will not depart from it.

"In life, says Demophilus, (suppose it to be a drama) youth sustains the first act; to which therefore all are particularly attentive. Τυ βιυ, καθαπερ δραματος, πρωτον μερος εστιν η νεοτης· διο παντες αυτη προσεχυσιν. Holstein. p. 28.

"So again; It is in youth, as in plants, the first disposition shews that fruits in virtue may be expected. Ου τροπον επι των φυλων, και επι των νεων η πρωτη φυη προδεικνυσι τον μελλοντα καρπον της αρετης. P. 30.

"We have it observed in Plato, that opinions formed in youth are with greatest difficulty eradicated. Α αν τηλικυτος ων (νεος scil.) λαβῃ εν ταις δοξαις, δυσεκνιπτα τε και αμεταστατα φιλει γιγνεσθαι. De Repub. lib. ii. tom. i. p. 142. Massey

Τα μεν ——— ακυρωτον ——— ευδυς εκ παιδων, τοις θεους τε τιμησυσι και γονεας, την τε αλληλων φιλιαν μη περι σμικρα ποιησομενοις. Ibid. lib. ii. ad init.

"Such are the instructions to be given at the earliest period to children, if we wish to see them honouring the gods and their parents, or cultivating mutual friendship and love.

Τα παιδων μαθηματα θαυμαζον εχει τι μηνειον. Platon. Timæ. Op. p. 476.

"The instructions given in earliest age are wonderfully lasting and impressive.

— — — Nunc adbibe puro
Pectore verba, puer, nunc te melioribus offer,
Quo semel est imbuta recens, servabit odorem
Testa diu.

Horat. epist. ii. lib. i. ver. 67—69.

"Now young man, apply your mind to

Digitized by Google

(sound and wholesome) words and addict yourself to the best instructions: for I can assure you that the vessel will long retain the scent, which, when new, it had imbibed.

— Parvosque docent procumbere natos.
Thebaid. lib. x.

" And teach their little children to adore.

" See Stockton on Family Instruction, chap. iv. § 22. p. 287, 288.

" Compare 1 Sam. viii. 9.

" V. 13. The slothful man saith, There is a lion without, I shall be slain in the streets.

" See chap. xxvi. 13.

" V. 19—21. That thy trust may be in the Lord, I have made known to thee, this day, even to thee, &c.

" Vide Luke i. 1—4. 1 Pet. iii. 15."

" Matthew, Ch. vi. v. 14. For if ye forgive men their trespasses, your heavenly Father will also forgive you.

" Aristotle, Rhetor. lib. i. cap. ix. § 41. lays it down as a rule, that a man then honours his noble birth, when in proportion to the greatness of his extraction, he is so much the more placable (καλλιλαικωτερος) in his disposition.

" And ib. cap. xiv. § 21. almost in the very words of this and the following verse, makes it a point of virtue, to exercise forgiveness towards humanity.

" Isocrates, Panegyr. ed. Op. Steph. p. 49. makes it to be one object of the celebrated Grecian games, to abolish enmities. Ωστε— τας εχθρας—διαλυσαμενος—

" Cicero, in his Oration pro Ligario, speaks of it to the praise of Cæsar, that he forgot nothing but injuries: Nihil oblivisci soles, nisi injurias. And though we should look upon this to be mere flattery and compliment, yet it does not at all the less signify, that forgiveness of injuries was held both by Cicero and Cæsar, to be a very commendable and honourable quality.

" Epictetus, lib. ii. cap. x. p. 196. supposing one to ask, May I not hurt him that has injured me? advises him, in the first place, to ask himself, whether he has really received any injury or not, and to remember what the philosophers say upon this head; and then again, to ask the question, Did not this man hurt himself by injuring me? How then am I like to fare by returning it? Εγω εμαυτον μη βλαψω; And ibid. cap. xxii. he makes it a requisite property in one that would cultivate friendship with mankind, that he should be of a forgiving temper, Συγγνωμονικος.

" Maximus Tyrius, has a whole dissertation (ii.) against the revenging of injuries, and says, that he who does so, is guilty of a greater crime than the first aggressor (το πρωταιτιον αδικηκος), and that the allowing injuries to be returned opens a door to endless quarrels and animosities, illustrating the observation by a variety of historical facts.

" In Dion Cassius, lib. lxxi. p. 812. ed. Hanov. the emperor Antoninus, is made to speak of the forgiving injury, and the retaining friendship towards one who had violated the laws of friendship, as a conqueror's greatest reward; and if, says he, this should be thought incredible, let it be known that there are some remains of ancient virtue (αρχαιας αρετης) amongst us.

" Ælian, in his Various History. lib. xii. cap. xlix. relates the story of Phocion, who, after having long served his country, was adjudged to death; and when about to drink off the fatal cup, being asked by his surrounding friends, whether he had any thing to leave in charge to his son, Only this, says he, that he would not revenge upon the Athenians this injury done me. The historian adds, by way of remark; He that does not look upon this man with admiration, (οστις ουκ επαινει, &c.) appears to me to be a man of no sense or discernment whatsoever; agreeably to the observation of Andronicus Rhodius, in his Paraphrase upon the Ethics of Aristotle, lib. iv. cap. v. p. 165. ed. Cantab. that to forget and overlook injuries, is the mark of a noble and a magnanimous mind, μεγαλοψυχου."

It will appear from these citations, and from every page of the work, that the writings of the ancient heathens were not destitute of excellent moral sentiments: and there is indeed scarcely a precept in the gospel, to which a similar precept may not be found in the philosophical relics of Greece and Rome. But the learned reader well knows that these excellencies occur in the midst of the most striking and lamentable defects, and that these truths, so impressive in their detached state, are almost lost in the error and absurdity by which they are surrounded. The dictates of Christian morality appear in far different circumstances: in the scriptures of the New Testament there is no polluting mixture of erroneous sentiment; every maxim is founded upon reason and truth; no injunction is weakened by some neighbouring inconsistency; the principles upon which the conduct is directed to proceed are the most efficacious that can be formed; and the sanctions by which virtue is encouraged and vice restrained, the most powerful that can be announced.

Digitized by Google

ART. VI. *Observations upon some Passages in Scripture, which the Enemies to Religion have thought most obnoxious, and attended with difficulties not to be surmounted. By* JACOB BRYANT. 4to. pp. 256.

"IN the Treatises," observes the venerable author, "which immediately follow, I have taken in hand to consider and explain four particular Histories in the Sacred Writings, which have been esteemed by unbelievers the most exceptionable of any upon record. In consequence of this they have afforded room for much obloquy, and ridicule, which has arisen partly from the ignorance of such persons, in respect to the true purport of these narratives; and partly from their being unhappily disaffected towards the Scriptures in general. The first article, in the explanation of which I shall be engaged, is the account of Balaam, who was reproved by the animal upon which he rode: and this is said to have been effected by a human voice, and a verbal articulation given to a brute beast. The second article relates to Samson, who is described as defeating a host of Philistines with the jaw-bone of the same animal, an ass: the whole of which history is by many thought to be an idle detail. The third History, of which I shall take notice, is of the sun and moon, which are said to have stood still at the command of Joshua. The fourth, and last, is the History of the Prophet Jonah; and particularly of his being entombed in the body of a large fish, which is supposed to have been a whale."

The principle upon which Mr. Bryant proceeds in his attempt to explain the two first and the last of these portions of scripture, is that upon which he laboured to illustrate the miracles which Moses performed in Egypt. He considers the miracles recorded in scripture as generally pointed and significant; not only shewing marks of supernatural power, but having a uniform reference to the persons concerned, and to their history and religion; adapted to people who are at any time to suffer, and to those who are to be admonished by their punishment. (p. 3.)

The transaction which is recorded in the Book of Numbers, he does not consider, with Geddes, as a legendary tale; nor with Jortin, as in part visionary: he firmly believes in its perfect reality, and endeavours to shew that it was designed to bring contempt upon an object of idolatrous worship, and to demonstrate the superior power of the God of the Israelites. ——Balaam was a priest of Midian, and dwelt at Pethor, called by the Grecians Petra, where a city and an oracular temple had been founded, in which he appears to have been chief priest. In this oracular temple, the Onolatria, or worship of the ass, prevailed; a worship, according to ancient testimony, very general both in Egypt and in Asia, and of which both the Jews and the Christians were accused. This respect paid to the wild ass, arose from their sagacity in discovering springs of water in the dry and parched deserts. "They were reverenced for their superior forecast, and admitted as emblems of divination." p. 26. Balaam, the high priest in the oracular temple in which this deity presided, was hired by the king of Moab, to curse the children of Israel. Being of an obdurate heart, of a most obstinate and inflexible disposition, he sets out, determined, notwithstanding the repeated order of God to pronounce nothing but blessings, to vent nothing but curses. In his progress, the ass on which he rides rebukes him, and indicated most plainly that the omens and prodigies to which he had been habituated and devoted, and also his own God, declared against his process. Arrived in Moab, he is compelled by a power which he could not resist, to pronounce a series of wonderful prophecies to the confusion of Balak, and in favour of the people of God. The idolaters were thus taught that the oracles to which they trusted, and the deities on which they relied, were vanity; and the children of Israel were led to worship *Him* only, before whom those deities were humbled, and to whose power even their priests bore witness.

The same mysterious meaning lurks in the history of Samson, when he defeated the Philistines at Lehi, or Lechi, with the jaw-bone of an ass. The Philistines were holding a festival in honour of their deity, who was delivering their great enemy into their hands. In this festival they had sacrificed an ass, and one of the jaw-bones was lying on the spot, to which Samson was conducted: bursting asunder his bonds, and seizing this bone, he slew with it a thousand men. When this feat was accomplished, he threw away the jaw-bone, not because he had no further use for it, but to signify that the place was an object of hatred and abomination, and to instruct the children of Israel, that they

Digitized by Google

ought not to apply to the temple or fountain at Lechi, upon any occasion, nor to the deity there worshipped; but to a superior power the God of their fathers. This formidable weapon not only belonged to the animal they had been employing in their sacred rites, but had actually given name to the sacred fountain, which was there dedicated to the wild ass, and near which there was an oracular temple. Nothing, therefore, Mr. Bryant concludes, was more proper to shew the superiority of the God of Israel over the deities of Canaan, and to prevent any undue reverence among the descendants of Abraham, than the miracle performed by the Jewish hero.

It will, however, appear to our readers, as it appeared to us, a very extraordinary and incredible thing, that the Philistines should sacrifice, in honour of their deity, the very animal which, as a symbol of that deity, they reverenced.

Mr. Bryant thinks it "idle to object to the account in Scripture of Samson and the Foxes, as there could not be a more effectual method to hurt the enemy; for the foxes, drawing different ways, were undoubtedly impeded in their course, which must have given time for the fire to take effect. The story, in his opinion, is confirmed by the practice which prevailed in Rome, of exhibiting every year foxes and firebrands in the circus.

With respect to the third passage selected from the Xth ch. of the book of Joshua, and relating to the command of Joshua that the sun and moon should stand still, Mr. B. proceeds upon the same general principle of interpretation; but, with more boldness than he usually displays, pronounces a part of the history an interpolation. The 13th and 14th verses, he asserts, were originally a marginal note, and afterwards ignorantly taken into the text. The 12th verse, supported by Aquila and Symmachus, he renders thus, "Then spake Joshua to the Lord, in the day when the Lord delivered up the Amorites before the children of Israel: sun, upon (the high place of) Gibeon, be silent; and thou moon, in the valley of Ajalon." And he remarks,

"The words of Joshua are undoubtedly uttered in the name of God, and not addressed to the two fictitious luminaries, except in a secondary direction; and were probably a wish, and prayer, rather than a command. They proceeded from an ardent zeal to establish the worship and true religion of the Deity, and from a grateful sense of his goodness in affording such a miraculous victory. The purport and ultimate design of this address, though couched in a small compass, seems to be this: God of all victory, may thy people, from this instance of thy superiority, be confirmed in their duty, and worship thee alone. And may the Gibeonites, and their confederates, by this display of thy power, be weaned from their idolatry, and see the inferiority of their base deities. May the Sun, whose oracular temple stands upon Mount Gibeon, be dumb; and the Moon, whose shrine is in the valley of Aia-lon, be equally silent. May their oracles cease for ever."

The inhabitants of Gibeon had seen the object of their worship obscured by the miraculous storm of hail that destroyed their enemies, and were therefore prepared, according to the pious wish of the Jewish chief, to renounce their idolatry. The children of Israel received another proof of the supreme power of the true God, and were again warned not to forsake his service. In a note printed at the end of the volume, Mr. Bryant shews, that Gibeon was, in the days of Solomon, devoted to the worship of Jehovah; and he thence concludes, that the inhabitants became proselytes upon the event recorded in the passage he has thus interpreted.

Upon the same principles Mr. Bryant endeavours to account for the prodigy of Jonah's being swallowed by a whale, the account of which we are peremptorily told, (p. 200.) that "whoever is a sincere Christian ought, without any evasion, to believe." Jonah was a native of Galilee, and "one of the number of those who were unsettled in their principles, as Balaam had been before, and Judas was afterwards." Gath Heper, the place of his birth, was inhabited by "different people, who were either the remains of the ancient inhabitants, the Canaanites, or were a mixed race from Tyre, Hamath, and the cities of Syria, who had forced themselves into the country, and had brought their rites and religion with them." To these rites Jonah was devoted; and was even a prophet and a priest among the worshippers of the dove and the Cetus.—Hence he derived his name—the term Jonah, or *dove*, denoting a priest. Of the nature of the true God he was ignorant: he was his servant, only as being the most proper instrument to display his power. Not choosing to go as he was

Digitized by Google

directed to Nineveh, he fled to Joppa; and there put himself under the protection of the deities that were worshipped there, amongst which the whale or cetus held the principal rank. From Joppa, under the sanction of this deity, he intended to shelter himself from the eye of Providence, in Tarshish, or Tartessus; but a storm arising, as he was crossing the Mediterranean, he, according to the well-known relation, was thrown overboard, and instantly swallowed by that very fish—which had been the object of his reverence. Three days afterwards "the cetus was stranded, and within view of the temple of Derceto, and in sight of its numerous votaries, disgorged the apostate prophet." The mariners, upon their return, recounted the surprising tale of what had passed on board, and in the ocean. The inhabitants could not fail to receive a salutary lesson. The goddess they adored, the supposed empress of the seas, was disgraced: her votary had been entombed in the body of the animal that served as a symbol of her divinity; and the God of the Hebrews had displayed his power over their idol deities, and their infatuated worshippers. As a confirmation of this story, Mr. Bryant refers to the bones of a sea animal, which Pomponius Mela says, were preserved at Joppa; which Pliny informs us, were brought as a curiosity to Rome; and which Mr. Bryant concludes could be none else than the bones of the very whale that carried the prophet in its belly.

Of the truth and the importance of these disquisitions, we leave our readers to judge.

ART. VII. *The Divine Inspiration of the Jewish Scriptures, or Old Testament, asserted by St. Paul, 2 Tim.* iii. 16.; *and Dr. Geddes's Reasons against this Sense of his Words examined. By* ROBERT FINDLAY, D. D. *Professor of Theology in the University of Glasgow.* 8vo. pp. 104.

THERE are some passages of scripture which have exercised the critical skill of learned theologians, from a very early period of the Christian church to the present day, and which we apprehend will continue to divide the sentiments of interpreters till the end of time. The passage which forms the subject of the work before us, is one of this number. Of doubtful meaning as to the terms which are employed, and the collocation of those terms, it will be explained, with greater or less latitude, according to the opinions which have been previously formed respecting the general system of the Christian faith. Let not the unbeliever conclude, that any injurious reflection concerning the authority of scripture, may from such instances be fairly drawn. Were some of the most celebrated works of profane antiquity to be brought into one canonical collection, and profession of faith in the facts or dogmas which this collection would contain, connected with the prejudices, the feelings, and the interests of men, as those of the sacred canon now are, in the place of one difficulty that now arises, thousands would spring up. Controversies without end would occupy the labours, and influence the passions of polemics; and the *odium theologicum*, the constant object of the sceptic's ridicule, and of the real christian's sorrow, would be mild and harmless in comparison of the infuriate and implacable zeal which would fire the breasts of embattled controversialists. Of no such degrading spirit does the work before us afford the faintest specimen, or encouragement. As a critic, and as a christian, Dr. Findlay claims our reverence and our applause.

Dr. Geddes, in the preface to the 2d Vol. of his Translations of the Bible, with great honesty, but with little caution or prudence, avowed his disbelief of the inspiration of the books of the Old Testament, in terms that could not fail of proving highly offensive to the generality of Christians. The well-known passage in the 2d epistle of Paul to Timothy, seeming to present a strong objection to his decision, he professes to examine it with particular attention.—The result of his examination is, *that the present reading is not genuine.*

The arguments upon which this result was formed, are: "the copulative καὶ, which alone makes for the present reading, is wanting in all the ancient versions except the Ethiopic; also, in some Greek copies still extant. It was not read by Clement of Alexandria, Theodorus of Mopsuesta, nor by the Latin fathers Tertullian, Cassiodorus, and the anonymous authors of two treatises ascribed to Cyprian and Ambrose; all of

whom seem to have quoted from the Italic version. The construction, as it now stands, is awkward and ungrammatical; even if εστι were inserted between γραφη and θεοπνευστος it would make the apostle write an absurdity; for the whole body of scripture is never expressed, or alluded to, without the article; either αι γραφαι or η γραφη."

These arguments Dr. Findlay very fully and very candidly examines.

He allows that the copulative και is wanting in all the ancient versions except the Æthiopic, and that there is no indication in these versions that it existed in their Greek copy; but it cannot hence, he thinks, be argued, that it was not really in the Greek copies that they used, since translators and interpreters are known, and generally allowed to use great liberty with such small particles, sometimes omitting and sometimes interpolating them. Dr. Findlay also acknowledges that Dr. Geddes is accurate with respect to Cyprian, Cassiodorus, Ambrose, and Theodorus; but he contends that Clement and Tertullian cannot be proved not to have read και: and that it is not clear that the Latin fathers did all follow the same Latin translation as their guide. Of the Greek copies, only one is found to want the article, and that is comparatively of a recent date, and of no authority. The Christian fathers, who have written Greek commentaries, ought not, Dr. Findlay owns, to decide; yet it is worthy of remark, that Theodoret, Chrysostom, and others, have manifestly read και. Concerning the proper position of the word εστι, he observes, that there are several instances where it is introduced with unquestionable propriety by our translators, before the first of two adjectives, between which the same particle και intervenes, as here. Two passages occur in the former epistle to Tim. ii. 3. and iv. 4. The omission of the causal particle γαρ, the professor shews to be much in the apostle's manner; and that γραφη without the article may properly denote the Jewish scriptures: he argues from the apostle's mention of them in the preceding verse; from the occurrence of the term in other passages, in which it evidently bears that sense, particulasly 2 Pet. i. 20, 21, and John xix, 37.; from the authority of Josephus; and from the use of many words in the Greek language, such as νομος, λογος, &c. without the article. Dr. Findlay then adds some observations to prove that και ought not to be rendered *also*, and that the construction which others besides Dr. Geddes would give the words, making θεοπνευστος not a part of the subject of St. Paul's position but the predicate, is neither natural nor just. He then proceeds to shew more fully, that the Greek fathers and commentators agree, in giving to the passage the sense which is commonly ascribed to it; and that the majority of later interpreters are of the same opinion. The doctor then advances one step further, and maintains that if it were allowed that the ancient copies did not read και, they might nevertheless bear the meaning which is usually ascribed to the passage; and that there is reason to believe they were so understood by the fathers of the Latin or western church, and by the Syriac writers Ephrem and Ebed-jesu. He concludes the whole with some arguments to prove that πας should be here explained in the collective, not in the distributive sense.

Such is the substance of the little work which is here presented to the world, by a scholar, a gentleman, and a christian. Though not in every instance convinced by the author's reasoning, we have received from it much satisfaction, and we regret that he who was the cause of its being produced, is far from the reach of the professor's arguments, and alike incapable of acknowledging their validity, or attempting their refutation.

As we were examining this tract, a few observations occurred to us, which we shall beg leave here to state. It is true, that neither Clement nor Tertullian can be proved to have had και in their copies of the Greek Testament, neither can it be conjectured from the passages produced from their writings, that it was inserted in them. To us, they appear to determine little. It is, however, worthy of remark, that by both these fathers, the divine inspiration of the scriptures seems to be drawn as a consequence of their utility; and so to throw some light upon the position of εστι. We understand Clement as saying: "The Scriptures composed of these holy letters, he (Paul) calls divinely inspired, *because* they are profitable; ωφελιμους εσους": and the Latin interpreter appears to have understood these words in the same sense, when he rendered them, "*ut quæ sint utiles.*"

Digitized by Google

So also Tertullian: "*legimus omnem scripturam ædificationi habilem divinitus inspirari;*" which seems to us no other than the converse of the proposition, πασα γραφη θεοπνευστος εστι ωφελιμος. This passage is misquoted by Dr. F. It occurs not in the treatise "*de Cultu Fœminarum*," but in that entitled, "*de habitu muliebri.*" Cap. iii. In the treatise to which Dr. Findlay has erroneously referred, there is a passage which seems to have, at least, a remote allusion to the text before us: "*Nulla annunciatio spiritus sancti, ad presentum tantum materiam et non ad omnem utilitatis occasionem dirigi, et suscipi potest.*" Edit. Heins. p. 165.

Though we do not deny that γραφη may mean in some passages, the whole Jewish canon, we do not think that in all the instances which our author has quoted, it has necessarily that extensive import. The term in John xix. 37, in our opinion, signifies nothing more than *passage*, "*locus unus e libro quodam sacro Judæorum*; *dictum scripturæ sacræ.*" Vide Schleusner in verb. The adjective ιερα most clearly demonstrates that its signification must here be restricted. Nor is the instance from Josephus, Antiq. Lib. iii. c. 1. more satisfactory. The word may be considered as signifying no more than the Pentateuch, or even that particular book of the Pentateuch which contained the history of the miracle cited by the historian.

But we do not mean, nor is it our province, to examine every position in the work before us. The candid and ingenious examiner, will perhaps think with us, that some of Dr. Geddes's arguments are here ably controverted; that Dr. Findlay has not succeeded in all his positions; that if the present reading be retained, θεοπνευστος must have a meaning different from that which is usually assigned to it; and that divine inspiration cannot be proved to belong to every part of the Jewish canon, from a text of such dubious import.

ART. VIII. *An Illustration of the Hypothesis proposed in the Dissertation on the Origin and Composition of our Three first Canonical Gospels. With a Preface and an Appendix, containing Miscellaneous Matters. The Whole being a Rejoinder to the anonymous Author of the Remarks on Michaelis and his Commentator.* By HERBERT MARSH, B. D. F.R.S. *Fellow of St. John's College, Cambridge.* 8vo.

THE hypothesis proposed in the dissertation, and here most strenuously and ably vindicated, we cannot but consider as now so firmly established, that any further attempts to overthrow it, must be as unsuccessful as those of the author of the Remarks. There may be many who from want of time, or of inclination, have not made themselves acquainted with this curious subject of inquiry; we cannot, therefore, as it appears to us, perform a service more acceptable, than the devoting of a few of our columns to an abridged view of this interesting discovery. And that we may be in less danger of mis-representing, we shall, for the most part, employ Mr. Marsh's words.

Whoever has read a Greek Harmony of the Gospels, must have been struck by the remarkable similarity which prevails throughout the three first Evangelists, who agree not only in relating the same things in the same manner, but likewise in the same words. This extraordinary agreement could not be found between three historians, who had not some connexion with each other, either mediate or immediate. "For even eye-witnesses to the same facts, if they make their reports independently of each other, will never relate them in the same manner, and still less in the same words"—The verbal harmony of the three first Evangelists, is therefore inexplicable on any other than one of two suppositions, either that St. Matthew, St. Mark, and St. Luke copied the one from the other, or that all three drew from a common source. Of these the former has been generally maintained, and it resolves itself into six possible cases; four of which have been adopted by different harmonists.

1. Matthew copied from Mark, and Luke from both.
2. Matthew copied from Luke, and Mark from both.
3. Mark copied from Matthew, and Luke from both.
4. Mark copied from Luke, and Matthew from both.
5. Luke copied from Matthew, and Mark from both.
6. Luke copied from Mark, and Matthew from both.

The fourth and the sixth cases have been used by no writer: The *first*, has been partly assumed by Storr. The *second* has been assumed by Busching. The *third*, by Grotius, Mill, Wetstein, Town-

son, and either wholly or in part by many other theologians. The *fifth* by Owen and Griesbach.

None of these hypotheses is, however, sufficient to account for all the phænomena which are observable in the three first gospels, nor exempt from serious objections. For this reason other critics have endeavoured to explain the verbal harmony that prevails in our three first gospels, on the supposition that they were derived from a common source.

The first writer to whom this thought occurred (unless indeed the phrase αυτη ἡ γραφη of Epiphanius, which he has not explained, denotes the same) was Le Clerc, Hist. Ecclesiastica (Amst. 4to. 1716.) p. 429.: but he appears to have made no further use of his opinion; and though it was delivered in very remarkable words, it attracted no attention and lay dormant upwards of sixty years. Michaelis revived it in the third edition of his Introduction to the New Testament, published in 1777, still retaining the opinion that Mark copied from Matthew. In the same year, Priestley published a similar thought in his Observations on the Harmony of the Evangelists. In 1782, Professor Koppe, at Gottingen, published a short Latin Dissertation, in which he explained the examples of verbal harmony, in the three first gospels, on the supposition that in those examples the Evangelists retained the words which had been used in more ancient gospels, such as those of which Luke speaks in his preface. He denied that one Evangelist copied from another; and Michaelis afterwards did the same, adopting the supposition that the document or documents were Greek. Semler, in his remarks on Townson, published in 1783, was the first who delivered to the public, in a very cursory and indeterminate manner indeed, the hypothesis of a common Hebrew or Syriac document or documents, from which the principal materials of the three first gospels were derived. In 1784, Lessing's Theological Reliques were published, in which is a short essay, written five years before Semler produced his remarks; and asserting with more precision the hypothesis of a common Syriac or Chaldee original, known to the ancients by the name of the Gospel according to the Hebrews, or the twelve apostles. Lessing was opposed, in 1786, by Storr; and, in 1789, by Griesbach.—But in 1790, Riememer, professor of divinity in Halle, not only adopted Lessing's Hypothesis, but improved it, and laid the foundation of the still greater improvements which it has since received. In the year 1793, the theological faculty at Gottingen, proposed the question concerning the origin of the three first gospels, for a prize dissertation. Halfeld and Russwurm, both students in that university, and who had attended Eichhorn's lectures, were candidates. Both adopted the hypothesis of a common Hebrew or Chaldee document or documents; but Halfeld, to whom the prize was adjudged, supposed that several documents were used by the Evangelists, whereas Russwurm maintained that they used only different copies of one and the same document which he calls the original gospel, and which he did not consider either as the gospel according to the Hebrews, or written by St. Matthew. During the time that the dissertations were preparing for the prize, Eichhorn was likewise composing a dissertation on the same subject, and in the year 1794 he published it, in the 5th vol. of his very valuable periodical work, "The Universal Library of Biblical Literature." This is by far the most important essay which appeared in defence of the hypothesis of a common Hebrew or Chaldee original, previous to that by Mr. Marsh. Eichhorn supposes, as Niemeyer had done, that only one document was used by all three Evangelists, but that various additions had been made in various copies of it; and that three different copies, thus variously enriched, were respectively used by our three first Evangelists. He proceeded further, and having analysed the three first gospels, he discovered *forty-two* sections, or facts, common to the three, which contains a short but well-connected representation of the principal transactions in the life of Christ from his baptism to his death, and such as might be expected in the first sketch of a narrative of our Lord's ministry. But these forty-two sections, which are to be found in our three first Evangelists, are not treated by each with equal diffuseness; for sometimes circumstances are mentioned by two of them, which are not noticed by the third; and each frequently introduces circumstances which are unnoticed by the other two. To the original text, therefore, of the common document, which in its primitive state contained only so much matter of the forty-two sections as is common to all the three Evangelists, various additions

were made in the several transcripts which were taken of it, and these additions may have been added in the copy used by the Evangelist, or by the Evangelist himself. With respect to the language in which the original document was written, he is decidedly of opinion that it was Hebrew or Chaldee. A third class of critics have united both these hypotheses: Bolten, at Altona, in the year 1792, and Herder, at Riga, in 1797. Bolten supposed that the Hebrew gospel of Matthew was the groundwork of our three first gospels: Herder, that the common document was oral. They both agree, amongst many points of difference, in maintaining that the Evangelists had recourse to each other's gospel in composing their own.

But not one of the hypotheses which had been hitherto framed, was sufficient of itself to account for all the phænomena that occur in the three first gospels. The supposition that the succeeding Evangelists copied from the preceding, even if it accounts for the matter which is common to all the three Evangelists, and for the example of verbal agreement, does not account either for the important matter which one Evangelist has less than another; or for the examples of apparent disagreement; or for the examples in which the same thing is related in different, but synonymous, terms. On the other hand, if we reject the supposition that the succeeding Evangelists copied from the preceding, and suppose that our three first Greek gospels were derived from the same Greek document; this hypothesis, even if it accounts both for the matter which the Evangelists have in common with each other, and for the matter which they have not in common with each other, and also for the examples of verbal agreement; still leaves the numerous examples, in which the Evangelists relate the same things in different but synonymous terms, wholly unexplained. Further, if we adopt the hypothesis that our three first Greek gospels contain three independent translations of the same *Hebrew* or *Chaldee* original, however well we may be able to explain the other phænomena, we shall never be able to account for the numerous and long examples, in which sometimes St. Matthew and St. Mark, at other times St. Matthew and St. Luke, agree word for word. And if, in order to account for their verbal agreement, we suppose that the Evangelists used their common document, not in its original language, but only in a Greek translation; we shall be at a loss to explain their frequent use, at other times, not of the same, but of synonymous expressions. Lastly, if we combine the hypothesis, that the Evangelists used a common Hebrew document, with the hypothesis, that they had recourse likewise the one to the writings of the other, we shall find that several phænomena, which are explicable by the former hypothesis alone, are rendered inexplicable by its junction with the latter.

Such was the state of the controversy, when Mr. Marsh, as he informs us, sat down not to write, but to read; he examined all that had been written on every side, and found no opinion that had been delivered tenable; he determined therefore to try whether new data might not be discovered, which might lead to something determinate. With this view he formed a Greek harmony of the three first gospels, divided into classes, and containing only such parallel passages as are delivered in the same, or nearly the same words. Having formed this table, the next step was to analyse it; and the result was the discovery of many very remarkable phænomena in the verbal harmony of the gospels, which till that time were totally unknown.

He found, as Eichhorn had, that there were forty-two general sections contained in all the Evangelists; that in these there are several examples, in which all the three gospels verbally coincide, but only for two or three sentences together; that there are many very long and very remarkable instances of verbal agreement between Matthew and Mark, but only when the sections occupy the same place in each gospel; that Mark invariably agrees with Matthew, where Luke agrees also with Matthew. He likewise found, that in these general sections there are frequent instances of verbal agreement between Mark and Luke, though the instances of disagreement are more numerous; but that Mark invariably agrees verbally with Luke, where Matthew agrees verbally with Luke. He discovered too that in several sections, Mark's text agrees in one place with that of Matthew, and in another with that of Luke: and therefore appears at first sight a compound of both; but that there is not a single instance of verbal coincidence between Matthew and Luke only; and, consequently, that no such

compound can appear either in the text of Matthew or of Luke.

In the additional matter of these forty-two sections in Matthew and Mark, there are several instances of verbal agreement, but some of the longest additions are made in totally different words. In the additions common to Mark and Luke, though very numerous, there is only one instance of verbal agreement; whereas, in those common to Matthew and Luke, the verbal coincidence is very remarkable, and the more so as in the general matter they disagree.

In the whole sections, which are found only in Matthew and Mark, the verbal agreement is very general. In the whole sections contained in Mark and Luke, but not in Matthew, the verbal agreement is confined to one single passage. In the sections peculiar to Matthew and Luke, the verbal coincidence is very remarkable.

Such are the facts which Mr. Marsh discovered; and upon these facts he framed the following hypothesis:

"St. Matthew, St. Mark, and St. Luke, all three, used copies of a common Hebrew document; the materials of which St. Matthew, who wrote in Hebrew, retained in the language in which he found them, but St. Mark and St. Luke translated them into Greek. They had no knowledge of each other's gospels: but St. Mark and St. Luke, besides their copies of the Hebrew document, used a Greek translation of it, which had been made before any of the additions had been inserted. Lastly, as the gospels of St. Mark and St. Luke contain Greek translations of Hebrew materials, which were incorporated into St. Matthew's Hebrew gospel, the person who translated St. Matthew's Hebrew gospel into Greek frequently derived assistance from the gospel of St. Mark, where Mark had matter in common with St. Matthew; and in those places, but in those places only where St. Mark had no matter in common with St. Matthew, he had frequently recourse to St. Luke's gospel."

In addition to this, Mr. Marsh supposes that beside the Hebrew document, which was used by all the three Evangelists, there was another which he calls supplemental, containing a collection of precepts, parables, and discourses, placed without any regard to chronological order, used only by Matthew and Luke, and from which they derived those sections peculiar to themselves, and which are inserted in places that do not correspond to each other.

This system might be thought to render the Evangelists mere translators and transcribers, and this has actually been objected to it, but without sufficient ground. Mr. Marsh has represented "each of them as acting with the freedom of authors, and *augmenting* the common matter by frequent insertions of circumstances, or explanatory annotations which are not inserted by the other two."

Having, with great labour and ingenuity, framed this hypothesis, which does not pretend to rest upon historic evidence, the author rigidly submitted it to the only test by which its real value can be tried; he applied it to the solution of the various phænomena which in his laborious analysis of the three first gospels, he had discovered; and the end to be obtained was answered. The difficulties which upon every preceding system still remained, were upon this removed; and every instance of verbal agreement, or of verbal disagreement, satisfactorily accounted for. But it had not been long before the public, when an anonymous writer (now supposed by some to be the Bishop of Oxford) published "Remarks on Michaelis and his Commentator, by way of Caution to Students in Divinity," in which this new hypothesis was attacked with much animosity, and no little unfairness. To these Remarks Mr. Marsh very shortly returned an able, and to us a satisfactory answer. His anonymous "adversary," as he uniformly stiles him, republished his "Remarks," with a short preface prefixed, and 70 pages of notes, subjoined by way of reply to Mr. Marsh's answer. This has called forth the "Illustration of the Hypothesis" now before us, and which we hesitate not to pronounce a complete vindication of himself and of his system, from some very illiberal charges, and some totally unfounded objections, brought by the remarker; and, at the same time, a justification of all the charges which he had advanced against that writer.

The anonymous objector to Mr. M.'s hypothesis says, that he "must maintain that it derogates, or at least advise others to consider whether it doth not derogate, from the authenticity, integrity, credibility, and inspiration of the gospel." How any one, who pretended to understand the hypothesis, could thus speak of it, we are at a loss to discover; but we suspect that the remarker is not even yet fully master of the subject which he has laboured to controvert. The authenticity of the gospels, espe-

cially by Mark and Luke, Mr. Marsh has shewn is established by his hypothesis: that although the hypothesis relating solely to the origin of the gospel, has no concern with the state in which they have *descended* to the present age; yet the principle upon which it is founded, the verbal testimony of the three first Evangelists, affords a strong evidence, that they remained unaltered during the first hundred years, and thus "carries the proof of their integrity up to the very source, which never had been done before." Nor does the hypothesis derogate from the inspiration of the gospels, since it will admit, as clearly as any other, "a never-ceasing superintendence of the Holy Spirit to guard the Evangelists from error." These are the subjects upon which the first part of the Illustration is employed. In the *second* part Mr. Marsh silences the objection which the remarker had drawn from the want of historical evidence; he shews how the original document may have been lost and forgotten, though he cannot "produce an instance," as his "Adversary" requires him to do, "of any originals *the very memory of which has been blotted out and annihilated*;" and he convicts him of having advanced many futile and absurd objections, and of wilful misrepresentation or gross ignorance in multiplying the *two* sources, from which Mr. Marsh derives the three first gospels, into *ten*. He then advances to the analysis of the instances which the anonymous remarker has produced from the Evangelists, to prove that the phænomena, for which the hypothesis is to account, do not exist; and he shows in the most satisfactory manner, that they are either erroneously stated, or confirm the existence of the phænomena.

Through this examination our limits will not permit us to follow the learned author, nor to do more than to observe that he has substantiated the accusation which he before alleged against his "anonymous adversary," of having borrowed his learning, and unfairly used it; and proved, in a very masterly manner, all that he had asserted respecting the Απομνημονευματα of Justin.

We thus take our leave of this truly learned author, sincerely thanking him for the service which he will be found to have rendered to the cause of Revelation, when his hypothesis shall be more generally understood, and the consequences deduced from it, to which we are convinced it leads.

ART. IX. *A Dissertation concerning the Writer of the Fourth Gospel; or, Considerations tending to shew that John the Apostle and John the Evangelist were different Persons. Dedicated to the Memory of Dr. George Campbell, late Principal and Professor of Divinity in the Marishall College, Aberdeen. By the Rev. Mr.* JAMES M'CONOCHIE, *Minister of the Gospel at Crawford.* 8vo. pp. 117.

CRITICS have ever experienced some difficulty in reconciling the character of the beloved disciple and the Evangelist, with that of the son of Zebedee and the Apostle; but, as far as we know, it has never occurred to any person but the author of the treatise before us, that they were two different persons: "It appears to me," he observes, p. 7. "that John, the son of Zebedee, or John the apostle, whose occupation, before he was called by our Saviour, had confined him to the sea of Tiberias and its banks, was not the author of this (John's) gospel; that the author was a native of Jerusalem, or of the land of Judea, near to Jerusalem; that he, or some of his relations, had property in the city of Jerusalem, or near to it; that he attended upon Jesus when he was at Jerusalem, or when he tarried in what is called in the New Testament, the land of Judea, but that he seldom accompanied him into Galilee." He further observes, p. 8. that he is "led to maintain this solely from a persuasion, that such a supposition will be found to cast light upon various facts and incidents, recorded in that and the other gospels, which are but very imperfectly explained on the common system."

In order to establish this new hypothesis, the author collects all the notices he finds in the three first gospels, concerning John the Evangelist, and then considers what John says of himself in his own gospel.

He remarks that "John the apostle is no where mentioned without his brother James, and both are commonly *designed* the sons of Zebedee;" whence he would conclude that there must have been another disciple called John. The title given to the sons of Zebedee accords not, he thinks, with the character of the Evangelist: and in the reply which Jesus made to the twelve upon occasion of a dispute concerning precedency, he

" descries the features of a beloved disciple." The youth whom Jesus presented to the twelve was John.

From the general character of the fourth gospel, as well as from several detached passages, Mr. M'Conochie argues that it was not the production of a fisherman, nor of one who had been born, or commonly resided in Galilee. The most material arguments are drawn from the conclusion of this gospel; and many circumstances are pointed out, which tend to shew that the transactions of the night preceding the crucifixion, lead to the conviction, that the disciple who leaned on the breast of Jesus, was not the son of Zebedee. Two of these we shall here select.

" He," John the Evangelist, " went with Jesus into the palace of the high priest, and he intimates the reason :—he was known to the high priest. Here I would ask, if this was John the apostle, what opportunities had he of being known to the high priest? His occupation had confined him to the sea of Tiberias and its banks; and since he became a follower of Jesus, he was in the wrong way to become acquainted with Caiaphas. But if he was an inhabitant of Jerusalem, and a person of some reputation among the Jews there, he might well be acquainted with Caiaphas before he became high priest."

" John was so well known in the palace, that as soon as he spake to the damsel who kept the door, Peter was admitted. He is no sooner admitted, however, than his air and habit discover him to be a stranger, and his speech bewrayeth him to be a Galilean. First one servant attacks him with questions, then another, and then a third. All this time the least suspicion falls not upon John. If then it was John the apostle who was now present in the hall of the high priest, how came it that his air, garb, and language, did not bewray him also to be a Galilean? whence came it that John, the son of Zebedee, should have got so much the better of his Galilean accent, and his rustic appearance, as to escape all interrogatory; while poor Peter, who had been his companion for life, and who had come up from Galilee with him, was so hard put to it in these respects? I am persuaded that, on the common hypothesis, these questions are unanswerable. But allowing that John the Evangelist was an inhabitant of Jerusalem or its vicinity, the whole matter is easily cleared. His air and accent were those of a townsman. These, with the circumstance of his being known to the high priest and his family, set him above all suspicion of being connected with Jesus.

" No two persons could be more differently circumstanced than John and Peter in the palace of the high priest. Every thing that befals Peter indicates the stranger; the conduct of John implies acquaintance, if not intimacy."

This reasoning proceeds upon the supposition, that by the phrase " *another disciple*" the Evangelist denotes himself. Of this there have been considerable doubts: but as these have arisen from its never having been supposed that the Evangelist was not the apostle, if the other arguments advanced by the author before us should induce any one to believe that they were different persons, the fact here produced will be acknowledged to add much to the confirmation of the hypothesis. Again,

" ' Jesus seeing his mother, and the disciple standing by whom he loved, he saith unto his mother, Woman, behold thy son; and to that disciple he saith, behold thy mother.' These words have a brevity and emphasis peculiar to themselves. To me it appears the parents of the disciple to whom Jesus here addresses himself were dead; at least that he had no mother, to call off his attention from the duty which Jesus lays upon him. Now we know that the mother of Zebedee's children was yet alive; that she was one of the company which came up with Jesus to this passover; and was, at this moment, a mournful spectator of the awful scene. The words of Jesus to John I would thus paraphrase: ' Thou art deprived of thy parents, my mother is about to be deprived of her son; treat her as a mother for my sake:' and his words to his mother thus, ' Thou art about to be left childless; behold, in this young man, the disciple whom I love, in him thou wilt experience a son; treat him as such.'

" I would also observe, that what is here said certainly favours the supposition that John had his house or property near at hand; whereas John the apostle was at a great distance from his home; not to mention that he forsook all to follow Jesus. He was not therefore in a capacity of immediately fulfilling the duty here recommended, which it is expressly said John the Evangelist did: ' From that hour he took her to his own home'."

In a postscript the author observes,

" In the Romish martyrology, I find an anniversary marked for the death of John the Apostle, and an anniversary for the death of the Evangelist. The knights of Malta take their designation from John of Jerusalem."

We shall offer no remarks either to confirm or to controvert this novel hypothesis. We recommend it however to the attention of theologians. It will

solve what have hitherto been considered as very serious difficulties; and, in the hands of some one more accustomed to conduct investigations of this nature, than we suspect the author is, it may be made to assume a form which may produce a fuller conviction of its truth.

ART. X. *Six more Letters to Granville Sharp, Esq. on his Remarks upon the Uses of the Article in the Greek Testament. By* GREGORY BLUNT, *Esq.* 8vo. pp. 195.

WE read with more attention, than we were soon convinced they deserve, the Remarks of Granville Sharp, and the letters addressed to him by Mr. Wordsworth. It appeared to us, according to the motto selected by the writer before us from bishop Pearson's works, that the deity ascribed to our Saviour ought not to be tried by any such kind of school divinity: and that no fundamental doctrine should be examined, censured, and condemned by ὁ, ἡ, τὸ. The theory of Mr. Sharp was however proposed and defended with such imposing confidence, and so many hard words and illiberal reflections were cast out against those, whose creed is not exactly such as is generally professed upon the subject of the person of Christ, that we not only expected, but were desirous that some champion would appear to take up the gauntlet which the redoubted knights of the Greek article had thrown down. Gregory Blunt, though skilful and valorous, is not exactly the person upon whom our choice would have rested; nor does he use his weapons according to the rules which we should have prescribed. He has fought, however; and impartiality compels us to confess that he has prevailed: and no wonder, since he opposed the weak flourishes of a magician's airy wand, by a ponderous club of argument; and sent against the rust-eaten armour of mouldering fathers, the arrows of reason,

ἀνδρα βέλη
Φοίβοιτα συνεπόσην·

To remain uninterested spectators of the contest was impossible; but we should have been better pleased had our knight Gregory conducted himself in a more courteous manner, appeared more sensible of the dignity of the character he sustained, and withheld himself from pouring ridicule upon a fallen foe. Upon entering the field he thus salutes his adversary:

"I have previously declare, that though I don't know you, yet from all I hear, I firmly believe you to be as honest and good a man as myself, and am willing to suppose that you may be a much better, already possessed of many virtues which I am only labouring to acquire; and that in this persuasion I greatly reverence your character, and should be sorry to give you pain: though I must say, that you don't know much about the Greek article, nor about christianity, or you would never have dreamt of looking for the latter in the former.

"When I say christianity, I do not mean practical christianity, which, in my opinion, formed upon a careful perusal of my bible, though not it seems in your's, is the only real, genuine christianity; containing all that Jesus and his apostles ever put into their religion. No, Sir; God forbid I should derogate in the smallest degree from your knowledge of that christianity, which cannot be described in fewer, or better words than those of the apostle, "the cross of Christ;" and which consists in crucifying all our worldly and selfish appetites and lusts, and in being "dead indeed unto sin." This christianity, which, because it was so plain and simple, and had so little to do with learned systems, disputes, and controversies, was foolishness to the Greeks of old, as it still continues to be to many modern Greeks and disputers of this world, and is in danger of being rendered every day more and more foolish by such labours as your's—this christianity you and I, and all of us, understand well enough; because the true religion of Jesus is so plain, that no one ever did, or could misunderstand it; though none of us cultivate it with such care and strictness as we ought to do; and for that reason alone we live so uncomfortably together, and have so much wretchedness and misery to complain of among us; and must continue so to live and to complain till our christianity be less in our heads, and more in our hearts.

"No, Sir; when I say that you do not know much about christianity, I mean theoretical christianity;—a thing which you and many others, for want of knowing better, suppose to be, in some shape or other, the christianity of the scriptures, but which, in every shape that it can assume, and it can and does occasionally assume a greater variety of forms than ever Proteus did, has nothing of christianity belonging to it but the name. I mean the motley christianity which men fabricate by sewing scraps and bits of texts together, as they make a history of the Jews out of Homer,* or of the gos-

* "Homerus Hebraizans."

Digitized by Google

pel out of Virgil;* a christianity which must be dug out of Greek articles and plural Hebrew 'nouns and verbs, and such abominable' holes, as no christian, who is not so hoodwinked by the nursery, the church, or the state, as to be quite blind to the broad religion of the bible, would ever think of groping in for 'the light of the world.' (John viii. 12.)

"We are told, that apostolical christianity, which is to this, Hyperion to a satyr, was not hidden in a corner, (Acts xxvi. 26.); but this 'thing of shreds and patches' is to be found nowhere in the bible but in holes and corners. And when, by 'observing times,† and using enchantments and witchcraft,‡ and by dealing with familiar spirits and wizards,'§ (2 Chron. xxxiii. 6.) some theological Manasseh drags it forth to view, it comes reluctantly by inches, and appears at last in such a questionable shape, that if a christian can but muster up courage to look it steadily in the face, he will soon see what an unsubstantial visionary form it is, and will behold it instantly shrink from his sight; and if he will but continue to pursue it with a fearless eye, and fixed regard, will find it vanish into air, 'and what seemed corporal, melt as breath into the wind.'‖ Let him but follow the apostle's advice (1 Cor. xiv. 20.), and not be, what the generality of christians are upon all questions of this sort, children, afraid to use their understandings; but let him be upon this, as upon every other matter that concerns his religion, though a child in malice, yet a man in understanding, and he will see and know, what I have said you at present seem to know so little of, that all theoretical christianity is 'man's device' (Acts xvii. 29.), the mere coinage of the brain, the 'trumpery' of fathers and councils, of theologues and schoolmen, of 'eremites and friars, white, black and gray."

In the course of the contest he deals this mighty blow:

"By the application of your rule to the Greek text of the following passages, you may shew that there is no difference, not only between a street and a lane (Luke xiv. 21.), but between a high-way and a hedge (ibid. verse 23.); not only between love and peace (2 Cor. xiii. 11.), but between consolation and salvation (2 Cor. i. 6.) You may prove not only that high-priests and scribes, (Matt. ii. 4.), that scribes and pharisees, (Matt. v. 20.), that scribes and elders, (ib. xxvii. 41.), and that publicans and sinners, (ibid. ix. 11.) were the same persons; but moreover, that pharisees and sadducees, (Matt. iii. 7. xvi. 1, 6, 11, 12.), apostles and prophets, (Ephes. ii. 20.), buyers and sellers, (Matt. xxi. 12.), were the same; that Mary Magdalene was the same as Mary the mother of Joses, (Mark xv. 47.); and that there was no difference between Joses himself and his brother James, (Matt. xxvii. 56.), between Peter and John, (Acts viii. 14.)

"From Luke ix. 28, you may, by virtue of your excellent rule, extract a new, secondary, apostolical trinity, by way of supplement to that commonly received; and that too, all from one text, without being forced, as is the case in manufacturing the old trinity, to dig a little bit of mystery out of a text in one corner of the bible, next to splice that to a bit more out of another corner, afterwards to eke out that with a bit from a third, thus hopping about from text to text; and after all the toil and labour bestowed on it, after all the twisting and turning, and vamping, and soleing and heel-piecing, to rest satisfied with producing what to a common eye, not tutored and trained from infancy to look askew at it, appears just as broad as it is long, though when it is squinted at, through a theological magnifying glass, such as you make use of to turn points of separation into 'lines of connection,' (p. 48.) many persons are apt to fancy that it looks 'nearly three times as long as it is broad.'¶

"From Luke viii. 1, 2, you might shew, by your rule, that the twelve apostles were all women; as you might make it appear, from the same evangelist, (xxiii. 27.), were likewise the great company of people that

* "Virgilius Evangelizans."

† "For the purpose of making out the doctrines of pre-existence, the rites and discipline of particular seasons, &c. &c."

‡ "Conjuring with supplications, adorations, and invocations, &c. and juggling with names and titles, actions and attributes, persons and natures, &c. &c. at which sort of work you and your editor have nibbled a little, you in your notes, (page 5, &c.) and he in his table, and plain argument, (p. 65, &c.)"

§ "The subtle doctors, deep divines, and systematic expositors of ignorant and corrupt mages; many of whose mystical mummeries are still so current and contagious among us, that it is hardly possible for the youthful mind to escape the infection, or to postpone the attack till it has acquired strength to resist a taint, which, when once it gets into the habit, it is very difficult to get out again: so that many a poor child is the miserable victim of it all his life long. I am afraid, Sir, you had the disease badly in your youth."

‖ "Macbeth."

¶ "Early and interested prepossession, or prejudice, is a magnifying-glass that makes mountains of molehills, or the greatest matters of mere nothings."

Unitarian Tracts, 4to. 1095. vol. iii. tract l. p. 23.

Digitized by Google

followed Jesus to his crucifixion, and moreover, (from verse 49 of the same chapter) that all his acquaintance were persons of the same sex who followed him from Galilee.

"From Acts xv. you might shew that Paul and Barnabas, who were very different persons at the beginning of the chapter (ver. 2.) and who, though without any express articles of separation subsisting between them, (and therefore, by virtue of your fifth rule and its exception, were beginning to grow rather ambiguous), still continued distinct for some time after (verse 12), got so confounded in the course of a few verses more, (verse 22), that it was impossible to distinguish the one from the other, till the successful application of your wonderful discovery restored each of them again, (verses 25, 35), to his separate personal identity and diversity.

"Many more discoveries, equally notable, might you make from Luke xi. 27. Acts iv. 5, 6. xv. 2. xxiv. 1. Rom. ii. 5. 1 Cor. iv. 9. 2 Thes. i. 4. &c. &c. but I shall content myself with mentioning only one, to be found in 1 Tim. vi. 13. where θεος and χριστος being connected in the way your rule requires, the former with, and the latter without the article, must *necessarily* be descriptive of one and the same person; but since each of these nouns is attended by a participle, and since the article which is prefixed to the first participle is repeated before the second, the two nouns must on that account be descriptive of different persons: and thus we have both the identity and diversity of God and Christ established in the compass of a single verse, proving clearly, as I have somewhere seen, or heard it expressed, that they are "united, though divided; divided, though the same."

"It makes no difference, I apprehend, in this reasoning, that 'the substantive of personal description, as you call χριστος (p. 30), is followed by the proper name *Jesus*; since χριστος here does not make any part of the proper name, but is merely an epithet, like the similar personal noun κυριος, in a similar situation. But what if it were unavoidably a proper name? We have seen that no reasoning nor practice of yours, will justify us in depriving it of the benefit of your rule on that account. Or, lastly, what if Paul had thought fit to have omitted the word Jesus altogether, which he might have done if he had chosen it, for any thing that I can see to the contrary?

"Such are the curious consequences to which your theory of the article fairly and directly leads: consequences from which no arbitrary, groundless, and unsupported limitations can extricate you, as you must see, unless some theological *ignis fatuus* has completely dazzled your sight."

As a bye-blow, the following will shew our knight's dexterity.

"Your conclusion is no less curious, when you infer (p. 8, and 9) that because Jesus is called a shepherd, and God is also called a shepherd, therefore Jesus is God. 'Oh! most lame and impotent conclusion!' (Shaksp.) Saul is called king of Israel (1 Sam. xxiv. 14), and God is also called king of Israel (Isa. xliv. 6) therefore Saul is God! The Lord have mercy upon us! If the Bible, in its object and design, had not been one of the plainest and simplest books in the world; if it had not been its *only* purpose to make us good and happy; and if that purpose had not filled every page of it, it must long since have been overwhelmed by the treatment it has met with. No other book was ever so used, or rather so abused, as this has been. No other book could have survived such usage. That it still continues to answer its design, and to do good among us, after it has been so bedaubed, so pitched and plastered over with one silly conceit or another, proves its consummate excellence, proves how copious and full, how constant, steady, and true it is to its main end and object, so that there is no way of wholly putting out its moral light, unless every chapter, nay, almost every verse of it, be completely *lunged* up with theology. I wonder no body ever took it into his head to maintain, that it ought to be read βουστροφηδον, one line forwards, and the next backwards, or up and down, like the Chinese, or that the two columns, where it is so printed, ought to be read across, in the manner of Papyrius Cursor. If it is to be explained so differently from all other books, I do not see why it may not be read differently from all other books. If common sense is to be wholly laid aside in expounding it, why may we not as well lay aside common sense in reading it? I verily believe, even then, it would look more like a book of morality than any thing else."

That Gregory Blunt has managed the contest ably, no one can deny; but many will think with us, that a little more attention to the feelings, and a little more forbearance towards the prejudices of those whose creed he attacks, would have been more becoming and more wise.

ART. XI. *Elements of Religion; containing a simple Deduction of Christianity, from its Source to its present Circumstances. In a Series of Letters to a Young Lady.* By Mrs. MARRIOTT. 4 vols. 8vo. pp. 1230.

WHETHER the articles of the church of England are strictly Calvinistic, or not, has long been a topic of controversy. The spirit of the English church

was, however, certainly long at variance with its articles. During the space of more than a century and a half, the tenets of its leading divines were Arminian, and the stricter creed, more consonant, perhaps, to the principles of the first institutors, was, by the prevalent party, regarded with suspicion and disfavour. The moderation of the clergy was accompanied with a remission of that zeal, which seizes the attention and engages the passions of the multitude; and the national church, long unassailed by any powerful external force, was not sensible of any diminution of strength, when on a sudden there arose, within its very pale, an adversary more formidable to its repose and unity than it had long experienced. The sects which originated at this period, with every profession of respect and reverence for the established constitution of religion, directed all their complaints to the unfaithfulness and degeneracy which they ascribed to the depositaries of its functions. Their tenets, in themselves accommodated to popular apprehension, they urged with that zeal, and maintained with that general consistency of life and demeanour, which were calculated to make the most powerful impression; and in every part of the kingdom they proceeded to the formation of distinct places of worship and instruction, subsidiary, as they professed, to those of national institution, and rendered requisite by the want of evangelical teaching, under which, in their estimation, the country laboured.

This internal revolution, as usually happens in similar cases, has not been without influence on the regular clergy. The leading members have felt themselves compelled to a nearer assimilation of their public teaching, with the terms of their subscription: the peculiar doctrines of christianity, as they are usually termed, are on the one hand treated with more respect, and more frequently insisted on, though not to the exclusion of useful topics of morality; while, on the other hand, the guilt of schism is more strenuously maintained and urged, and the false confidence of arrogance and enthusiasm severely and justly arraigned. Such is the spirit of the church of England of the present day: in aid of this spirit, its members of every rank have come forward, and the work which is now before us may be regarded as a humble contribution to the general cause.

This work consists of forty-nine letters, addressed by Mrs. Marriott, to a young lady, her near relative. They are a combination of reflection and narrative. In the first three are treated the fundamental topics of religion, the existence and providence of God, and the importance and actual communication of divine revelations. In the succeeding forty-two, the history of the Old and New Testaments is deduced; and the remaining four comprize a very brief sketch of subsequent ecclesiastical history.

The important subjects of the first division are treated, though in a manner somewhat declamatory, yet often with beauty of expression, propriety of thought, and justness of argument.

In the narrative part, the beautiful simplicity of the scripture histories frequently suffers from the ornaments of Mrs. Marriott's pen. The concession of Abraham to Lot, for instance, is thus related: "Several disputes had arisen between the herdsmen, when, to remedy the inconvenience, and obviate every occasion of farther strife, Abraham, equally affectionate and generous, with the kindness of a brother and the urbanity of a gentleman, requested, that out of respect to their near consanguinity, there might be no farther contention either between *themselves* or *their servants*; but as a separation was now requisite, he desired Lot would regard the whole country as before him, freely to chuse in it his place of residence." Vol. I. p. 201. The following is the account of the interview of Abraham's servant with Rebecca and her family, and his return to Canaan, after having accomplished the object of his journey:

"His prayer was scarcely ended, when he saw a very beautiful young woman, coming from the city, with a pitcher upon her shoulder. Charmed with her appearance, the moment she returned from the fountain, he ran to meet her, and supplicated the bounty of a little water: "drink my lord," she replied, with respectful courtesy; nor did her good nature stop at the obliging haste with which she lowered the pitcher from her shoulder, and satisfied his thirst with the cooling beverage, for she added, "I will give drink to your camels also, till they are fully satisfied."

"Charmed with these proofs of courteousness and benevolence, anxious to know

Digitized by Google

whether his prayers were heard, and this bright gem ordained to grace the bosom of Isaac, in silent admiration he contemplated the performance of the fatiguing task she had assigned herself; he then approached her, and soon, to his raptured astonishment, learned that she was indeed the person he had traversed such an extent of country to find, for that she was Rebecca the daughter of Bethuel.

"Being conducted by this fair maid to her father's house, where he was received with the most chearful hospitality, when the steward communicated the purpose of his journey, and the singular incidents with which it had concluded, we perceive, that the opinion, which Abraham had entertained of the constancy of his family, to the true religion, was just, and that they, amidst the polytheism of the age, retained both knowledge and reverence for the one great and living God; for Bethuel, and his son Laban, acknowledged, that as the interposition of the Lord was evident in the events of the evening, nothing was left for them but silent acquiescence in the divine will; "We cannot," they said, "say unto thee bad or good; behold Rebecca is before thee, take her and go, and let her be thy master's son's wife, *as the Lord hath spoken.*"

"After having bowed in pious gratitude to the Lord for this prosperous termination, the joyful steward with alacrity presented to Rebecca, and her family, the nuptial gifts, which were splendid and costly, as became the wealth and generosity of Abraham; and the next morning, the indefatigable man urged an instant departure for Canaan. To this the family objected, as reluctant to part from Rebecca so soon; the decision was referred to Rebecca herself, who chearfully and readily acquiesced in the servant's reasons for his speedy return; and after receiving the paternal benediction, and the blessings of the rest of her kindred, she quitted Syria for ever, seated on the camels of Abraham, her nurse, with some other female attendants, the companions of her journey.

"When this interesting caravan approached the habitation of Isaac, Rebecca observed a man walking in the fields, and inquiring of the servant who he was, and finding him her destined husband, she quickly alighted from her camel, and, in token of modesty and submission, covered herself with a veil."

Mrs. Marriott, in her deduction of Christianity, as we have before intimated, by no means confines herself to the simple narrative of the history, but indulges herself in frequent speculations on the various topics of religion and morality which come before her. On subjects which permit her to expatiate, she sometimes give too much liberty to the flights of her imagination. As an instance of this fault, we might refer to her reflections on the plan of redemption, vol. I. p. 78, &c.

The doctrines which Mrs. Marriott maintains, are in general those which are commonly styled orthodox. It is not to be expected that in letters addressed to a young female friend, all the subtleties of polemic disputation should be very nicely discussed, and we suspect that the notions of the author herself on these topics are not always systematically accurate. Her expressions on the subject of the trinity, are sometimes rather Arian than Athanasian. The death of Christ she considers as strictly a vicarious sacrifice, with all those appalling consequences, at which, to use the expressions of Dr. Hurd, "Reason stands aghast, and Faith herself is half confounded." The free-agency of man, she asserts in the most unqualified terms, and rejects, with the appellation of gloomy, those doctrines of Calvin, which are founded on the contrary hypothesis. Her sentiments on the depravity of mankind, the influences of the Spirit, and other doctrines connected with these, she nowhere clearly states.

Though Mrs. Marriott repeatedly depreciates the use of reason in the estimate of doctrines of divine original, and relating to divine subjects, yet on other occasions she discovers some solicitude to shew the harmony of revelation with the dictates of human reason. In her fifth letter, she assumes a considerable air of triumph, on having turned, as she imagines, the weapons of the Deists against themselves. To accomplish this purpose, she first lays it down as a position, that Pope's Essay on Man is a deistical production, the arguments having been supplied by Bolingbroke. She then selects the noted principle on which that writer expatiates so largely and poetically, of the necessity of a gradation of ranks in the harmonious system of being, proceeding by minute variations from the highest to the lowest order.

Far as creation's ample range extends,
The scale of sensual mental pow'rs ascends.

This doctrine she proceeds to fortify by a quotation from Locke. We were anticipating with much uncertainty the termination of this argument, in its expanded state occupying several pages, when on a sudden the following conclusion rushed in unexpectedly upon us: "Reinforced by this venerable opinion, arguing from this allowed analogy, I

will presume to wing my daring flight above this sublunary sphere; and ascending from man to the heavenly intelligences, contemplate order beyond order, progressively rising in perfection, till I reach at length that stupendous, that all-glorious link in the great chain of beings, which unites the God-head with all his creatures: this, I cry, is indeed the Son of God! It must be so; for that wonderful being which unites the great Supreme with all the inferior spiritual orders, must intimately participate the essence of the Deity, or the created and uncreated substances could not be united." In what creed will this be admitted as orthodox doctrine? Pursuing this analogy we might argue, that there will not only be three, but four, five, or a greater number of beings in the descending chain, differing from each other almost insensibly in nature and attributes.

Indeed, we are of opinion, that Mrs. Marriott incumbers herself much with her metaphysics, and that she had better have altogether disclaimed their aid. We will give one other instance of the unfortunate application of her favourite principle.

> Then, in the scale of reas'ning life, 'tis plain
> There must be somewhere such a rank as man,

says the poet. Hence our author vindicates the plan of Providence, in the formation of such a rank as that of man, apparently full of contradiction and confusion, a mixed nature, a link necessary to connect the chain, mortal and immortal, sensual and intellectual, a chaos of wisdom and folly, of vice and virtue. But in other parts of her work she ascribes many of these consequences to the fall. The fall then, as the instrument of making man what it was necessary in the plans of Providence that he should be made, must have been an event ordained and accomplished by that Providence which has appointed this order of things. But this is inconsistent with the supposition of that free-agency, which our author uniformly attributes to Adam as well as to his descendants.

In describing the origin of the human soul, Mrs. Marriott wanders into the regions of Stoicism.

We transcribe one other extract from the conclusion of the work, which appears to us to merit severe reprehension.

"We have seen, my dear M., from the first promulgation of the Gospel, to the early times of the Reformation, different sects arise among the Christians, some rational, some erroneous and fantastic, according to the temper and ideas of the founder; but all originating in a deep sense of religion, the necessity of rightly understanding the Scriptures, and an ardent desire of securing themselves salvation; and we are constrained to reverence the source from whence this variety of modes of faith and practice springs, though we find the current as it flows debased by admixtures of enthusiasm, fanaticism, and other human errors, derived from a weak head, and ardent temper, directing an honest and pious heart.

"But in our approach to modern times, we find other sects that cannot boast this meritorious origin, for on the contrary, they submit themselves to the detestable purpose of becoming agents to that being, whose unremitting industry is employed to overturn the Christian religion, the influence of which over the minds of mankind he dreads, as subversive of his own.

"This class begins with the Socinian, or Unitarian, whose precepts debase the Saviour of mankind to mere manhood, and reduce the Holy Ghost to a name only. They profess to believe that all our knowledge of divine things is derived from the Scriptures, and that it is not lawful to doubt their authenticity, or the truth of the historical facts they record; and also that the precepts of the gospel must be adhered to, for the regulation of life and action; but that the particular doctrines they contain, are to be understood in such a manner, as to render them conformable to the dictates of reason."

Had we not apprehended that it would exceed the proper limits of this article, we should have extended this quotation, to the picture which Mrs. Marriott, in the warmth of her imagination, draws of the deist, the modern philosopher, and the grand conspiracy which, in common with some other worthy persons, she supposes to have been planned in Germany, for the eradication of the Christian religion. In reference to the passage which we have extracted, we beg permission of asking one question: who has empowered Mrs. Marriott to pass these inquisitorial censures on the motives of men, whose hearts she cannot search? They profess sincerity: to their own master they stand or fall. We will furnish her with two quotations from the writings of dignitaries of the English church, who rank among its brightest ornaments. One may teach her to express herself more candidly; the other, we hope, to think more justly. The first is from Abp. Tillotson. Referring

to the Socinian controversialists, he says, "and yet to do right to the writers on that side, I must own that generally they are a pattern of the fair way of disputing, and of debating matters of religion, without heat, or unseemly reflections on their adversaries; they generally argue matters with that temper and gravity, and with that freedom from passion and transport, which becomes a serious and weighty argument; and for the most part they reason closely and clearly; with extraordinary guard and caution; with great dexterity and decency; and yet with smartness and subtility enough; with a very gentle heat, and few hard words; virtues to be praised where-ever they are found, yea even in an enemy, and *very worthy our imitation.*" Tillotson's 54 Sermons, p. 521, fol. ed. Our second quotation shall be from bishop Watson. "Newton and Locke were esteemed Socinians; Lardner was an avowed one; Clarke and Whiston were declared Arians; Bull and Waterland were professed Athanasians; who will take upon him to say, that these men were not equal to each other in probity and scriptural knowledge? and if that be admitted, surely we ought to learn no other lesson from the diversity of their opinions, except that of perfect moderation and good-will towards all those who happen to differ from ourselves." Mrs. Marriott, on more than one occasion, quotes the authority of Locke, and once with the appellation of venerable; yet she seems utterly unconscious of the wide discrepancy of his religious system from her own.

In fine, we believe Mrs. Marriott to be a very serious christian, and good woman; we only wish her a little more candour; and, as she professes to think on religious subjects, on some topics, a little more extent of thought. Those parents, who agree with her sentiments, will probably think her book a useful present to their children.

ART. XII. *An Exposition of the Lord's Prayer; in which are comprehended an Account of the Origin of that Prayer; an Explanation of its several Petitions; and a Demonstration, that according to its natural Interpretation, it contains a complete Summary of Christian Doctrine. By the Rev.* JOSEPH MENDHAM, *M. A.* 8vo. pp. 240.

THIS treatise, on the theological principles of the author, which appear to be nearly those of the articles of the church of England, is in the main a sensible, pious, and well-written performance, many parts of which may be usefully and satisfactorily perused by christians of every denomination. Mr. Mendham thus states, in his preface, the plan and objects of his work:

"Expositors of the Lord's prayer seem, in general, not to have bestowed sufficient pains in settling the precise and grammatical meaning of its several parts: and the errors, to which such neglect has exposed them, have necessarily multiplied in proportion to the extent and particularity of their comment; so that whatever merit their productions might possess, as theological dissertations, they have failed in the qualifications which are essential to an exposition. No disrespect whatever is intended to these writers in the observation: it has, however, frequently and forcibly occurred to the author, that they have interpreted the prayer in question, as if it had been originally delivered in their own language, and almost in their own age.

"In stating these defects, the author has, to a considerable degree, described the plan of his own work, and pointed out his inducement for undertaking it. He has endeavoured to bring forward all the information which can be attained, and whatsoever may be reasonably conjectured, concerning the origin and peculiar circumstances of the Lord's prayer; to fix, with all the precision which a diligent reference to critical works of the first authority could furnish, the exact meaning of each of its petitions; at least, to put in possession of the reader the materials by which he may judge for himself: and then, and not till then, to deduce from each part, critically explained, the various important and practical doctrines which this perfect and comprehensive form of prayer contains. A trial is made at the close, by what evidence the ancient opinion is supported, that the Lord's prayer comprehends a complete summary of the christian doctrine; or, in the laconic and forcible language of Tertullian, is *an epitome of the whole gospel.* In one word, it has been his object, not so much to say what *might*, as what *ought* to be said."

In the remainder of his preface, the author judiciously vindicates the exercise, and asserts the obligation of prayer, by arguments more philosophical and satisfactory than those which are frequently adopted.

With respect to the history of this prayer, Mr. Mendham, in common with

other writers, supposes that it was communicated by Jesus to his disciples, in conformity with the custom of many Jewish teachers of celebrity, whose practice it was to deliver some compendious form of prayer for the use of their scholars. This probability is confirmed, he observes, by the striking similarity which subsists between this prayer, and certain portions of the ancient Jewish prayers; "a similarity so close, that if the corresponding passages of the latter are collected into one prayer, they will nearly produce that which Christ delivered." The passages thus collected are as follows:—Our Father which art in Heaven: thy name be sanctified: thy kingdom reign: do thy will in Heaven: forgive us our sins: lead us not into the hand of temptation: and deliver us from Satan: for thine is the kingdom: and thou shalt reign gloriously for ever and ever. Of these passages, it is however to be observed, that several are modern.

In his consideration of this prayer, Mr. Mendham divides it into three parts; the first sentence forming an address; the last a doxology; and the intermediate six constituting the petitionary part of the prayer; the first three of these petitions referring to God, the other three to man.

Between the copies recorded by Matthew and Luke, it is well known, that there exists some dissonance. That the doxology inserted in the work of the former of these evangelists, is omitted by the latter, must have been observed by every reader of the New Testament; there is, however, reason for believing, that it was also wanting in the original copies of Matthew. It is unnoticed by the fathers of the three first centuries, though some of them have written expositions of the Lord's prayer; it is omitted by the most valuable manuscripts in which this part of the New Testament is preserved, and is wanting in several ancient versions. There is, however, another important variation in the reading of this prayer, which is found in the ancient copies, though it has disappeared from those of later date: the third petition of Matthew's copy, "thy will be done in earth as it is in Heaven."—These are wanting in the ancient manuscripts of Luke, and are omitted by Griesbach in his late edition of the New Testament. Some writers also tell us, that the second petition in Luke, in place of the words "thy kingdom come," originally stood thus:—"may thy holy spirit come upon us, and purify us;" and there is reason for supposing this reading to be at least ancient, though perhaps not genuine. Should these variations be established, we must have recourse, says Mr. Mendham, to the hypothesis, that the prayers of Matthew and Luke are really distinct, and were delivered by our Lord on different occasions.

We find nothing either in the translation or exposition of Mr. Mendham, of sufficient novelty to require introduction to our readers; nor indeed could there be any reasonable expectation of novelty on a subject necessarily so exhausted. We make, with pleasure, the following practical extract:

"Here then is presented to us a wide field for the exercise and display of submission to the will of God; and when we pray that the will of God may be done in earth, we express our desire that mankind may yield a universal submission to the dispensations of his providence; that the rebellious children of Adam, from the extremities of the earth, may repent of their past disobedience, cast themselves down before the throne of their divine Sovereign, surrender themselves to his disposal, and become voluntary subjects of his government; that all the inhabitants of the world, all nations and languages, may with one spirit acknowledge him as their Supreme Governor, and devote themselves with absolute resignation to whatsoever he may appoint. But as *that* will never be done by all, which is not done by individuals; and as the principal obligation of the prayer lies upon those who offer it, we engage, by the use of it, first and principally for ourselves, that we will submit to the appointment of God in his providence, and that his will, if it is done by none besides, shall be done by us. We oblige ourselves, generally, to acknowledge that the Judge of all the Earth will do nothing but what is right, and to acquiesce in the wisdom and justice of all the divine proceedings. In all those events and dispensations of which we cannot perceive the object or propriety, it is a duty which we impose upon ourselves to bow with religious reverence. As far as an insight is afforded us, into the divine counsels, we see sufficient evidence of the wisdom and equity of all the transactions of the Great Ruler of the world; and what is veiled in obscurity, what is inscrutable to mortal eyes, we are bound to regard with the awe and admiration of the apostle, when contemplating a dispensation which he could not comprehend:—'O the depth of the riches, both of the wisdom and knowledge of God! how unsearchable are his judgments, and his ways

past finding out."* But something more is required by our prayer than the submission of our understandings to the divine dispensations: our wills must likewise submit. We must be ready to bear with patience whatsoever it pleases God to inflict upon us; assured that he who governs the world, will order all things wisely, and cause them to work together for the good of his people, it is our duty to rely upon him with entire and unshaken confidence; nor even, if possible, to desire that the affliction with which he visits us, may be withdrawn an hour sooner, or be inflicted with the smallest degree less of severity, than is necessary to answer the gracious purpose which he designs to accomplish by it. In all conditions we ought to be resigned, and to sacrifice our will to the will of God. Howsoever severe, howsoever opposed to our natural propensities be the adversity which oppresses us, formidable as the trial may be to which we are called, and bitter as may be the cup presented to us, after the example of him whose steps we are directed to follow, it is our duty to submit, and say—"*thy* will be done,"—"not as I will, but as thou wilt."†

Mr. Mendham, in distinguishing the meanings of the term Father, as applied to God, in reference to Christ, and in relation to his followers, observes, "that the mention of the appellation, 'your father,' as applied to the disciples, and 'my father,' as applied to Christ, is very frequent; yet with such scrupulous attention was the distinction between the different senses of the appellation preserved, that when, after his resurrection, he appeared to Mary, and he came to the very verge of confounding that distinction, he avoided the impropriety by a very significant repetition:—"Go," said he, "to my brethren, and say unto them, I ascend unto my Father and your Father, and to my God and your God." We must confess that we do not, in this instance, see either how an impropriety was avoided, or how it was on the verge of existing.

In the description of the paternal mercy of God, which occurs in page 16, we think that a little too much of anthropomorphitism is admitted.

The author of the present work, with many others, supposes an indefinite quality, which he denominates the glory of God, to be the primary motive of his action, and makes the usual distinctions between justice, goodness, and mercy. We cannot help thinking that christians frequently embarrass themselves by false distinctions between these attributes, and that important practical errors result from any other considerations of them than as different exhibitions of the same quality, goodness, the true glory of God, and the constituent principle of all moral rectitude.

We were sorry to see, from any quarter, any disparagement of the works of Dr. Paley, (see page 57) because we conceive him to be one of those writers on theological subjects, to whom the age is most indebted. We considered it as a pleasing presage of general improvement, in this most important branch of knowledge, that the use of some of his works was adopted in one of our universities; in short, we are inclined to apply to the learned archdeacon that eulogium which Quintilian gives to Tully:—"Ille se profecisse sciat, cui Cicero valde placebit;" and the converse of this proposition, we believe, will be found accurate.

With the theological sentiments of the respectable writer, we have at present little concern; they are, in this work, by its nature, in general rather assumed than proved. We are, however, surprized at his supposition, that the whole of what *he* esteems christianity, is deducible by a fair and natural interpretation from the words of this prayer.

We are sorry that Mr. Mendham, from many parts of whose work we have received much satisfaction, should give any occasion for the inculcation of an important moral quality, the very name of which appears to be now almost exploded by many writers of theological controversy, that of candour. The word candour they seem to consider as implying something insidious, or at best as synonymous only with weakness of mind, and incompetency of judgment. By requesting candour, we do not require a man to abandon his judgment, or to surrender the importance of his opinions; we only expect, (what it surely is not too much to expect) when the many fallibilities of the human mind are considered, that he will admit the possibility, that they who dissent from him most widely in judgment, respecting important topics, may at least be sincere

* "Rom. xi. 33."

† "Matth. xxvi. 42. and 39. See likewise Acts xxi. 14. Tertullian expresses this part of the sense of the prayer:—Jam hoc dicto ad sufferentiam nosmetipsos præmonemus."

Digitized by Google

lovers of truth, however unfortunate in their attempts to discover it. Mr. Mendham speaks of the profane audacity of Dr. Geddes; on Dr. Priestley he bestows the denomination of heresiarch; and some opinion of Schleusner, (we suppose, from the connection, respecting the non-existence of a great fallen spirit) he stigmatises with the epithet of infidel. However singular, erroneous, or inconsistent the creed of Dr. Geddes may have been, all which we are disposed to a certain extent to admit, we are still persuaded that he was a sincere christian; meaning by a christian, one who admits the divine authority of Christ's mission, and who lives in habitual obedience to the requisitions of the christian law. Dr. Priestley stands too high in the estimation of the world, whatever he may suffer in that of many of his countrymen, to need defence; and we are inclined to hope, that a man needs not to be esteemed an infidel, though he should not believe the being of a devil to be incorporated with that of a God, or though he should even think that the New Testament contains no revelation respecting the existence of such a being.

EVIDENCES OF REVEALED RELIGION.

ART. XIII. *An Enquiry into the Necessity, Nature, and Evidences of Revealed Religion. By* THOMAS ROBINSON, *A. M. Rector of Ruan Minor, Cornwall.* 8vo. pp. 303.

THIS useful compilation (for it cannot lay claim to any higher title, nor, we apprehend, does the author propose that it should) originated in a wish to supply what appeared a desideratum; a work in which the necessity, nature, and evidences of revelation should be presented in one view, and formed into a connected subject of discussion.

"This," the writer informs us, "he has attempted, by exhibiting, in a plain and popular manner, the incompetency of reason as a religious instructor, by a brief elucidation of the several parts of which revelation is composed, and by proving the strength and solidity of the grounds on which mankind are expected to accept and believe it to be the word of God. It has been his object to compress much useful matter into a narrow compass; and to arrange it with that degree of order and distinctness, which will render it intelligible to all capacities. He has laboured to make it of so comprehensive a nature, that whilst sufficient may be found in it, to render it an instructive and explanatory companion to the Bible of the mechanic, it may not be wholly beneath the notice of others, whose education has been more liberal, and attainments more extensive. The former may, perhaps, gather from it as much knowledge of the subjects investigated, as he may have occasion to acquire; whilst the latter may be induced, from such a cursory view of them, to solicit information from those great masters, who have brought to the discussion the united advantages of exalted talents, patient enquiry, and profound erudition."

The author has not been unsuccessful; and the work before us, though not marked by much originality of thought, or novelty of evidence, contains within a moderate compass a considerable portion of valuable information.—The volume opens with a well arranged view of the imperfections which marked the religious knowledge of the ancients; from which the author deduces the necessity of a divine revelation. The revelation thus wanted, and which it was possible and highly probable that the Creator would grant, he asserts is contained in the books of the Old and New Testament. These books are then separately examined. The account of a Jewish dispensation is ably executed: the arguments for its divine original are selected with judgment, and the history of each book will be found interesting and useful. From the Old Testament, the author passes to the New. An account of each book is here also given; and the volume is closed by a succinct view of the arguments which have been adduced to prove the credibility of the gospel history, and the divine origin of the christian religion.

To some of our readers the following account of the mode in which the books of Moses were read by the Jews, in their public services of religion, may prove new and instructive:

"The books of Moses were originally drawn up in one continued, undivided work, and are still remaining in the same form, in the public service of the Jewish Synagogue. They are frequently quoted by the writers of the Old and New Testament, under the title of the Law; and are sometimes distinguished by the name of the Pentateuch. They were divided into fifty-four sections; a division

Digitized by Google

which, some of the Jews are of opinion, was made by the appointment of Moses himself; but which others, with greater appearance of probability, ascribe to Ezra.' The Jews intended that one of these sections should be read in the synagogues every Sabbath day.—The number consisted of fifty-four; because in their intercalated years a month* being added, there were fifty-four Sabbaths. In the other years, they reduced them again to forty-two, by joining together two short sections. They ended the last section with the last words of Deuteronomy, on the Sabbath of the feast of Tabernacles; and began a-new with the first section from the beginning of Genesis, the next Sabbath after.—Each of these sections was again subdivided into seven parts, for as many readers; every Israelite having the privilege of reading, except women, slaves, and others, who were deemed incapable of doing it. Notwithstanding this privilege, a priest, a Levite, or some person of eminence, was usually selected in preference to those who were more uninformed; the latter being never permitted to begin till those of the former description had finished.† Till the time of the persecution of Antiochus Epiphanes, they were accustomed to read the Law only; but that being prohibited from being read any longer, they substituted, in the room of it, fifty-four sections out of the Prophets. When the reading of the law was restored by the Maccabees, the section read on the Sabbath out of the Law served for the first lesson, and that out of the Prophets for the second.‡ The reading of the Law, indeed, was not confined to the return of the Sabbath, as it was constantly rehearsed every seventh year, before all the people, at the feast of Tabernacles."

As a very fair specimen of our author's method, we select the following passage, where, speaking of the prevalence of christianity, he observes,—

"Here then is an effect proceeding from a cause, according to human estimation, inadequate to produce it. Nothing similar, as far as we are informed, ever took place before or since. Can any one believe, that an obscure peasant, in an obscure country, with no better assistance than twelve poor fishermen, could have brought about so great and extraordinary a change by any possible mode of *human* exertion? or is it credible, that, without co-operation and support, they would have taken the steps they did to accomplish their object? If they had no surer method of advancing their cause, than that with which their own efforts could have supplied them, they would have had recourse to those things which are commonly successful on similar occasions; they would have attempted to impose on the understandings of mankind by conciliation and flattery; they would have dazzled their imaginations by visionary prospects of future advantage; and would have moved every engine, which is usually directed by the artful and designing against human weakness.—But these things, so often practised by others, could not be turned to advantage by them. They possessed neither influence, wealth, nor power; they had, (with few exceptions) neither abilities, learning, address, nor eloquence; so far indeed were they from aiming at allurement, that the method which they took of making converts to their cause, was likely to operate as an effectual discouragement. They attacked the obstinate and rooted prejudices universally entertained for the established forms of religious worship; and loudly condemned those darling follies, vices, and superstitions, to which mankind had shewn so long and fond an attachment; they exhorted their hearers to embrace a cause, which could not fail to involve them in the most serious evils; and to acknowledge the divine mission of one, whom, far from clothing with supernatural splendor, they represented as terminating a miserable life by an ignominious death. All they had to put into the opposite scale, was the promise of a recompence, invisible and distant; and of such a nature, as preconceived opinions must reasonably regard as chimerical and delusive. This address was not made in a dark age, or to a savage people, but to the wisest and most enlightened nations of the earth, at a time when human learning and philosophy were at their greatest height; thus every motive that usually influences the mind of man, religion, custom, law, policy, pride, interest, vice, and even philosophy, were united against the Gospel. These are enemies at all times formidable and difficult to be subdued, even when attacked upon equal ground; but now entrenched and rendered inaccessible by the strongest bulwarks of civil power; yet against all these obstacles christianity struggled, and completely triumphed. It overturned the temples and altars of the gods; it silenced the

"* This month was added between February and March; and was done, when the corn would not be ripe at the Passover, nor the fruits at Pentecost."

"† The manner of reading the Law was as follows:—On Monday they began with that section which was proper for that week, and read it half way through; and on Thursday proceeded to read the remainder. On Saturday, which was their solemn Sabbath, they read the whole over again, both morning and evening. On week days they read it only in the morning; but on the Sabbath always repeated it in the evening, for the benefit of those who could not leave their work to attend the synagogues on week days."

"‡ The whole of the prophetical writings were not, like the Law, read over in public; but such parts only were selected for that purpose, as had a reference to the foregoing lesson out of the Law."

Digitized by Google

oracles; it humbled the pride of emperors; it confounded the wisdom of philosophers; and introduced into the most civilized nations of the world a new principle of virtue and religion. This extraordinary influence and authority it has maintained for nearly eighteen hundred years; it has been looked up to as the certain and unerring road, not only to present, but future happiness; and is still regarded by the wise and good, as a system founded by the gracious Saviour and Deliverer of mankind."

One defect pervades the volume: the want of references to the authorities upon which the writer has depended. Such references would have been of great utility, not only in confirming what the author has advanced, but in introducing others to the same sources of information as those from which he has himself drawn.

ART. XIV. *Abrégé des principales Preuves de la Vérité et de la Divinité de la Religion Chretienne, par Beilby Porteus, Seigneur Evêque de Londres. Traduit de l'Anglois sur la septième Edition, et dedié avec permission à Monseigneur l'Eveque de Londres, par* J. L. CHIROL, *Pasteur à Londres.* 12mo. pp. 164.

THE original of this work is too well known, and too generally admired, to need our commendation and our praise. M. Chirol has performed no mean service to the public, by translating this valuable compendium with faithfulness and elegance, into a language more widely used than that in which it was originally composed; and for the sake of the interests of christianity, we earnestly wish that its circulation may be as extensive amongst young persons, upon the Continent, as the original has been among the young persons of our own island.

Some notes are added by the translator, which form a valuable addition to the text.

ART. XV. *The Mild Tenor of Christianity: an Essay.* 8vo. pp. 159.

THE advertisement prefixed to this little work, will exhibit the design, and something of the manner of the author:

"The design of this essay is to revert to the original departure from the simplicity and lenient character of the christian doctrine, and to pursue the deviating stream through all its wanderings till it was checked by the mound of reformation; and in the second part of this essay I propose to offer some remarks on the same deviating stream as it glides along with less aberration in its mingled state. This scheme involves a number of celebrated personages, whose characters will be surveyed under a new aspect

"Next will be considered the more cultivated parts of British christianity; to which will be added, an account of some charitable institutions on the Continent, with a cursory life of Vincent de Paul, whose name is not familiar to the English reader.

"Some reflections will then be offered on controversial pulpit discourses, as hostile to the spirit of christian ethics; which naturally lead to a *critique* on the Master of the Temple.

"Some observations then occur relative to biblical expositions, with strictures upon the Reverend William Gilpin; concluding with remarks on the *sombre* morality of Dr. Johnson."

Conformably with this design, the author, with some appearance of order, has brought together much miscellaneous matter, illustrative of the mild genius of christianity, when rightly professed; and of the bigotry and austerity which have characterised those who have mistaken its proper spirit. He begins by selecting passages from the scriptures to prove, according to his own too often inflated language, "that the emanative benevolence of the Father of the Universe rushes forward to all his children."—Page 3. From these he passes to the writings of the fathers, and to the origin of monkish institutions. Anecdotes are interspersed, of St. Anthony, Alfred, Peter the Hermit, St. Bruno, St. Bernard, and others. Approaching the reformation, he celebrates the virtues of Grosteste, Las Casas, and Wickliffe; and we are entertained with a specimen of the religious farces which were once in such great request. From the period which has elapsed since the reformation, the author has selected several eminent characters, who have honoured, by the mildness and excellence of their conduct, the faith they professed to maintain.—Amongst these we meet with the names of Sadolet, Montaigne, Vincent de Paul, Fenelon, Addison, and Rundle.

Our readers will be interested by the following account of Vincent de Paul:

"He was born 1756, in a village near the Pyrennees. He was educated at a monastery in the same village, and distinguished him-

Digitized by Google

self by a solicitude for the sick and indigent of his parish, and by a zealous desire of being employed in the distribution of the bread and meat which were given by the prior to the poor.

"Having completed his studies and taken priest's orders, he was invited by a gentleman at Marseille to accompany him in a coasting voyage. Vincent embarked with his friend on the 22d of July: in this month, at Beaucaire, a town in the Lower Languedoc, is held a celebrated fair: the tents are erected along the side of the Rhone, and form a most picturesque view. The Gulf of Lyons, during the season of the fair, is commonly infested with Turkish pirates: our voyagers were unfortunately taken and carried to Tunis, where Vincent was sold to a fisherman; but his ill health inducing his master to part with him, he was bought by an elderly man in affluent circumstances, who led a retired life in the country, and devoted himself to chemistry: this was a situation more suitable to Vincent, who, having some knowledge of that science, became the favourite of the learned Mahometan. A short time elapsed, when Vincent had the misfortune to lose his indulgent master, who died in his journey to Constantinople, and, as Vincent informs us, partly of grief, in being obliged to relinquish his beautiful rural retreat and scientific pursuits, to amuse, with his experiments, the indolent hours of Achmet the First. Vincent now became the property of his late master's nephew, who immediately sold him to a Piedmontese who had turned Mahometan, and who farmed a tract of land belonging to the Grand Seignor. These farms are called temats: Vincent says, the temat occupied by his new proprietor was a barren mountain, the cultivation of which was consigned to the labour of slaves. The wife of this apostate happening to approach the spot where Vincent was at work, and who was soothing his solitary labour with singing, she asked him what was the subject of his song; he replied, it was a hymn to Christ, a *noel*, or what we call a Christmas carol: she observed that her husband was once a believer in Christ, but that the holy prophet had breathed into his mind a more sublime belief. The zeal of Vincent was immediately kindled, and finding she understood the French language, he delineated with an eloquent fervour the character of the christian doctrine. The fair Mahometan seemed powerfully affected with what she heard, and, returning to her husband, reproached him for relinquishing a religion which appeared so amiable, and which seemed so happily adapted to the incitement of every virtue: 'If you have forgot,' she said, 'all its holy injunctions, its benevolent precepts, its consolatory promises, go to your slave who is now at work, and he will bring them all back to your memory.'

"This reproof, from so unexpected a quarter, appalled the Mahometan convert: the religion he had abandoned, his country that he had deserted, his friends and kindred whom he had forsaken, rushed upon his mind: after having held several private conferences with Vincent, he formed a design of returning to Nice; and having bribed the master of a small vessel, he and Vincent happily escaped. His wife the year after attended some merchants to the fair annually held at Beaucaire, where her husband had agreed to meet her.

"Vincent at his return to France was introduced to the illustrious family of Gondi, in the neighbourhood of Chatillon. The Countess of Gondi, with a corresponding zeal, promoted every charitable scheme, and assisted Vincent with ample donations in his benevolent pursuits: by the means of her generosity he instituted several female societies for the purpose of gratuitously attending the sick. In a few years were established on the estates belonging to the Count de Gondi thirty sodalities associated under the same benevolent direction. The fame of these institutes excited in several towns in Lorraine and Savoy an emulative desire of similar establishments; and it may be asserted with truth, that in many parts of Europe, at this day, the aged, the infirm, the sick, the dying, are visited, attended, relieved, consoled, in consequence of the active and ardent zeal which glowed in the breast of Vincent.

"In the year 1629, he lost a valuable and powerful friend, the Cardinal of Berulle, who died while he was celebrating mass; on which circumstance the following lines were written:—

'Cœpta sub extremis nequeo dum sacra sacerdos
'Perficere, at saltem victima perficiam.'

"Vincent found it proper to introduce some new regulations respecting his charitable endowments. Married women formed a great part in every house that was dedicated to the attendance upon the sick: domestic concerns frequently required their presence at home; and, after the first fervour had subsided, inattention and neglect ensued. The pious founder therefore ordained, that for the future unmarried women only should be employed. This ordinance gave new vigour to his institution: a great number of young women, free from matrimonial engagements, presented themselves, and (after a year's noviceship) ascertained their services by a temporary vow. Vincent divided this holy sisterhood into little societies, under the direction of an experienced person; these subdivisions were distributed over the province, to be in readiness to act whenever required. This was the commencement of that increasing association of the virgin daughters of charity, (les filles de la charité) which at length, like a healthful stream, flowed through the whole catholic continent."

The design of this work is very laud-

Digitized by Google

able, and the execution, in general, worthy of the design. Some passages, however, occur, in which an attempt at fine sentimental writing has produced, as it often does, mere rant and bombast.

ART. XVI. *A Letter to a Noble Duke, on the incontrovertible Truth of Christianity.* 12mo. pp. 88

THIS is a republication of Mr. Leslie's Short and Easy Method with the Deists, "somewhat abridged and curtailed, and occasionally varied in point of language; especially with a view to divest it of every opprobrious controversial term, and every irritating expression of polemic defiance." As Mr. Wrangham's abridgment of this very excellent tract was noticed in our last volume, we have now only to add our thanks to the present editor, for endeavouring to extend the circulation of one of the most demonstrative works we possess upon the truth of revelation.

ART. XVII. *An Enquiry into the Origin of True Religion; together with the Invention of Letters, and the Discovery of the most useful Arts and Sciences: wherein it is attempted to prove, that the Knowledge of these Things originated in the East; and hath been diffused amongst Mankind by various Channels, but chiefly through the medium of the Ancient Jews, and those Writings which relate to their Political and Religious Economy. By the Rev.* JAMES CREIGHTON, *B.A.* 8vo. pp. 51.

THIS little work appears to be the production of a well-informed and benevolent mind, deeply convinced of the value of the sacred records, and earnestly desirous that their value should be fully appreciated by others. The object of the author is very fully detailed in the title. A great number of interesting remarks are brought together, the result of much careful reading, but not laying any claim to novelty. If the author has not proved all his positions, he has done enough to convince every impartial enquirer that the western world is under no little obligation to the eastern, and that the writers of Pagan Greece and Rome were indebted for many of their beauties and their excellencies, to those whom the former in particular, arrogantly denominated barbarians.

ART. XVIII. *Socrates and Jesus compared. By* JOSEPH PRIESTLEY, *LL. D. F. R. S.* 8vo. pp. 60.

THE comparison here instituted is eminently favourable, as might be expected, to the character of Jesus; who, though born in obscurity, and educated in a corner of the world, which the rays of science and philosophy had not illuminated, was, both in the manner of his public teaching, and the truths he communicated, much superior to the sage of Athens. Besides his inferiority in these respects, Socrates was a polytheist and an idolater; his notions concerning piety and virtue were far from being perfect; and in his knowledge of a future state, he was as deficient as the rest of his countrymen.

Great therefore as his character must be allowed to have been, that of Jesus was far greater: and hence Dr. Priestley justly thinks it impossible not to be sensibly struck with the peculiar advantage of revealed religion, such as that of the Jews and the Christians, in enlightening and enlarging the minds of men, and imparting superior excellence. Much has been said of the *dæmon* of Socrates, or that divine voice by which he asserted that he received supernatural intimations. It has been generally thought that in these instances he was under the illusion of fancy. Dr. Priestley, however, "though far from forming any fixed opinion on a subject of so great obscurity, thinks, considering the character of Socrates, and the tendency of these intimations, that it may admit of a doubt, whether they may not be supposed to have come, in whatever manner they were given, from God." p. 29.

This little tract, like most of the same author, contains many important observations; but, upon the whole, is less interesting than might have been expected, considering the subject and the writer.

Digitized by Google

CONTROVERSIAL THEOLOGY.

ART. XIX. *Theological Institutes, in Three Parts: 1. Heads of Lectures in Divinity. 2. View of the Constitution of the Church of Scotland. 3. Counsels respecting the Duties of the Pastoral Office. By* GEORGE HILL, *D. D. F. R. S. E. Principal of St. Mary's College, Primarius Professor of Theology in the University of St. Andrew's, and one of the Ministers of that City.* 8vo. pp. 444.

THIS work is presented to the public as a specimen of the instruction, which the learned author has been in the habit of addressing, not, we are persuaded, without much good effect, to the students of his college. "It embraces three objects: the science to which those students profess to devote their attention, the ecclesiastical constitution of which they expect to be official guardians, and the pastoral duties which they may be called to perform."

The first part is merely an outline of a course of lectures, introductory to the science of theology. These lectures are arranged under the following heads: 1. Evidences of the Christian Religion. 2. General View of the Scripture System, and Plan of analysing it. 3. Opinions concerning the Son, the Spirit, and the Manner of their being united with the Father. 4. Opinions concerning the Nature, the Extent, and the Application of the Remedy brought by the Gospel. 5. Index of particular Questions concerning the Gospel Remedy, and of many of the technical Terms in Theology.

The following extract will shew the manner in which these lectures are conducted.

"The various sects of Christians, admitting the fundamental proposition that "all have sinned," agree in considering the gospel as a remedy for the present state of moral evil: but they differ in opinion as to the nature of the remedy: and their opinions on this subject are reducible to three systems, which we distinguish by the names of the Socinian, the Middle, and the Catholic.

"I. *Socinian* system may be learnt from *Priestley*.

"Forgiveness is freely dispensed to those who repent, by the essential goodness of God, without regard to the sufferings or merit of any other being.

"Jesus is the messenger of the divine grace, who declares that God is merciful the instructor of the world, whose death, although merely a natural event, was his testimony to all that he had said; afforded a bright example of every virtue; and paved the way for his resurrection, which confirmed the truth of the great promise of immortality, by exhibiting to Christians a dead man restored to life.

"The gospel is understood to save from sin, because it is the most effectual lesson of righteousness.

"This simplest system concerning the remedy, cannot be received by those who believe in the pre-existence of Jesus; who have a strong apprehension of the evil of sin; and who form their opinion of the remedy from the language of Scripture: and it does not account for the powers said to be given to Jesus after his resurrection.

"II. Middle system may be learnt from *Bulguy's Essay on Redemption*, *Ben Mordecai's Apology*, and *Price*.

"Although God is merciful, a distinction ought to be made between the innocent and the penitent. Jesus, by the merit of his sufferings, acquired a reward not merely personal, but the right of saving men from their sins, and of giving them immortality, John xvii. 2. Heb. ii. 9, 10. Acts v. 31.

"This system preserves the contrast marked Rom. v. 9. between the first and second Adam; exhibits an illustrious reward of transcendant virtue; and checks presumption, because penitents receive nothing upon their own account, the salvation of the human race being præmial to the Redeemer.

"But this system involves the Arian opinion concerning the person of Jesus Christ: and, although beautiful and pleasing, yet, like many other theories, it proceeds upon a partial view of facts.

"III. Catholic system, so called because it has been generally held in the Christian world, enters into the creed of both the established churches of Britain, and is thus expressed in our confession: 'The Lord Jesus, by his perfect obedience and sacrifice of himself, which he, through the Eternal Spirit, once offered up unto God, hath fully satisfied the justice of his Father; and purchased not only reconciliation, but an everlasting inheritance in the kingdom of heaven."

That the mode of teaching theology, which is pursued in these lectures, and which, with little variation, is generally adopted, is however the best, we feel something more than doubt: but we cannot too much admire, nor too strenuously recommend, the spirit of the lecturer, who thus addresses his students: "You will derive more benefit from can-

vassing what I say, than from imbibing all that I can teach: and the most useful lessons which you can learn from me are, a habit of attention, a love of truth, and a spirit of enquiry." P. 38.

The second part of this work contains a view of the constitution of the church of Scotland. As the subject is interesting, but we believe not very generally known, we shall endeavour to present to our readers a faithful abridgment of this part. Of the statement of facts which this portion of his volume contains, Dr. Hill observes, "I offer this general voucher, that I write upon a subject ultimately connected with my profession, and with the leading pursuits of my life; and that my brethren, who can easily resort to the authentic sources of information, would deem me unworthy of their society, if I were capable of introducing wilful misrepresentation into a didactic treatise." Pref. p. vii.

The church of Scotland is, of course, considered by its members as founded upon the principle of the primitive church, in which they perceive no distinction between presbyters and bishops. A body of presbyters having a moderator, who conducts the proceedings, and executes the sentences, is regarded as competent to perform all the acts which, in an episcopal government, belong exclusively to the bishop. It tries the qualifications of candidates for the office of the ministry; it confers orders by the imposition of hands; to those who are nominated by persons having right of nomination, it grants the investiture of the sacred office, or induction into the charge of a particular parish; and it exercises inspection and jurisdiction over the pastors of all the parishes within its bounds.

In the exercise of his spiritual functions a pastor acts within his parish, according to his own discretion; and for the discharge of the pastoral duties, he is accountable only to the presbytery from whom he received the charge of the parish; but in every thing which relates to *discipline*, he is assisted by lay-elders. These, like the deacons of the primitive church, attend to the interests of the poor. But their peculiar business is expressed by the name *ruling-elders*; in every question of jurisdiction within the parish, they form a spiritual court, of which the minister is moderator. In the presbytery also they sit as representatives of sessions or consistories.

Ministers are admitted into a church by a presbytery. When a student has gone through his university education according to certain prescribed rules, he may be proposed to a presbytery, in order to be taken upon his trials; the consent of a superior court, called a synod, having been first obtained; to which court an appeal lies, if the presbytery should be oppressive. A person entered upon his trials, having obtained a licence to preach, is called a probationer; and in this character has no fixed charge, though he is allowed to assist a clergyman disabled by age or sickness. When he receives a presentation, he undergoes a second trial before the presbytery to whom the presentation is addressed: if they find that he is not qualified in respect of doctrine, literature, or moral character, their sentence declaring him unqualified, unless it be reversed by their ecclesiastical superiors, renders his presentation void. If, upon a vacancy in a living, the patron do not present within six months, the presbytery take such steps as they judge proper to supply the vacancy. None but *licentiates* or probationers, or those who have been previously inducted to another living, can be presented. The people have no right to elect a person to be presented to the presbytery; this right being reserved to the patrons, except when it is transferred by the patron to the parishioners. Yet the people are not overlooked; but have two ways allowed them of expressing their sentiments of the person who is to minister to them, either by subscribing or refusing to subscribe a paper, named a *call*, inviting him to be their minister; or by supporting a charge of immorality of conduct or unsoundness of doctrine. The former of these seems of little importance, as a *call* may be sustained, however small the number of subscribers. If no objection occur, the person is ordained, by imposition of the hands of the presbytery, who assemble at a time appointed for the purpose; the presentee having first answered the questions, and made the promises and engagements required by the law.

The lowest judicatory in the church of Scotland is the *kirk-session*, composed of the minister of the parish and of lay elders. New elders are chosen by the session, but are liable to be objected

Digitized by Google

against by any member of the congregation. If the objections be not valid, they are at an appointed time set apart to their office by prayer; having first declared their assent to all that is contained in the confession of faith.

A presbytery is composed of an indefinite number of parishes; in some populous districts of not less than thirty, in some more remote of not more than four. This judicatory consists of the ministers of all the parishes within the district; of the professors of divinity, if they be ministers, in any university that is within the same district; and of one elder from each parish. A moderator, who must be a minister, is chosen twice a year. At present there are 78 presbyteries in Scotland.

Three or more presbyteries, as the matter happens to be regulated, compose a *provincial synod*. There are at present fifteen of these judicatories, most of which meet twice in the year. This court is formed of every minister of all the presbyteries within the bounds of the synod, and the same elder who had last represented the kirk-session in the presbytery.

The next and highest ecclesiastical court is the *general assembly*. It is composed in the following manner: All presbyteries consisting of twelve parishes, or under that number, send two ministers and one ruling elder; all presbyteries consisting of eighteen or fewer, but above twelve, send three ministers and one ruling elder; all presbyteries consisting of twenty-four parishes, or fewer, but above eighteen, send four ministers and two elders; all of above twenty-four, but under thirty parishes, send five ministers and two ruling elders; and all that consist of more than thirty parishes, send six ministers and three ruling elders. The sixty-six royal burghs of Scotland are represented in the general assembly by ruling elders: Edinburgh sending two, and every other burgh one; and each of the five universities is represented by one of its members. The general assembly, therefore, is composed of two hundred ministers representing presbyteries, eighty-nine elders representing presbyteries, sixty-seven elders representing royal burghs, five ministers or elders representing universities: in all 361. In this assembly, the sovereign is represented by the lord high commissioner. This assembly meets annually in the month of May, and continues to sit for ten days. But as it may be impossible, in that space of time, to decide all the questions that are brought before it, and circumstances may occur in the intervals between general assemblies requiring the interposition of this supreme court, a commission is annually formed of the general assembly: which differs from the general assembly chiefly in not being honoured by the representation of the sovereign, and may be considered as a committee of the whole house. Thirty-one members, of whom twenty-one are always to be ministers, constitute a quorum, which meets four times in the year, or oftener, for the dispatch of business.

These four courts are so constituted, that each inferior court is subject to the controul of its superior. The power of the superior court may be exercised at its own pleasure, upon reference from an inferior court, and upon appeal or complaint. In matters purely ecclesiastical, the civil power does not interfere with these spiritual courts; but in every question of a civil nature, such as respect glebes, &c. the decision of a presbytery is cognizable by a civil judicatory.

The judicial power of the church of Scotland appears in the infliction or removal of such censures as are thought to belong to a spiritual society. The objects of these censures are gross immorality, heresy, and schism. The minister of the parish has no power of this nature, but as a member of the kirk-session: and he again is subject to no control less than that of the presbytery by whom he was ordained, and by whom alone he may be suspended or deposed. The nature of these censures, and the method of inflicting them, are defined in a code of laws, confessedly imperfect, called the form of process.

General laws were formerly made and repealed by the general assembly alone. The barrier act enables an individual to propose to the presbytery new laws, or the amendment or repeal of old laws. Such proposals must be transmitted to the general assembly, and by them are either dismissed, or sent to all the presbyteries for their approbation. The result is returned to the next general assembly, and passes into a standing law, if not less than forty presbyteries have approved. To prevent the delay which must thus be occasioned, the general assembly, if it thinks fit, can order the proposed measure to be ob-

Digitized by Google

served as a law, during the term which intervenes between its first being proposed, and the rejection or confirmation of it by the presbyteries at its succeeding meeting.

The church of Scotland receives annually from the exchequer of that country, 2000l. Of this, 560l. are set apart for the salaries of the procurator and agent of the church, the law-officers, clerks, &c.; and the remaining 1500l. for the defraying of the expences incident to the dignified station of the representative of the sovereign in the general assembly. Emoluments are also annexed to the offices of his Majesty's chaplains for Scotland, and the deans of the chapel-royal. The stipends of the ministers arise chiefly from the teinds or tythes, paid either in money or in kind by the titular of the teinds, who is not always the landholder, but in some cases the crown, in others an individual or a corporation. The landholder in Scotland enjoys a privilege in respect of the payment of tithes, which is not known in other Christian states: he may value his teinds before a court of session; and that valuation being established, how much soever the rent of his lands may rise by the improvements of agriculture, &c. the increase is entirely his own, because the teinds never go beyond the rate at which the valuation had fixed them. The landholder, if he be not titular, as is frequently the case, may compel the titular to sell the teinds to him: excepting where the teinds are held by the crown, or when they have been granted for the support of public institutions. If the titular does not pay the whole of the teinds, according to their valuation, to the minister, the court of session may grant an augmentation, but never beyond the quantity or sum fixed when the teinds were valued. Besides the teinds, the minister of every country parish is provided with a dwelling house, or manse; with a garden; with a glebe of not less than four acres of arable land; with grass for one horse and one cow, and with the out-houses necessary for the management of his small farm. By another legal provision, called the ann, the half-year's stipend that becomes due after the death of a minister, is paid to his widow or executors.

We have thus endeavoured to exhibit to our readers, in the most succinct manner, the constitution of the church of Scotland. It has its excellencies and its defects both in theory and in practice; but upon neither do we feel ourselves here required to offer any remarks.

The third part of Dr. Hill's work, which contains 'Counsels respecting the Duties of the Pastoral Office,' though designed for the Scottish clergy, may be read with great advantage by those within the pale of our own establishment, and by the regular teachers of dissenting societies.

ART. XX. *Letters to Mr. Fuller on the Universal Restoration, with a Statement of Facts attending that Controversy, and some Strictures on Scrutator's Review. By* WILLIAM VIDLER. 8vo. pp. 157.

THE author of these letters is very well known to those who pay any attention to controversial divinity, as the zealous advocate for the doctrine of universal restitution, which Mr. Winchester preached with much success some years ago. In the year 1793, Mr. Vidler received from Mr. Fuller what he considered a *private* letter, occasioned by his having openly avowed this doctrine. This letter was in 1795 published, without Mr. Vidler's knowledge, in the Evangelical Magazine, a periodical publication which was not open to a defence. Some time after this, Mr. Vidler began to publish a monthly work, entitled the Universalist's [illegible] continued [illegible] sal Theo[illegible] offered to conduct the controversy, and several letters were accordingly published by both parties. Mr. Fuller's letters were afterwards printed separately, and soon occasioned, as was most probably designed, a violent tract, called, "Letters to an Universalist, containing a Review of the Controversy between Mr. Vidler and Mr. Fuller, on the Doctrine of Universal Salvation." The writer signed himself *Scrutator*, being ashamed, as Mr. Vidler conjectures, and as he certainly with reason might be, "to put his name to the effusions of his anger." The work before us consists of letters which were written in reply to Mr. Fuller, and which, in the opinion of Mr. Vidler, ought to have been published [illegible] time with them.

Digitized by Google

We shall not attempt to enter into the merits of this controversy. Mr. Vidler has reason on his side, though not all the scriptures which he has pressed into his service. We do not mean by this to insinuate, that the doctrine of eternal punishment is a doctrine of the scriptures, but that inferences against it are here drawn from passages which belong to a very different subject. We have long been of opinion that the greatest immediate aid that Universalists can derive from scripture is, the absence of every thing adverse to their opinion, and that it is in vain for them to look for any positive evidence in their favour. The New Testament, wherever it has any reference to the future state of the wicked, does not contradict their hypothesis; and all that it teaches of the character of God, and of his moral government, is decisive in its support. These letters are written with great ability, and what is better, with a truly liberal and christian spirit. Even they, who might perhaps question the soundness of his principles, would, we think, be compelled to acknowledge that in one, at least, of the virtues of the gospel, the writer is no mean proficient: he can return good for evil, and, when reviled, withhold himself from reviling again.

The temper of those with whom Mr. Vidler has chiefly to contend, will be seen from the following passage.

"It is a maxim pretty generally allowed among Calvinist churches, that Error is worse than vice. This maxim was publicly avowed at the association of the particular Baptist churches at Chatham in Kent, 1793. At that assembly I was publicly excluded from their communion for believing and avowing the doctrine of the restitution of all things. The moderator, when he had pronounced the sentence of excision, added, 'I am constrained to say, that your moral conduct has been such as would do honour to a much better cause than that in which you are engaged.' And the minister who preached on the occasion to a very crowded audience, said, 'The universal doctrine is an heresy, and every one who holds it is an heretic; not that every heretic is a wicked man; for heretics are often the holiest of men; but heresy is more dangerous than vice; for if a wicked man is sound in the faith, there is some hope of him; such are often recovered; but as for heretics, they are very seldom recovered from their errors.'—There were near thirty Calvinist ministers of different denominations present, and only one of them disavowed the sentiment that was so publicly taught. I have from that time to this been treated with the utmost contempt by many nominal Christians of loose characters, who have been taught that the holiest of men may be heretics, and that heresy, though attended with holiness, is worse than vice!!! The enormity of this maxim appears in its full view when it is recollected, that by error and heresy we are not to understand a departure from Christianity, but a departure from Calvinism."

Whilst such is the conduct of men who profess to be christians, who can wonder that the name of Christ is still "a stone of stumbling, and a rock of offence?"

ART. XXI. *Methodism Inspected. Part I. With an Appendix, on the Evidences of a State of Salvation. By* WILLIAM HALES, *D. D. Rector of Killesandra.* 8vo. pp. 94.

IT is much to be lamented that persons who profess so much zeal for religion, and who devote themselves so laudably to the reformation of that class of the community, which is considered by the generality of teachers as below their notice, should be so much under the influence of fanaticism, as essentially to injure the cause they appear desirous of serving; and while they lessen the quantity of moral evil, do all in their power to render the gospel, and the profession of it, contemptible in the eyes of the sceptic and the unbeliever. The little treatise before us, was composed in consequence of the extravagant and indecorous conduct of the methodist missionaries, in that part of Ireland in which the author resides. The censure which is here passed upon them, with a spirit becoming a christian minister, is no other than they most justly deserve; and if their minds were open to conviction, they might here learn how unscriptural are their doctrines of complete freedom from sin, experimental freedom of divine favour, and positive assurance of forgiveness. They might also be taught the folly of expecting sudden conversions, and the indecency of those violent agitations of body which they encourage the deluded people to exhibit.

The author has selected from some of Mr. Wesley's works, particularly from a letter written to Maxfield, one of his

early apostate preachers, some excellent remarks, which ought to be carefully studied by those who with a zeal, not guided by knowledge, are "turning the world upside down."

ART. XXII. *A Vindication of Scriptural Unitarianism, and some other Primitive Doctrines: in Reply to Vindex's Examination of an Appeal to the Society of Friends. By* VERAX. 8vo. pp. 124.

THIS work does not strictly correspond with the title. It ought to be considered as a defence of the author's former tract, in which he endeavoured to prove that the founders of the sect of friends, and the early defenders of its doctrine and practice, were Unitarians. We have here, therefore, not a regular vindication of scriptural unitarianism, which we were prepared to expect, but a revisal of the passages which had been selected from Penn, Barclay, Fox, Penington, &c. for the purpose of shewing their opinions concerning the person of Christ, and the authority of the scriptures. In many of these there is great obscurity, and we confess ourselves unequal fully to decide between Verax and his opponent. We are therefore disposed to say with our elder brother, the rustic critic Palæmon,

Non nostrum inter vos tantas componere lites;
Et vitulâ tu dignus et hic.

ART. XXIII. *The Divine Logos; or Jehovah Elohim the only proper Object of Christian Worship. By* JOHN BENTLEY. Small 8vo. pp. 164.

A POMPOUS little book, from which the reader will derive the clearest conviction that Mr. Bentley is at least a smatterer in Hebrew. He may also, perchance, be amused with the changes which are here rung upon the affected titles of Elohim, Dabar Elohim, and Ruach Elohim; and he will doubtless be astonished at the penetration of an author who confidently assures us, that "the intelligent Hebrews always considered the term Elohim as implying Jehovah, the Dabar, his only son, and the Ruach, his Holy Spirit." And that the priest pronouncing his blessing upon the people, in which the term Jehovah occurs thrice, at the same time "disposing his fingers into a certain form, acknowledged the Holy Trinity." When Mr. Bentley ventures upon such flights as these, his fears are very natural that in the hands of "the gentlemen reviewers, he shall resemble the partridge when he experiences the fraternal embraces of the hawk; that one will seize upon a leg, another upon a wing, and not a feather escape them." From us, however, this mystic bird has nothing to fear. We shall not interrupt his playful mazy flight, as we have no relish for the picking of bones, from which so little is to be gotten, and that little so hard of digestion.

ART. XXIV. *A Short and Practical Account of the Principal Doctrines of Christianity, for the Use of Young Persons. To which are added suitable Prayers. By* W. J. REES. 12mo. pp. 43.

THIS little tract was drawn up by the author, to assist his parishioners in their preparation for the rite of confirmation; and it may be useful to others, who are required to observe the same ceremony.

SERMONS AND PRACTICAL THEOLOGY.

ART. XXV. *Sermons by* WILLIAM LAWRENCE BROWN, *D. D. Principal of Marischal College and University, Aberdeen, &c.* 8vo. pp. 491.

THE author of these sermons has been long known, and highly and deservedly esteemed. All that the public has yet received from him, has been received with pleasure, and excited a favourable expectation of all that was to come. The highest expectation will here be gratified. Treating upon the most useful subjects, eminently distinguished by soundness of argument, eloquence of style, and an intimate knowledge of the human heart, these dis-

courses form a valuable addition to this interesting and important branch of English literature.

This volume contains eighteen sermons, upon the following subjects:

I. On the duty and character of a christian preacher. (Preached at the author's admission to the west church, Aberdeen.) II. On the love of God. III. On the joy and peace of believing and practising the gospel. IV. On the nature, the causes, and the effects of indifference with regard to religion.—(Preached before the society for propagating christian knowledge in Scotland.) V. On the folly of procrastination with regard to the concerns of religion. VI. On the vanity of religion, unless considered as the chief good, and accompanied with zeal and perseverance. VII. On the nature, the effects, and the rewards of constancy and perseverance in religion. VIII. On the progressive nature of religion in the soul. IX. X. XI. On prudence and simplicity of character. XII. XIII. XIV. On Agar's prayer. XV. XVI. On pride. XVII. On humility. And XVIII. On the unfailing nature of charity, as a motive to cultivate it. (Preached for behoof of a society, instituted for the relief of the sick poor, and entitled, "The sick man's friend.") Of these, though some are undoubtedly more excellent than others, there is not one which does not contain many important truths, illustrated and enforced by a vigorous and commanding eloquence. We could, with pleasure, justify this assertion, but we are compelled to limit our quotations. We cannot, however, refrain from presenting our readers with the following: In the *third* sermon, amongst many other satisfactory observations, designed to rectify the erroneous opinions which are commonly entertained with respect to the moral obligations of christianity, Dr. Brown says:

"In fact, the religion of Christ contains no absurd or irrational doctrine, and no precept, but what is founded on the nature and relations of man, and perfective of his happiness. If, rejecting the superstitious fears, and enthusiastic dreams of ignorant and misguided christians, we examine the sacred scriptures themselves, we shall find, that, by the laws of the gospel, as well as by the frame of nature, their common author has annexed happiness to virtue, and misery to vice; that he has prohibited only what is repugnant, and commanded only what is conducive to our real welfare; that our religion never designed to extinguish, but merely to regulate our original propensities; and that, within the bounds of nature and of reason, we are still allowed to gratify them. We shall find, that every doctrine of the gospel has a most salutary tendency in either leading us to the right knowledge of our condition, inspiring us with exalted ideas of the Christian scheme, or engaging us to virtuous conduct by the most generous and cogent motives.

"Though we be Christians, we may cultivate our understandings, refine our imaginations, indulge our natural and social affections, nor be entirely insensible to personal and selfish enjoyments. Though we be favoured with divine instruction, we are not denied the benefit of human learning.—Though the book of revelation be laid open to us, the book of nature is not closed to our eyes. Though we be chiefly required to attend to the beauty and excellence of the moral character, the order and symmetry of material objects are not withheld from our observation. Though we be adopted *into the household of faith*, our relation to the great community of mankind, much less to those more immediately committed to us by providence, is not dissolved. Though we be expectants of heaven, this does not preclude our acting in our present capacity of inhabitants of this world.

"In reality, when we honestly employ the means adapted to the advancement of our temporal prosperity, we also *work out our eternal salvation*; or, in other words, the most eligible methods of promoting the one will contribute to excite and confirm in our minds the joyful expectations of the other. Engaged in the business of our particular calling, and faithfully discharging the duties of the station allotted us by providence, we are, at the same time, serving God. Providing with integrity for our families, and gratefully bettering our circumstances, we are also qualifying ourselves for an *inheritance incorruptible, undefiled, and that fadeth not away, reserved in the heavens.* Recommending ourselves to the esteem and friendship of our fellow-men, we are thereby forming our souls for *the society of angels, of the general assembly and church of the first-born, and of the spirits of just men made perfect.* Preserving, by wholesome refreshment and moderate exercise, the health and vigour of our bodies, we are equally recreating and invigorating our minds for rational and spiritual pursuits, and thus preparing them for a more refined and exalted state."

Whilst the believer feels the truth of the following animated passage, the man of taste must admire its eloquence:

"These are joys pure and substantial, suited to the dignity of the rational nature,

and independent of our brutal part. These can never be carried to excess, never succeeded by corroding reflexion. Pleasing once, they please and delight us for ever. These neither birth, nor external events, nor the dispositions of men, nor disease, nor age, can affect. They attend us in society, and forsake us not in solitude. When enemies persecute us, they inspire us with courage, and endue us with strength. When false friends abandon us, they remain. They solace adversity, and enhance, and adorn prosperous circumstances. They lighten the burdens of life, and disarm death of his terrors! Compared with these affluence is poor, grandeur is contemptible, sensual pleasure is disgusting. External circumstances are appropriated to no inherent dignity of character, and are, often, the means of debasing it. But, religious and moral enjoyments are the peculiar privileges of the wise and good, who are not excluded from their share of worldly possessions, and can enjoy them with the highest relish. Still, should these be withheld, supported by their internal resources, by conscious integrity, by the exhilarating sense of the divine favour, and by the glorious prospect of a blessed immortality, the piously wise must, even in adversity and affliction, be possessed of a more abundant store of happiness than can belong to the impious and wicked, placed on the summit of power, basking in the sunshine of prosperity, and resounding the loudest strains of dissolute mirth. Like a rock towering above the deep, the man of piety and virtue beholds the storms of calamity roar around him, without shaking his resolution, or impairing his strength. When the tempest assails those of a contrary character, they are tossed, like the sand, from surge to surge, and when the calm returns, sink under the weight of their own depravity!"

The fourth discourse, delivered on a particular occasion, is worthy of being recommended to general attention.—The following passages we cannot withhold:

"The present age values itself on the improvement of elegant art, on the cultivation of literature, and on a general civilization of manners. The desire of knowledge pervades even the vulgar; and a certain species of refinement is every where conspicuous. Thousands, however, who affect the philosophical spirit, and a high degree of philanthropy, despise religion, as unsuitable to elegance of mind, and acuteness of understanding. But, can any thing be more absurd, than to enquire into every other cause, and to exclude the Supreme? Can any thing be more irrational, than to discover and admire the curious structure, and the nice adaptation of means to ends, displayed through every part of nature, and to receive no impression of the original Contriver? Can any thing be more inconsistent, than to be alive and sensible to every species of created symmetry and beauty, and to be utterly callous to the spotless perfection of the creating and governing mind? Can any thing be more degrading, than to esteem and honour every display of human genius, wisdom, and benignity, and to be insensible to the source from which even those are derived, *the Father of lights*, the *Author of every good and perfect gift*? The mountain, hiding its snowy head in the clouds; the river rolling its irresistible current, swelled with all the waters of heaven; the boundless expanse of ocean; the raging agitations of the tempest—these are grand and sublime objects, which affect the most stupid and unfeeling heart! But, what are these, in comparison of Him who *counteth the nations, as the small dust of the balance*; *who taketh up the isles as a very little thing*; *who stretcheth out the north over the empty space*; *and hangeth the earth upon nothing*?"

In accounting for the indifference that prevails with regard to religion, Dr. Brown very judiciously remarks:

"To the prevalence of this disposition, the attacks, made by sceptics on Christianity, have contributed in a manner which I recollect not to have, hitherto, seen remarked. In conducting the deistical controversy through all its branches, much acuteness of intellect, and copious stores of erudition, have frequently been requisite. But, while the truth of religion was evinced, its power and energy over the heart were, in some measure, suspended. Every appearance of warmth was avoided. Zeal was considered as blinding the understanding, as precluding impartiality, as leading to a degree of animation prejudicial to the cause of truth, as expressive of an intolerant mind, which the enemies of religion were so prone to charge on its professors. The coldness, which is peculiar to scepticism, was communicated to those who were engaged in combating it, by detecting the fallacy of sophistical argument. This species of contest, which it was necessary to maintain, introduced into the minds of many rational Christians a certain argumentative insensibility. Though those, whose faith was built on the firmest foundations of evidence, had the strongest grounds of attachment to our holy religion, yet, the tone of their religious feelings was reduced, and a speculative and theoretical belief was sometimes allowed to take place of *that faith which is the substance of things hoped for, and the evidence of things not seen*: that faith, *which purifieth the heart, worketh by love, and overcometh the world*. The glow of piety, the spirit of devotion, the energy of holy zeal, were chilled by the process of abstract intellect, and the affections, deprived of their proper objects, were allowed to subside into lethargic indifference. As, in those

times, when the rage of controversy, prevailed among Christians, zeal for doctrinal points diverted attention from the admirable morality of the gospel; so, the logical warfare with sceptics tended to superinduce a cold, speculative, phlegmatic habit, which excluded, or at least impaired, that justly proportioned zeal for religion which ought always to animate its professors.

"By these remarks I mean no reflexion on those able defenders of Christianity, whose irresistible arguments have triumphantly repelled the attacks of deists, and to whom the Christian church owes indelible obligations. But, to every human work some imperfection unavoidably adheres, and I am convinced that the cause just now stated, has, in some degree, contributed to produce that listless profession of religion so prevalent in the present times. While the understanding was occupied in defending its truth, the heart was perhaps less affected by its intrinsic excellence and beauty."

What Dr. Brown observes of pride is not more eloquent than true:

"Pride commences with our life, grows with our growth, and spreads through all our conversation and conduct. She accompanies us through every stage, condition, and circumstance of our terrestrial course. She intermingles with almost every action we perform, and every pursuit in which we engage. She attends us to the grave, in all the pomp, solemnity, and expence of funeral. She engraves her ostentatious inscriptions on the stone that covers the mouldering body, and, when that body is incorporated with its original dust, and these *words of vanity* are no longer legible, she attempts, by escutcheons and pedigrees, and genealogical legends, to perpetuate the name which wisdom had, perhaps, consigned to oblivion. This is, more or less, the foible, this the deformity, this the deep-rooted vice of all mankind. Pride appears in the cottage, as well as in the palace. She sits on the workman's bench, as well as on the monarch's throne. She struts driving a flock of sheep, as well as marching at the head of a victorious army. One great cause of wrath, and contention, and rancour among men, is, whose pride has a right to indulgence; who is entitled to that pre-eminence, of which both parties are, perhaps, equally unworthy; and who is authorised to vindicate that superiority at which all aspire, but which the generality refuse to every one, but themselves?"

With the following pathetic passages, we will, reluctantly, conclude our selections. It occurs in the last discourse.

"Ye, who enjoy every convenience and comfort of life! to whom, when you are laid on a bed of sickness, every soothing aid, every help of medicine, every relief that money or tenderness can supply, are provided; reflect how you endured the pains and languors of disease, though mitigated and softened by all that human art or kindness could devise! Did you happen to be removed from your abode, when some severe and dangerous malady assailed you, how were you overwhelmed by the absence of domestic charity and convenience? But, the poor man has no home for sickness! Health is necessary to procure him ordinary comfort, is necessary to provide him and his family with the means of daily subsistence.—Laid *on the bed of languishing*, perhaps on the bed of death, he beholds his wife and children, disconsolate around him. They can present to him none of the cordials and supports of sickness; for his interrupted labour deprives them of the staff of life. His distress and theirs are unknown to the ear of opulence. The rich, or those who employ him, recognise him only by the price of his labour. When fixed to a sick-bed, which serves rather to augment, than to alleviate his malady, he ceases to attend his work, he ceases also to be present to their minds. Another comes, occupies his place, receives the wages he used to earn,—and the sick man is forgotten! Disease continues to prey upon his frame, till he expires! He is consigned to the grave of difficult purchase, and to oblivion, or is remembered only by the beggary of his family, often accounted importunate and troublesome!"

Before we close our account of this valuable volume, we must notice the inaccurate use of the particle *that*, for *since*, or *seeing that*, or *because*. "This question," observes Dr. Brown, "is the more necessary, that, from mistaken notions with regard to the subject of it, have proceeded, &c." p. 26. A similar passage is to be met with, p. 266.—These are indeed only minute blemishes, but they are such as all who read these discourses, with the same pleasure that they have afforded to us, will wish to have removed.

Digitized by Google

ART. XXVI. *Sermons preached occasionally in the Episcopal Chapel, Stirling, during the eventful Period, from* 1793 *to* 1803, *by* GEORGE GLEIG, *LL. D. & F. R. S. E.* 8vo. pp. 424.

THESE sermons are twenty-one in nnmber. In an advertisement prefixed, the author disclaims all expectation of encreasing either his fortune or his fame by the publication of them. He hopes, however, "that they may be read, as he was assured they were heard, with some advantage."

Two leading objects appear to occupy the preacher's attention, through nearly the whole of these discourses: the first, to combat certain fanatical preachers, whom Dr. Gleig describes as having gained great influence in the northern part of this island; and the second, to expose and to censure that system of modern philosophy, the prevalence and success of which he attributes to a determined conspiracy against christianity, of the *illuminati* aided and abetted by what he considers as its genuine offspring, the French Revolution. The late war, therefore, he praises, as just in its principles, and necessary for the preservation of religion and social order: and he denounces all those who have maintained a contrary opinion, or held the propriety of any reform in our government, as levellers and anarchists, zealous only to overthrow the happy constitution of their country. We shall not take upon ourselves to animadvert upon the accuracy or the candour of this representation, or to decide on the legitimacy of all the inferences drawn from it. Secluded from the busy world of political debate, we have heard at a distance the loud acclaim of the justice, the necessity, and the glorious tendency of former wars, the secret springs of which have been afterwards laid open; and the ostensible have been proved to be not the real motives by which the actors in the bloody scenes were moved. To war-preachers, therefore, we would recommend more moderation; and to them no less than to all other polemics we would suggest this truth, that to make an argument prove too much is exceedingly to weaken its force.

Of the fanatics against whom Dr. Gleig declaims, of their principles and their success, he thus speaks:

"In an age which has witnessed a whole nation renouncing the faith of Christ, and when the religion of all Europe has certainly waxed cold, this doctrine is peculiarly dangerous; and yet I believe it never was propagated among us with more zeal than at present.

"While the more intelligent teachers of religion in both parts of the united kingdom, supinely suffer things to take their course, without exerting one effort to stem the torrent of infidelity which threatens to overwhelm us—a set of absurd and self-commissioned fanatics wander over the country, "creep into houses, and lead captive silly women," and sillier men, by assuring them, that Christianity requires of them nothing but what they call *faith*; that what moralists term the duty of subjects to their sovereign concerns not them; that the love of their country is no virtue, but perhaps a vice; that the precepts of morality are but the elements of a legal institution; and that they shall certainly be saved, if they firmly believe that Jesus Christ died for the elect, and that they themselves are of that happy number.

"Thus is this nation likely to be lost with others, not by the arms of its enemies, but by the false principles of its members; by the irreligion of some; the lukewarmness of many; and the mistaken notions of Christianity entertained by those who appear by their conduct, compared with that of others, to be the only party actuated by zeal."

If the following picture of our northern youth be not too highly coloured, we agree with the preacher that we have reason to be alarmed at our situation. But we hope these have been contemplated by him through the same magnifying medium that has enlarged and rendered terrific the other objects of his animadversion.

"Of our young men bred to the liberal professions, two-thirds at least are avowed infidels; and indulge of course, without compunction, in the practice of every vice which fashion has not made dishonourable, and of which the laws of their country take no cognisance. In proof of this heavy charge, I might refer you to those impious and immoral books which daily issue from the press, and are bought and read with astonishing avidity. But to enumerate these would be little better than to mingle poison with your own cup; and for such a hazardous proof there is the less necessity, that one cannot mix at all with the world without finding my position fully verified. Nay, so prevalent is fashion, and so infatuating example, that we find professed infidels at every table; and no man can be sure that the stranger who sits next to him shall not,

Digitized by Google

before he rise, break an impious jest on the object of his adoration.

"The presence of a clergyman is still some restraint, in this respect, on the tongue of good manners: and yet, within these two months, I heard one of the greatest ornaments* of this, or any other country, pronounced a party man, because some of the company had observed that he was a Christian! Men of lay-professions meet much more frequently with instances of this kind than clergymen can be supposed to do. A friend of mine, whose veracity cannot be doubted, assured me, that of thirty young men composing a literary society, of which he was a member, there were but three who had the courage to profess themselves Christians. A few more declared their belief in the existence of God: but a very great majority were avowed atheists.

"Whence, now, can we suppose such extreme depravity of principle to have arisen? From calm inquiry and from the pursuits of science? No! Calm inquiry, on scientific principles, always leads to truth; and he† who possessed perhaps the profoundest mind that ever actuated a human frame, and made greater progress in the pursuits of science than any man had ever done before him, was likewise one of the firmest believers in the doctrines of the gospel.

"The young men whom I have mentioned as calling themselves atheists, had never thought seriously on the subject of religion: they had probably seen their parents and guardians, who professed Christianity, neglect its ordinances, disregard many of its precepts, and show a perfect apathy with respect to all its threats and all its promises. It was, therefore, not unnatural, for youthful minds to infer that the faith of such persons, if they had any faith, fell short even of that which the apostle attributes to those beings, of whom he declares, that 'they believe and tremble.' But, from thinking thus of the religion of parents and guardians, persons to whom every one is accustomed to look up with reverence—it is a very short step for a young man, ardent in the pursuits of pleasure, to conclude, without inquiry, that all pretensions to revelation are impostures upon mankind; and that the Old and New Testaments are a collection of fables."

In a sermon preached on the fast-day, 1797, both the higher and the lower orders of our community are thus heavily charged.

"In the last century the natives of this island, after piously recommending themselves and their country to the God of battles, united with ardour under an usurped government, which most of them justly abhorred, to repel the threatened invasion of an insulting foe: but at the present awful crisis, when all the powers of Europe, that have it much in their power to annoy us, seem leagued for the destruction of every thing dear to us as men and as Christians, some individuals of the higher orders of society are exerting all their influence, and all their power, to distract the attention of government, to rend in pieces the force of the empire, and to deliver up their countrymen —nay, themselves, their wives, and their children—gagged and bound, to a host of murdering atheists. Others again, though not so far lost as this, to all sense of what the world calls honour; yet "forgetting the God of their salvation, and the rock of their strength," plunge heedlessly into the excess of dissipation, and trust the defence of every thing which ought to be dear to them to the arm of flesh.

"Nor are the principles and practices of the lower orders among us more consonant to our holy religion than those of the higher. Our peasants and mechanics, instead of looking to persons of the same station in other countries, and comparing their own happiness with theirs', which would fill their breasts with gratitude to God, and with a chearful submission to the laws of their country, turn their eyes upwards with stupid malevolence to the splendour of their landlords, and such other persons as occupy stations superior to their own; and, being stung with envy, are eager to pull them from those elevations which, in the present state of things, they cannot themselves hope to reach. Hence that impatience of government, and those wild clamours for political reformation, which pervade all the lower orders of society, may be traced to the single source of envy engrafted on ignorance; envy of the imaginary happiness of their superiors, and ignorance of this obvious truth, that had they no superior in the state, they could never have acquired the wealth which they now enjoy."

We must, however, do our author the justice to observe, that when his mind is not heated by the contemplation of the speedy destruction of all social order, he frequently reasons with precision, calmness, and effect.

* Locke. † Newton.

Digitized by Google

ART. XXVII. *Sermons on several Occasions. By the Reverend* R. SHEPHERD, *D. D. Archdeacon of Bedford.* 8vo. pp. 348.

THE volume here presented to the public contains thirteen sermons, and a charge delivered to the clergy of the archdeaconry of Bedford. The four first of these discourses are on the ground and credibility of the christian religion; the three next, on the evidence of a future state, afforded by reason; the eighth on the influence of example, and the causes which mislead the multitude; the ninth the fear of God; the tenth on the power of conscience; the eleventh on inspiration, and the means by which it may be discriminated; the twelfth on a former paradisaical state; and the thirteenth on the character of Charles the First, and of the causes which led to his death; preached at Oxford on the 30th of January.

The character of these discourses is not uniform; those which relate to the evidences of the christian religion are, upon the whole, worthy of the serious attention both of the believer and of the sceptic. The arguments, if not always new, are in general well arranged, and forcibly stated; the observations are frequently good, and sometimes excellent; yet, in the midst of much solid reasoning, we meet with positions which tend to destroy the effect of the previous arguments, and to increase the scepticism which it is the preacher's object to remove. Thus, discoursing upon the miracles of Christ, he justly observes,

"The manner also, in which these and his other miracles were wrought, was such as added a strong corroborating argument to prove them both real and divine. They were not performed in secret, they were not performed before a few credulous or interested witnesses, a circumstance which might have left them liable to the suspicion of imposture; but openly, before a multitude of enemies, as well as friends, at the most public festivals, and in the most frequented places of resort. They were performed also with the same sort of action with which Almighty God created the world; by a FIAT, by a bare word or intimation of his will, without gradual process, or visible means or instruments. In appeasing a violent tempest, he says only, *peace, be still:* immediately the obedient winds hearken to his voice, and the agitated sea subsides. In curing an inveterate leprosy, he says no more than—*I will, be thou clean:* and the leper is suddenly cleansed.—No sooner does he say to the deaf and dumb man, *Ephphatha, be opened*; than his ears are opened, and the string of his tongue loosed. He restores also to life both the widow's son, and Lazarus, by saying, to the one, *arise*, to the other, *come forth*. Once or twice, indeed, he employs natural means in his operations, but they were manifestly so ineffectual in their nature to the purposes for which they were employed, and designedly so, as conduced only to magnify the power of the performer: who in those acts communicated to certain forms of matter, by an efficiency nothing short of divine, powers and qualities, which in their own nature they did not possess. Add to the whole this finishing circumstance, that his miracles produced always a durable and permanent effect. If the ears of the deaf, or the eyes of the blind, are opened, they continue afterwards clearly and perfectly to hear or see. If the dead are raised, they continue to perform all the functions of life; and remain incontestibly standing witnesses to the reality of what was done in their favour."

But the force of this passage is much lessened by one in which it is allowed, that evil spirits may work miracles, and that "we cannot be certain, but that some phænomena which appear, and are really to us miraculous, have resulted from their agency."—Page 26. It is true, the preacher lays down some criteria, by which these may be distinguished from miracles wrought by the immediate agency of God; but if in any instance we admit Beelzebub to have the same power as Jesus, we diminish, if not destroy, the argument, upon which our Lord himself was willing to rest the proof of his divine mission; but Dr. Shepherd has not yet learnt what a miracle is, or he would never have conceived it possible for any but the Great Author of Nature to work one.

In the sermons on a future existence, there are many strong arguments well advanced, and many passages which display a feeling heart, and a correct judgment; yet we cannot by any means agree with our author, when he asserts, "that in the present life there is more evil than good, and that virtuous conduct does not encrease individual happiness;" nor can we admit the validity of his reasoning, from the example of the thief on the cross, the situation and sentiments of whom Dr. Shepherd has totally misunderstood.

In these discourses on future existence, Dr. Shepherd appears to be embarrassed by what he apprehends to be the

Digitized by Google

scripture doctrine of a future day of general judgment. He cannot believe that the soul sleeps till the day of the resurrection: he considers it as the doctrine of scripture, that the soul departs to her appointed future station, immediately after death; but in common with many other divines, he limits the happiness which the virtuous are to enjoy, though it must be necessarily spiritual, till the union between the mouldered dust and the never dying soul shall have again taken place. For our own parts, we confess that this hypothesis has ever appeared to us replete with difficulties. Does the language of scripture indeed teach a future general judgment? Are not the terms usually considered as referring to such an event, in truth to be interpreted as relating to a very important occurrence already long past? In a work written by the late Mr. Cappe, and which we noticed in our last volume, this hypothesis was started, and appeared to us worthy of consideration, as likely to remove difficulties of which all theologians hitherto, whether they have ventured to confess it or not, have been fully sensible.

Before we came, in our progress through this volume, to the sermon preached at Oxford on the 30th of January, we found reason to suspect that Dr. Shepherd is one of that class of churchmen (daily, we hope, diminishing) who regard moderation and candour as virtues which they are not called to exercise. As we perused this discourse, our suspicions were fully justisfied. Dr. Price and Dr. Priestley here meet with more than their usual share of obloquy, and the ecclesiastical gunpowder of the latter is by no means forgotten. "If there be those," thunders forth our preacher, page 307, "who with the dark spirit that conducted the operations of the infamous Vaux, openly exult in a texture of well conceived, and resolutely pursued machinations which will blow up our boasted constitution," &c. &c. and as though his readers were ignorant of the much misconceived and misrepresented passage to which he here refers, he adds this note:—"Dr. Priestley seems to have had Vaux's plot in his eye, when, to excite the spirited efforts of his coadjutors in the work of anarchy and confusion, he assures them, they were wisely placing, as it were, grain by grain, a train of gunpowder," &c. &c. Men who resort to such charges as these, must surely be fond of mischief, and conscious of their total want of persuasive argument, or convincing facts; and all such we would advise, when they again bring forward this "tale of terror," to relate it in the words of the late Dr. Geddes:

Non aderas, Priestley! potior te cura tenebat
Rure, ubi magna inter centum miracula rerum,
Horslæi caput in rutilantia fulmina forgis;
Sulphuris et salagis subtilia grana parare,
Church quibus et churchmen, in cœlum upblowere possis.

In page 304, we meet with a charge of a more serious complexion. "In some periods of the last century," Dr. Shepherd asserts, "when on several trying occasions the bishops and episcopal clergy made their noble stand against popery, it is well known, and ought never to be forgotten, that the dissenters held back, or were privately bargaining with that party for indulgence." We hesitate not to assert, with more than equal confidence, that this is *not* well known, and that the preacher has here been guilty of uttering a gross and unfounded libel. Is the arch-deacon of Bedford then so little read in the civil history of his country, as not to know who took a principal part in bringing in the families of Orange and of Brunswick? Has his eye never glanced over the page which records the *jacobitism* of churchmen, whilst the chevalier was maintained and patronized by our rival on the eastern side of the channel? Has his attention never been arrested by the tale of the patriotism of those whom he reviles; who, in times of public danger, from the enemies of liberty and the protestant cause, when they, who lived upon the state, and were bound to defend it, deserted their duty, nobly and disinterestedly came forward, and performed the most important services; for which, instead of claiming honours, *they were compelled to sue for pardon?* But it is an old doctrine, that truth, faith and justice may, with impunity, be violated, when a heretic is to be silenced; it is a doctrine which the arch-deacon seems highly to approve, and, perhaps conscientiously, to practice.

Digitized by Google

ART. XXVIII. *Practical Discourses. By the Rev.* RICHARD WARNER, *Curate of St. James's Parish, Bath.* 8vo. pp. 245.

OF the design and character of these discourses, a more correct or fairer view cannot be exhibited, than in the preacher's own words:

"The term practical discourses, (applied to all the following ones, except those on the evidences of our holy religion) is intended to designate a series of sermons, founded on the precepts, rather than the pretended doctrines, of the New Testament; whose object it is to develope and enforce the obligations of moral righteousness, and not to discuss points of useless speculation, nor controverted articles of faith. They were written, preached, and, I hope, are calculated, for every description of christians; for all those who believe the divine mission of Jesus Christ; who consider his religion more as a rule of conduct, than as a bone of contention; and hold practical piety and holiness of life to be of greater importance to themselves, and of higher value in the sight of God, than the most bigotted attachment to any forms of mere human invention; or the most zealous devotion to any creeds fabricated by the ingenuity of uninspired men.

"Whatever wild enthusiasts on the one hand, or worldly divines on the other, may conceit, assert, or write to the contrary, this I must continue to think, as long as my faculty of ratiocination remains unclouded—that christianity, according to the spirit and letter of the gospel, is a system neither veiled by mystery, nor involved in difficulty, as the former would lead mankind to imagine; nor is it essentially and exclusively associated with any particular form of liturgy, system of establishment, or modification of government, as the latter would suggest."

The spirit which dictated this passage is conspicuous in every part of the volume, so far as believers in the gospel are concerned; but towards those who admit not the divine origin of christianity, the author indulges in language by no means consistent with his avowed candour. Almost the whole of the first discourse is occupied in declamation against unbelievers, and is more like the production of an angry petulant controversialist, than of a grave and sober-minded divine. We agree with Mr. Warner, that the unbelievers are generally "unfair and uncandid in their conduct, with respect to their attacks upon revelation;" but we cannot assent to these unqualified assertions, that they are "under the influence of principles and prejudices vicious and perverse, base, wicked, and contemptible;" that they uniformly "scorn to attend to the evidence which proves the authenticity of the christian revelation;" and that their infatuated conduct can be accounted for upon no other principle, than that it springs from a secret dislike to those restrictions which christianity commands, and those virtues which it enjoins. "The features of christianity, so beautiful and so new, so worthy of infinite wisdom to suggest, and of infinite purity and goodness to command," we gladly acknowledge, "form a proof in favour of the divinity of christianity;" but we will not, we dare not say, as Mr. Warner does, "such a proof, as nothing less than judicial blindness, can be inattentive to; a proof that no man can deny or reject, whose taste for moral beauty is not entirely extinguished, whose understanding is not wretchedly weakened by the malignant influence of sin, whose judgement is not marvellously infatuated by the witcheries of vice, and whose power of discriminating between truth and falsehood is not altogether obliterated." To such sentiments, and to such expressions as these, we strongly object; they are not agreeable to the spirit which christianity recommends and enjoins, nor to that which the founder of christianity so carefully exhibited; they are not becoming in the christian preacher, nor adapted to abate the prejudices of those who receive not the gospel.

In other parts of this volume, we occasionally meet with declamation of a more innocent nature, but which leads us to question, not the author's charity, but his taste.

"Let, therefore, the elegant apologist," says the preacher, "for the glittering profligacy of classical worship pour forth all his cloying eloquence in the praise of the mildness of Polytheism; let him exercise all his sarcastic subtlety in endeavouring to lessen the sufferings of the christians, and to extenuate the cruelty of their gentile persecutors."

So in page 184, we read "of dangers that were lately distant, *approaching our shores by speedy approximation*;" and in page 192, of "the coldness and inattention of the worshippers of the *awful eternal essence*."

Mr. Warner is also chargeable with the use of words for which no authority

Digitized by Google

can be produced, and which no well-formed ear can tolerate. Thrice, at least, the term *concerning* occurs as a participle: the *concerning* truth of a future judgement, page 81, a short axiom *concerning* in its substance, page 128; and in page 187, we read, "in a *sorry* manner indeed, would the ministers of the gospel fulfil the *concerning* duties of their profession, &c."

In page 165, we are told, "that we must be content to sit down in disappointment, though not in *disconsolation*;" and, in another place, "the cottage of the labourer is the residence of *disconsolation* and want." If we had not met with such an unusual application of words, we should have supposed *mortal* to have been inserted in the following passage by some mistake on the part of the printer: "Is it not criminal in him to make this difference a plea for withdrawing from his brother *mortal* love and charity?"

Having, in the faithful discharge of our duty, thus freely censured, we turn to the more pleasing part of our office. We can sincerely recommend this volume, as containing a brief, but well arranged, and ably executed view of some of the leading proofs of the divine origin of the gospel. Notwithstanding the occasional blemishes which we have noticed, these discourses are upon the whole well written, and contain many passages very forcible and eloquent. The volume is composed of nine sermons. The *first* is introductory to those on the evidences of christianity; the second is on the evidence arising from prophecy; the third on the evidence arising from miracles; the fourth on the internal character of christianity; the fifth on the evidence arising from the propagation and establishment of christianity; the sixth on the necessity of practical religion; the seventh on the christian spirit; the eighth a fast sermon preached during the last war; and the ninth a thanksgiving sermon on peace.

As a specimen of the information and pleasure to be derived from these discourses, we present our readers with the following:

"But the beneficent character of our Saviour's miracles is not the only attestation of an heavenly origin with which they are impressed, and of the consequent truth of the system which he taught. Their number and their magnitude point to the same conclusions. They inclined the thinking party, even amongst the Jews, in spite of their general erroneous notions respecting the Messiah, to hesitate whether our Saviour might not be considered as that promised personage. 'When Christ cometh,' say they, 'will he do more miracles than this man hath done?' And if impartially investigated and seriously attended to, they must have the same effect upon every reflecting mind of the present day.

"Turn to the sacred pages which record the wonders that he worked, and behold all nature subject to his power. The winds of Heaven fly to do his pleasure, and the raging of the sea subsides at his command. He wills the change, and immediately the simple element is converted into wine; and plenty is produced in the barren wilderness. He says, let there be light in those eyes which have been blind from their birth, and there is light. He says, let the tongue be untied which nature had bound down in silence, and instantly it is unloosed, and sings hosannahs to the Son of David. The devils themselves tremble at and obey the voice of Christ; at his word the evil spirit relinquishes the object of his malice; and the poor possessed wretch who was lately writhing under the agonizing paroxisms of demoniacal phrensy, is now seen in his right mind, sitting at the feet of his compassionate deliverer, and listening to the gracious words that fall from his mouth. Even the dead hear the command of the Son of God, and awaken from their deep repose. At his omnipotent word the last enemy disgorges his prey; the daughter of Jairus feels the genial tide of life return; the son of the widow of Nain, rescued from the cold embrace of death, is again restored to his weeping mother; and Lazarus, starting from the bed of corruption, acknowledges the power and beneficence of the Lord and Giver of life."

ART. XXIX. *Sermons preached to a Country Congregation. To which are added, a few Hints for Sermons, intended for the Use of the younger Clergy. By* WILLIAM GILPIN, *M. A. Prebendary of Salisbury, and Vicar of Boldre, in New Forest.* Vol. III. 8vo. pp. 456.

NO style of composition is attained with more difficulty by a man of learning, than that which prevails in the work now before us; yet no one is of equal importance to those who are situated as Mr. Gilpin is, or indeed to preachers in general. Plain, yet not inelegant; level to the meanest capacity, and yet pleasing to a person of most cultivated taste; adapted to a congregation,

Digitized by Google

composed of "hewers of wood and drawers of water," and possessing attractions that would be felt in the court of a prince, or the school of a philosopher. In this style we cannot conceive of a greater proficient, than the vicar of Boldre; and we strongly recommend these discourses to the frequent perusal and the careful imitation of the younger clergy, especially of those who reside in country villages. We do not know any thing of the history of Mr. Gilpin's parish, but we are disposed to believe that no ignorant fanatical declaimer can have gained a hearing there. If they who "wander about from house to house, speaking the things which they ought not," have infected the parish of Boldre also, the worthy vicar must be singularly unfortunate in the flock over whom he presides. Twenty-five sermons are contained in this volume; twelve of these are upon the truth of the christian religion, the rest are upon miscellaneous subjects; such as—the poor in spirit; communing with our heart; the children of the world; faith, hope, and charity; the widow's mite, &c.

From the following quotations, the character of these discourses may be justly drawn:

In the second sermon upon the words of the apostle, 'let every one that nameth the name of Christ, depart from iniquity,' Mr. Gilpin observes:

"In the first place, let us consider how disreputable it is to act unsuitably to our profession. Even in common matters, in the business of this world, it is disgraceful. He who professes an art, or calling, and appears totally ignorant of it, is justly thought contemptible. You know how discreditable it is for a man to take a farm, for instance, when he knows not how to manage it. He sows wheat where he should sow barley. His grounds are ill prepared for either; and his neighbours see him carrying into his barn a plentiful crop of weeds, intermixed with his corn. They laugh at his ignorance. He feels it, and is ashamed.

"Now, if our feelings were as strong in matters of religion as they are in the matters of this world, (and it is a grievous thing, and much to be lamented, they are not) we should think it as contemptible for a christian to fall short of *his* profession, as for a man in any kind of business to be ignorant of that business. A christian's proper distinction is a holy life. He does not pretend to have more genius, or more learning, than a Turk or a heathen; but he professes to be more chaste, more sober, more just, more charitable, more pious, and more resigned. And if he fail in these, he deserts the art he should live by. He is a mere pretender, plainly unskilled in his proper profession."

The exordium of the *sixth* discourse afforded us much pleasure:

"We often rest satisfied with a fair outside. To be born in a christian country—to make a public profession of the christian faith, and to lead a life unstained by any notorious sin, is enough to make a good christian. If other people consider us in this light, (and we are very candid to each other) we are ready enough to take our religion on trust.

"There is a fashion in religion, as in every thing; and if we are in the fashion it is well. In ancient times, when men strictly followed the rules of the gospel, a different kind of religion was in fashion; and such people as now often pass for good christians, would then have been considered as *shameful men*. A man may now freely indulge the pleasures of life: he may give the world his heart: he need not trouble his head with the intention, the conditions, the promises, or the threatenings of the gospel, and yet he may be thought a very decent christian: he may be like his neighbours: he may be in the fashion.

"In little matters all this is well. In the trifling affairs of life, we may conform to the manners and customs of the world: we may suffer fashion to make a change in our cloaths. But, for God's sake, let us consider that religion is exactly the same now it ever was: it admits no fashion; and if we take our measures of it from what we commonly see practised in these declining days, we may call it christianity, if we please; but we may just as well call it any thing else. It is, in general, no more like christianity, than a modern man of fashion is like an apostle."

To such passages as these, and of such chiefly is the volume composed, we give an unqualified praise; but truth compels us to censure the worthy author for having, in one instance at least, suffered his faith to overcome his charity. In the twenty-second discourse, speaking of future punishments, after having quoted some of those passages of scripture which are commonly supposed to relate to that subject, he asks,

"How are we to interpret *these* passages? Are we to conceive them as expressing only some long period of time; or are we to consider them in a literal sense? and that the meaning is, that future punishments are actually to last for ever?

"Many people, it is true, have been led (by I apprehend chiefly by their own wishes) to consider them in the former sense. I own I see no grounds for such an opinion from any rules of interpretation that I know."

Digitized by Google

And again he observes,

"Or are we to consider future rewards as eternal, and future punishments as temporal, though the very same word is used to express both? This, no doubt, in the opinion of many people, would be the most commodious way of interpreting scripture; but whether it would be most agreeable to the just rules of interpretation, I much doubt."

We must be allowed to express our surprise, that any one who considers properly the character of God, the nature and design of his moral government, the condition of the constitution of man, and the idioms which prevail in the language of scripture, should strenuously contend for so dreadful a doctrine as never-ending torments, reserved for the wicked. And we cannot refrain from expressing our deep and sincere regret, that a christian minister should himself feel, and endeavour to infuse into the minds of others, such uncandid and unchristian sentiments concerning those who cannot be induced to maintain the same principles. No one, surely, who speaks thus harshly of all who do not doom the frail and erring creatures of a day to everlasting and remediless woe, can have read the pious, the benevolent, and the able work of Petitpierre!

The hints for sermons are, in general excellent, and may be used by the younger clergy with much advantage.

ART. XXX. *Sermons composed for a Country Congregation. By the Rev.* EDWARD NARES, *A. M. Rector of Biddenden, Kent.* 8vo. pp. 410.

OF a character very different from that of the preceding article, is the volume now before us. Composed with the same view, and preached, we suppose, in similar situations, there are no points in which the discourses agree. In the one prevail chasteness and simplicity of diction, not without much elegance; in the other there appears consciousness of superiority, ill disguised and imperfectly concealed by poverty of sentiment, and meanness of expression. Mr. Gilpin is a country clergyman, who without any restraint, or any violation of the most polished manners, can talk to his parishioners upon equal terms. Mr. Nares is the gentleman of high breeding, who seems to be out of his proper sphere when not in the drawing room, and who stoops with difficulty and awkwardness to converse with a villager. His discourses justify the remark we have already offered, respecting the difficulty of addressing the less cultivated classes of society, and demonstrate the necessity under which country clergymen ought to consider themselves, of studying the models of this most useful style of pulpit composition, exhibited by the vicar of Boldre.

In condescension, no doubt, to the vulgar capacities of his rustic hearers, Mr. Nares does not scruple to violate the plainest principles of English grammar: thus, in page 26, he says, "to a second, perhaps, *who* she sees striving hard to raise himself above his fellows, religion will cry out, to *humble* himself, &c;" and in page 272, "turn then to the idle, he thinks it better to *set* in the sunshine and sing." How judicious the preacher, who striving, we suppose, to become all things to all men, thus accommodates his style to the unpolished minds of an illiterate congregation! "The poor man will be chearful and gay; the sick man patient and full of hope; the lowly, humble and submissive, *and so on.*"—Page 145. Again, "We must allow it to be pardonable, while they are *not taught better*; but few are so destitute and forlorn, as to have no aged friend belonging to them who should *teach them better*. The sin must rest with these if they take no pains to *teach the young better*," &c. What the lowest of his village hearers could have written, the lowest must certainly have understood.

Serious as was the subject, we much doubt whether the preacher did not excite a smile even amongst his rustic parishioners, by the following most pathetic passages: "And first, to weep for the dead, is very natural indeed, *for we are of course left behind to lament their loss!* They are gone and have left this troublesome world; and, alas! have left us to struggle through the difficulties of it *unfriended and alone!*" And again, "Weeping and grieving are very painful and distressing!"

From the same principle, we suppose, of accommodation to the prejudices and the ignorance of the unlearned, Mr. Nares misinterprets the language of scripture. "Jesus, (he observes, page 352,) existed before the tempter, through whose seductions our first parents fell.

Digitized by Google

This also, in no obscure terms, he intimates himself: *I beheld Satan, says he, as lightning fall from Heaven.*—Luke x. 18!" The whole passage in which this occurs we recommend to the reader's notice, as an admirable specimen of the *bathos* or art of sinking; a finer descending climax we do not recollect ever to have seen, excepting indeed that the order is in one instance violated: Christ is said to have existed *before Abraham, before the tempter, before David, and before John.*

These may serve to demonstrate the truth of the observations with which we opened this article. The volume abounds with similar marks of the want both of judgement and of taste. From the following quotation, however, the reader will be induced to conclude, that if Mr. Nares had not mistaken the nature of the composition best adapted to a country congregation, he would have produced discourses not only more worthy of the public eye, but more likely to please and to benefit a country audience:

"But, though it may seem more remote, the liberties we take with our lives, through a wanton abuse of health, is not less irrational, or more to be defended. There are many excesses men run into, the certain effects of which are well known to be, the positive destruction of health, and a premature bringing on of decay and decrepitude. Because it does not happen that life is apparently brought into immediate danger by every single act of intemperance, we are heedless of remote consequences. But since life is now known to be a state of trial, it should be considered as a post of duty we have to maintain, and which we have no right to abandon till we have a regular dismissal from him who placed us in it. If the fabric of our mortal bodies is so constructed as that by care and management they may reasonably be expected to last *'threescore years and ten,'* as much we may conceive to be the common term assigned for our trial and probation, and what right can we have to abridge it? But if by intemperance and excesses we hasten the termination of life, undoubtedly we in effect do withdraw from our post, contrary to the original will and design of him who appointed the common limits of human life. It matters not when we destroy life, if we do but unnecessarily hasten its destruction.—Besides, it is not allowable to think, that life is not always exposed to danger, in every act of excessive indulgence; surely many have been known to die in the midst of their pleasures; many have been as suddenly hurried out of life by the intoxicating bowl, and other gross irregularities, as by the sword of the duellist, or the murderous arm of the suicide. Great is the error then, and most dangerous the mistake, of fancying our health and our lives to be our own; of which, if we have no account to render here, we can have none to render elsewhere; indeed of these two things, perhaps, shall we have a most formidable account to render; since, as it has been shewn, the wanton abuse, and deliberate exposure of either, are connected with some of the foulest crimes, and most disgusting immoralities."

ART. XXXI. *Sermons upon Subjects interesting to Christians of every Denomination.* By THOMAS TAYLER. 8vo. pp. 455.

The subjects of these sermons are more interesting than the sermons themselves, we apprehend, will prove. The preacher has done little to attract and to fix the attention: he has delivered plain truths in a plain manner, and addressed himself to the judgement, rather than to the feelings; but whatever may be the general opinion of these discourses, they will prove, without doubt, acceptable to the members of the church and congregation of protestant dissenters in Carter-lane; to whom they were formerly delivered, and are now dedicated, and with whom the author has had, as he himself says, "the honour and happiness to be connected for more than thirty-six years."—The following subjects are here discussed in twenty sermons: The moral government of God; accountableness to God for our religious opinions; genuine religion distinguished from that which is counterfeit; the superior excellence of the righteous; the wisdom of doing every thing in its proper season; the present our only state of trial; the duty and obligations of religious worship; the divine authority of the christian sabbath; the piety and fortitude of Daniel; Daniel's miraculous deliverance; the authoritative manner in which our Lord delivered his doctrine; the perfect purity of our Saviour's character; the crucifixion of our Lord; the conduct of the disciples in deserting their master; the duty and obligation of imitating Christ; the peculiar affection which christians owe to each other; and Jonah's gourd.

The following extracts will afford a specimen of the author's manner:

In the second sermon, upon being accountable to God for our religious opinions, he observes,

"The most upright minds, in this frail state of flesh and blood, cannot always, by

any methods which they are capable of adopting, certainly secure themselves from falling into error. They may not enjoy the proper means of information; or, they may labour under innocent prejudices, even upon very interesting subjects, which will as unavoidably darken the eye of the mind, as a film, or a disorder of the nerves, does the eye of the body. And God, we may be sure, will not charge that, upon any man as a crime, which ought really to be considered as his calamity. The censure, now intended, does not extend to the involuntary, and unavoidable mistakes of a humble, upright, teachable mind, who wishes to know the path of truth and duty, and diligently uses every mean in its power to find it. A person of this excellent temper, has no thing to dread from the sentence of his merciful and righteous judge. No, Sirs, such serious and impartial inquirers, may look up to him with an assured hope, that their unwilling mistakes, shall never be brought in charge against them. It is indolent and superficial inquirers, who are so enamoured with the pleasures, and profits of this world, that they care not what judgment they form upon religious subjects; it is the proud and self-confident, who are so vain of their own knowledge and penetration, that they refuse to accept the assistance of that wisdom which is from above; in fine, it is men of corrupt minds, whose judgment is blinded by evil prejudices and passions, to whom the guilt of error belongs; and upon whom, even the knowledge and belief of the truth, confers no praise."

In a discourse upon religious worship, the preacher observes:

"We live in an age, when the ordinances of religious worship have undeservedly lost much of that respect and veneration, in which our pious ancestors held them. By some, it is pretended, they are not expressly enjoined; and by others, that they do not need them. One man thinks it sufficient, if now and then, when a convenient opportunity offers, and no other engagement lies upon his hands, he pays a complimental visit to the house of God; and another thinks he has fully discharged his duty, by attending there once a day; the remaining hours, he supposes, may be very lawfully given up to his own disposal. But I would ask persons of this description, what have you, or your fathers found in God, that you should be thus sparing and reserved in the time and labour you devote to his worship? You are lavish enough of both, in all other pursuits and engagements; and why so niggardly here? Is God so liberal in his grant of mercies; and can you think it grateful or just, to be so scanty and contracted in your returns of duty and praise? or, will you review such a waste of sacred time with approbation, and pronounce it wise, when eternity, with all it's interesting scenes, is just opening to your view? Admitting, for a moment, that the public worship of God, is not expressly enjoined; (though I know not how that can well be supposed) yet, surely, a just sense of our immense obligation to him, will lead us to consider it as an indispensible duty. And since it is good for us, in every way that we can adopt, to draw near to God; we should lose no opportunity that offers for approaching him. The obligation of an express command, should not be thought necessary here: the duty recommends itself, by it's own reasonableness and importance."

From these quotations our readers will be able to form some judgment of the style and manner of the author. The seriousness and piety which prevail in these discourses, must have rendered them beneficial to those who heard them, and they cannot be read without producing some similar good effects.

ART. XXXII. *Practical Sermons on several important Subjects. By the Reverend* THEOPHILUS ST. JOHN, *LL.B.* pp. 394.

IN an advertisement prefixed to these sermons, we are informed "that they have already been printed in imitation of manuscript." We are also informed of the occasion of their having been thus printed. "A bookseller of great respectability represented to the author, that sermons, resembling manuscript, were offered for sale by different writers. He therefore requested his friend to print some in the same manner, in the persuasion that they would put a stop to what he termed, such disreputable traffic. That end being soon answered, the bookseller ceased to advertise and disperse them." Of his intentions in offering them to the public, the author thus speaks: he hopes "that they may not be altogether useless," and "he entreats the reader to consider them as sermons calculated for a popular auditory, such as a clergyman, ardently desirous of doing good, would write for the use of his congregation." With this character these discourses correspond. They are impressive, serious, pious, and liberal. They are twenty-six in number, and chiefly practical. As a whole, we were particularly pleased with the *twenty-second* sermon, on the *uncertainty of life*; and we shall not do our author wrong, by submitting to the

Digitized by Google

reader the following quotation from it, as a proper specimen of his manner.

"So slender is the thread by which the principle of life is sustained, that it is often cut by the most trifling accident How many, blessed with the most robust constitutions, catch disorders, which, though imperceptible in their origin, and disregarded in their progress, are fatal in their termination? How many come into the world with the seeds of disease implanted in the habit, which wither and consume the body that contains them? How many fall a sacrifice to their own rashness, to the obstinacy, nay sometimes to the indiscretion and levity of others? How many, employed in business, or amused with innocence, from which, as danger is not perceived, so it is not apprehended, are cut off by the visitation of God? In a word, the food we eat, the air we breathe, the raiment we wear, the ground we tread upon, all are instruments in the hands of Providence to execute his will, and hasten our dissolution.

"Now, if we are always 'encompassed with so many and great dangers;' if we are, every moment, liable to such inevitable and fatal attacks, will not prudence dictate, and wisdom recommend the method adopted by 'the meekest of the sons of men,' to beseech him 'in whose hand are the issues of life and death, so to teach us to number our days,' that whether we are arrested by 'the pestilence that walketh in darkness,' or wounded by 'the arrow that flieth in the noon day,' we may fall like men not ignorant of the danger, and not unprepared for the event?"

Of the preacher's seriousness and deep concern for the good of those who are entrusted to his care, the first discourse, *On the respective Duties of Minister and People*, furnishes ample testimony: the following passage is not the least impressive.

"Besides preaching the word of God faithfully, every minister of a parish is to visit his congregation, and administer consolation to those oppressed with sickness, or bowed down with infirmity. Agreeable to the seventy-sixth canon—'When any person is dangerously sick in any parish, the minister or curate, having knowledge thereof, shall resort unto him, or her, to instruct and comfort them in their distress.' Believe me, christians, to visit the sick is the most affecting, the most awful part of a clergyman's duty. Can you conceive the agony of our minds, when we visit any of our flock struck with sickness, and discover them totally ignorant of religion, and uncertain of their salvation? The first thought which occurs to us is, can the ignorance of this poor wretch be attributed to his want of religious instruction? Is it owing to my neglect, that he knows so little the state of his soul? And should his sickness end in death, when the bell, by its solemn toll, acquaints us, that his race is run, can we hear it, do you imagine, with unconcern? When we are assembled to perform the last sad office, and to deposit his ashes in the silent grave, we cannot help putting this awful question to ourselves: when I meet the soul which lately inhabited that breathless body, at the tribunal of God, shall I meet it with confidence, or dismay? If it be received to happiness, am I the blessed instrument of its happiness? If it be doomed to misery, can its misery, either through neglect or inattention, be laid to my charge? For this soul I know I am to answer; can I appeal to God that, if it has perished, it has perished through its own fault?"

In proof of his liberality, we shall give the following short extract from the same discourse.

"Some are of opinion, that the gospel is seldom delivered in its genuine purity in the church, and therefore, instead of attending its worship and service, go to other communions, where they receive, or fancy they receive, more edification. If by deserting the church they are made better men than by attending it; if they are better husbands, better fathers, better neighbours, better christians, for to become such I suppose to be their motive—'go, and the Lord be with you.' But give me leave to add, if the teachers you follow should be mistaken: if they should 'deliver for doctrines the traditions of men;' if they should teach you to trust on a broken reed; if they should mislead you in so important a point as salvation; how will you blame your obstinacy, your folly, your infatuation, for believing their doctrines, without having strictly examined their truth, and fairly weighed their tendency? 'Believe not every spirit, but try the spirits,' with impartiality, 'whether they be of God."

Concerning the speculative system which the preacher has adopted, and here supports, it comes not within our province to deliver freely our opinion. The worthy author shall speak for himself.

"So irretrievably were we lost by the transgression of our first parents, that there appeared to the eye of Omniscience no other way of restoring us to a state of favor and happiness, than by his uniting in the person of Jesus Christ, our human to his divine nature. To save man, God himself becomes man. Hence we see of what value we are in his estimation: though but 'sinful dust and ashes,' we are thought worthy of redemption by him who 'breathed into us the breath of life."

Digitized by Google

Again,

"When our first parents had eaten of the fruit of the forbidden tree, and renounced the protection of infinite goodness; when, by their disingenuous revolt from the lenient command of their Creator, they had brought sin into the world, and communicated its effects to all their posterity, death: when the whole world was in wickedness, and alienated from God by wicked works; then it was, when there appeared no way to escape, that the justice of heaven required satisfaction, and a sacrifice was demanded to free us from eternal death: Christ voluntarily became that sacrifice for all the fallen rebellious race of Adam, and, by offering up himself immaculate—'without spot or blemish'—reconciled a world of sinners to his offended Father."

We shall not be thought unreasonable if we acknowledge that we felt some difficulty in reconciling these different accounts of the person of Christ; whether this inconsistency be apparent or real; whether it be chargeable upon the preacher, or upon his system, we leave to the decision of others.

ART. XXXIII. *Essays and Sermons on select Subjects. To which is added, a Discourse on the Nature of the Christian Religion. By* JOHN BUDDO, *A. M. Preacher of the Gospel.* 8vo. pp. 51.

THIS little volume is introduced to the public, in the following strange and incoherent manner:

"All such as wish not to get rid of fair examination, find that religious belief is perfectly compatible with the clearest and most enlightened understanding. To take away a national church, by consecrating liberty, equality, reason, is as rank enthusiasm, as the notion which sets up persecution. Luther and Calvin were men, and consequently liable to the like imperfections as others. But it is evident, that they were friends to the most important interests of Christianity, and made it their endeavour to bring back mankind to that liberty wherewith Christ hath made them free."

After reading this, our expectations rose not very high; but we gladly confess that we were pleasantly disappointed. We found, as we advanced, many plain and serious remarks; sometimes, indeed, expressed in quaint and inelegant language, but frequently very forcible, and of useful tendency. The volume consists of two essays: 1st. on the being, the providence, and the attributes of God; and 2d, on a future existence and state of retribution: of three sermons, 1, on the love of God; 2, on the love of our neighbour; and 3, on the christian's hope and character: and of a discourse on the nature of the christian religion. This last is only republished, being the first impression tacked on to the preceding articles.

The author appears to be a man of piety, and they who object not to orthodoxy of opinion, may read this little volume with advantage.

ART. XXXIV. *Sermons chiefly designed to recommend the Practical Morality of the Gospel, and intended for the Use of Family Devotion. By a* LAYMAN. 8vo. pp. 317.

THIS volume, which consists of 28 sermons upon various moral and practical subjects, is the production of one who is evidently what he stiles himself, "a lay friend to social and religious order:" one who feels the influence, and enjoys the consolations of religion; and benevolently wishes to diffuse, as widely as possible, these invaluable treasures. The volume opens with a serious and well-written discourse *on family devotion*, which contains many convincing arguments to recommend the practice of that neglected duty. Its importance to the order and harmony of a family, and its beneficial effects upon every member of the domestic circle, are here ably stated, and cannot, we think, fail to make a due impression upon the mind of every serious and considerate person.

Laudable as is the zeal which has contributed to the appearance of this volume, we are truly grieved that we cannot unreservedly commend the execution. If it were composed of such passages as the following, it would be indeed a valuable work:

"My dear children, the same benevolent hand which restored this poor beggar to sight brought you into being, and sustains you at this moment;—the same parental eye that watched over you at the dangerous moment of your birth, now sees your tender hearts;—you have suffered the attacks of sickness incidental to your tender frames, and have been restored to health and to the enjoyment

Digitized by Google

of all around you—it was the same kind providence that guarded your trembling spirits, and bid you live again in the bosom of your anxious parents. The hand of him who made us is upon us, and directs our way;—to that God who gives and who takes away, who has prepared for you all the comforts you enjoy, and blesses your little minds with innocence and tender love; to him let me lead your gentle spirits; and while I press you to my bosom and implore his mercy for you, let me urge you to be ever mindful that he is the kind parent of your parents, that he is the most affectionate friend of your friends, and the supreme director of those who direct you: to this parent and universal benefactor open your beloved hearts—make his name and his goodness to you familiar to your minds, by the prayer which Jesus Christ his Son hath directed us to teach you:—as he is kind to you in giving you life and every blessing, so be you kindly affectionate to each other as good children of so good a Father;—as you cannot know the extent of his providence, so learn to receive with meekness and without discontent every accident that happens to you—and as you have been taught that his great power and mercy is over you and guides your innocent and unwary steps, so learn to put your trust in him, who has power to uphold you, to comfort you, and to place you in the bosom of endless happiness!

"As you grow older and the world opens upon you, you will stand in more need than at present of his sure direction; then when the dangers of pleasure or prosperity, or your engagements in the world, or the period when you shall be called upon to act for yourselves shall arrive, then look up to that God who now cherishes and supports you, and he will be your parent, your counsellor and your friend—he will guide you through thorny paths, and place you in smooth ways; he will save you in troubled waters, and bring you to a happier shore;—he will direct you how to choose the better part which others cast away, and to dwell in the habitations of pleasantness and peace, rather than in the tents of ungodliness and misery!—"

But such passages as these are rare. There is scarcely a sermon which is throughout adapted, as the title of the volume leads us to expect, to the character of a family circle: and such an unhappy failure of an ill-judged attempt at fine writing we scarcely ever witnessed. We read, p. 9, "that the Jewish monarchy was founded on *the ruins of a combination of theocracy, idolatry, and fear*;" p. 11, "that Jesus *emanated* the Holy Spirit on his followers:" in p. 66, of slaking the parching thirst of jealousy at another's welfare, and burning in the devouring flame of dark revenge! in p. 72, of bigotry and idolatry enveloping us with the crimson mantle of intolerance; and p. 170, of enjoyment being tarnished by agonizing fear, and of alarm spreading a dark contagion through every vital principle; *cum multis aliis!*

How such pompous nothings are sometimes strung together, the reader may see in the following passage, which affords a fine specimen of the *mixed metaphor*.

"The spirit of activity implanted in the soul—the desire to expand our wings, and to stretch beyond ourselves, combine to urge the mind to explore other regions, to converse with other men, to unite with other hearts, to visit the wider circles of the creation:—we first ponder upon the brink, but too soon steer upon the broad and fathomless wave:—we meet with various subjects that court our desire, and pleasure woos us to her bower before we have allowed ourselves time to examine her real features or her garb; too late we find them deceitful above measure—changing in every position as the varying hues of evening—neither solid nor permanent;—she cannot disguise that she courts sensation only—and thereby proves to our conviction, that memory and reason were given us in vain, if pleasure be the sovereign good!"

We could quote many similar passages, but in pity to our readers, our author, and ourselves, we forbear; lamenting that so excellent an intention should be defeated by a want of judgment and ability.

We cannot conclude without noticing two errors of a very gross and singular nature. In the 8th sermon, Herod who imprisoned Peter is considered as the same that murdered the infants of Bethlehem! and in sermon 9th, Pilate is spoken of as a JEW!

ART. XXXV. *Sermons, designed, chiefly, as a Preservative from Infidelity, and Religious Indifference. By* JOHN PRIOR ESTLIN. 8vo. pp. 367.

THE notice of these sermons was unfortunately omitted in our last Review; but so great is their value, that we are anxious to supply the defect by giving them a place in our present volume; and by recommending them to the attention of those who have not already availed themselves of the important instruction they convey. Few volumes of this nature, which have necessarily claimed

Digitized by Google

our regard, have, in our opinion, displayed a sounder understanding, or a more vigorous and independent mind. The preacher's heart appears to be alive to every kind and benevolent affection, and to be warmed with a zeal worthy of a christian minister, firmly to establish the foundations of the Christian faith, and to raise the beautiful superstructure of a holy and a virtuous life.

The volume consists of twenty-one sermons on the following subjects: On faith; on fortitude; on justice, mercy, and walking humbly with God; the character of Nathaniel; miracles; the neglect of advantages sinful; God no respecter of persons; David's advice to Solomon; the example of Christ in his youth; the improvement of the death of ministers, a funeral sermon for the author's colleague, the late reverend T. Wright; the intermediate and future state; the future happiness of the righteous; misery the lot of the wicked; the wicked excluded from heaven; all things for God and by him; on education in general, with remarks on female education; the danger of imitating fashionable vices; the salutations of Paul; and the love of our country explained and illustrated.

These subjects are all of acknowledged importance, and they are all treated in a masterly and impressive manner. We extract the following passages, not as being more excellent than others; but because the one is particularly deserving of attention in the present times, and the other contains some information which to many will be new.

In the discourse on fortitude, Mr. Estlin observes:

"The gothic practice of duelling (certainly deserving of this epithet, as it was introduced into the more civilized nations of Europe by these barbarians, and is a remnant of their barbarity, and a proof that we are not so far advanced in national refinement as many apprehend) is by some considered as a test of personal fortitude. Little needs be said to demonstrate that it is totally incompatible with that fortitude which is founded in the fear of God, and which consists in a freedom from every other fear. If we analyse the principles from which it proceeds, we shall find that in their composition the main ingredient is not courage of any kind, but fear, under some or other of its modifications. Fear, as was before observed, having for its object some evil, either real or apprehended, those things which we consider as evils are feared by us in the degree in which they appear to be evil, and those which are considered as the greatest evils are consequently most dreaded. From this opinion of evil, which directs the application of fear, a person's character is drawn, and his conduct determined. If, for instance, poverty be considered as the supreme evil, riches will be considered as the supreme good; if insignificance be thus regarded, fame and power will be the great objects of pursuit; and if the censure of men be thought most to be dreaded, their approbation will be esteemed as the most valuable of all acquisitions. Now in the case of receiving a challenge (for giving one does not come under this description, but is a crime of a still deeper die) I say in the case of receiving a challenge, which is sometimes vindicated, on the ground of its being a test of fortitude, it cannot be denied that a fear of incurring the censure of men, is the principle which gets the better, not only of a regard to justice, a respect for the laws of all civilized communities, and a fear of offending God, but what is in some minds (and I doubt not in the minds of those very persons who fall into the practice) a stronger principle than any of them, a love of life. To this modification of fear, and to this principle alone, a conduct is ultimately to be resolved, which is a satire upon civilization and refinement, which strikes directly at the root of all laws both human and divine, which annihilates every moral distinction, which makes death indiscriminately the punishment of all crimes, the lowest as well as the highest, which is as absurd as if the person who had been robbed and plundered were to be convicted equally with the person who had robbed and plundered him, and which in its immediate effects has frequently involved innocent families in the keenest distress, and sent those on whom they depended for support, with all their sins unrepented of, and with the guilt of intentional murder upon their heads, to their final account. To such astonishing lengths will persons sometimes go through a depravity of principle, and a perversion of understanding, occasioned by the influence of fashion. But what is most extraordinary, this shall, after all, be termed fortitude. Let us, my brethren, be no longer imposed upon by names. To give a challenge is to intend murder: to receive one, besides the other evil qualities included in it, is cowardice, it is that contemptible "fear of man which bringeth a snare," which is often greater than the fear of death, or even the fear of incurring the displeasure of Almighty God."

The sermon on miracles exhibits the following curious information:

"We come now to shew, that the accounts which are given of these surprising transactions, are such, as from the circumstances attending them must be true. But previously to our entering upon this part of

Digitized by Google

the subject, it may not be amiss to take notice of an objection which has been made, with great exultation, against miracles in general. It has been suggested to me by a friend,* that this objection might be found in a sermon of Dr. South's. I have since met with it in the fifth volume of his sermons, and for a reason which will hereafter be given, I shall lay it before you in his words. In a discourse on our Saviour's resurrection, he supposes Thomas to make this objection to the fact. 'Jesus of Nazareth was put to death upon the cross, and being dead, was laid and sealed up in his sepulchre, strictly watched by a guard of soldiers. But I am told, and required to believe, that, notwithstanding all this, he is risen, and is indeed alive. Now surely things suitable to the stated course of nature should be believed, before such as are quite beside it; and for a dead man to return to life, is preternatural; but that those who report this may be mistaken, is very natural and usual. Neither can bare report of itself be a sufficient reason of belief; because, things confessedly false have been as confidently reported; nor is any thing, though never so strange and odd, ever almost told of, but somebody or other is as positively vouched to have seen it. Besides that, the united testimony of all ages and places will not gain credence against one particular experiment of sense; and what then can the particular report of a few conclude against the general experience of so many people and nations who had never seen any thing like it?' He afterwards repeats the objection in these words,—'Things, according to the common stated course of nature, ought to be believed before such as are beside it; and that it is beside, as well as above the course of nature, for a dead man to return to life; but, on the contrary, that those who report such strange things may be deceived in what they report is very natural and usual. It is argued, that as the united testimony and report of all places and ages will not gain credence against so much as one particular experiment of sense; so much less can the particular report of a few persons conclude any thing against the universal experience of all men.'

"Mr. Hume says, 'I flatter myself that I have discovered an argument, which, if just, will, with the wise and learned, be an everlasting check to all kinds of superstitious delusion, and, consequently, will be useful as long as the world endures.' He then gives this very argument against miracles. 'The very same principle of experience,' he says, 'which gives us a certain degree of assurance in the testimony of witnesses, gives us, in the case of miracles, another degree of assurance against the fact which they endeavour to establish. A miracle,' he says, 'is a violation of the laws of nature; and, as a firm and unalterable experience has established these laws, the proof against a miracle, from the very nature of the fact, is as entire as any argument from experience can possibly be imagined.' This coincidence is a very curious circumstance. I have given you the very words of both writers, and would, by the way, make one observation before I proceed. Notwithstanding the pretences to originality in the writers against Christianity (in which I mean not to arraign their sincerity, but their knowledge of the subject) it is easy to demonstrate that not a single argument has been urged by modern writers, without excepting Paine, who doubtless thought that he had made the world much wiser than it was before, which has not been urged, with at least as much effect, by ancient writers; so that the question is not whether Mr. Hume and Mr. Paine, and such writers, have now overturned Christianity; but whether Julian, Porphyry, Celsus, and others, and even Christians themselves, by their own objections had done it before, or whether they are not completely answered."

Several of these discourses are addressed to young persons, from which we could with pleasure select many useful and impressive remarks.

ART. XXXVI. *The Advantages of diffused Knowledge, a Sermon preached at Scarborough, August 8th, and at Kingston upon Hull, December 5, 1802, for the Benefit of two Charity-Schools, instituted at those respective Places for the Education of the Children of the Poor.* By FRANCIS WRANGHAM, *M. A.* 4to. pp. 20.

WITH much pure and forcible eloquence Mr. Wrangham here successfully vindicates the attempt to diffuse knowledge, and especially religious knowledge, among the poor, against "the bigot and the infidel, who from different motives contend, that knowledge imparted to the inferior orders is always superfluous, often pernicious, and sometimes ruinous in its effects upon their innocence and peace." After shewing the importance of communicating instruction to those who constitute "the productive portion of our fellow-subjects, and the wide-spread basis of the British pyramid," the preacher urges the duty of strenuous exertions on the part of the more affluent orders. The

* Mr. Coleridge.

Digitized by Google

whole is concluded by an animated recommendation of those children for whose sake the sermon was delivered, as probably destined for the most part to a naval life, and so precluded from scenes generally more favourable to the future acquisition of religious knowledge. We could with pleasure select this passage, were we not forbidden by the limits within which we must contain ourselves.

ART. XXXVII. *A Sermon, preached at the Chapel in St. Saviour-Gate, York, on Sunday December* 26, 1802, *on Occasion of the much-lamented Death of Robert Cappe, M. D. with an Appendix, containing brief Memoirs of his Life. By* CHARLES WELLBELOVED. 8vo. pp. 54.

A Tribute of affection to the memory of an excellent and valuable friend. The eminence to which the lamented subject of this pathetic discourse and interesting memoir had attained, in an important profession, at so early a period of life, is highly honourable to his memory, and creditable to the discernment of his fellow-citizens. The removal of such a character from the scene of extensive usefulness, is an event which cannot be fully comprehended, and to which they who survive cannot possibly be reconciled, but by those Christian principles which the preacher has largely illustrated and zealously enforced.

ART. XXXVIII. *The Duties of loving the Brotherhood, fearing God, and honouring the King, illustrated and enforced in a Sermon, preached before Two Friendly Societies, by the Rev.* FRANCIS SKURRAY, *M. A. Curate of Horningsham, Wilts.* 8vo. pp. 32.

THIS discourse, boasting of nothing eloquent and energetic, derives its value from the liberal views, the loyal sentiments, and the truly pious zeal of the preacher. "It owes its publication," we are informed, "not to the suggestions of friendship, nor to any motives of literary vanity. It was sent by its author to the press, in order to imprint more indelibly on the minds of his parishioners than verbal recitation possibly could do, sentiments of unanimity and loyalty, at this critical and eventful period."——May these desires of the preacher be accomplished!

ART. XXXIX. *A Sermon on the Depravity of the human Heart, exemplified generally in the Conduct of the Jews, and particularly in that of Lieut. Col. Despard, previous to his Execution; preached at St. George's, Hanover-Square, Feb.* 27, 1803, *by the Rev.* W. LEIGH, *LL. B. Morning Preacher at the aforesaid Church, and Rector of Little Plumstead, Norfolk.* 8vo. pp. 22.

WE will not consume our own time or that of our readers, in inveighing against the too frequent practice of publishing single sermons, which have nothing either in the matter or the style, no principle enforced by masterly reasoning or illustrated by chaste and vigorous eloquence, to recommend and entitle them to public notice; although we might appear to be more than justified by the discourse now before us.—Delivered with all the grace of clerical action, the impression it made must have been very feeble; and now presented to the eye, it does no more than prove that the preacher felt what thousands felt at the same time, with at least equal vigour, but which few would not have expressed with far more energy and effect.

Digitized by Google

ART. XL. *A Review of Christian Doctrine, a Sermon preached at St. Thomas's, Southwark, Dec. 26, 1802, and at the Gravel-Pit, Hackney, January 2d, 1803, on resigning the Office of a Minister in those Societies. By* JOHN KENTISH. 8vo. pp. 29.

ART. XLI. *A Letter to the Rev. John Kentish, occasioned by some remarkable Passages in his Sermon, entitled a Review of Christian Doctrine, delivered at Hackney, on Sunday, January 2, 1803. By* WILLIAM STURCH. "*Semper ego auditor tantum?*" 8vo. pp. 33.

THE first of these articles is, as the title imports, a discourse delivered by the author to two societies of christians, upon relinquishing the charge he had held as one of their ministers. The preacher, we believe, is generally known, and by his more intimate friends highly respected, as a liberal and zealous unitarian. Addressing for the last time, in the character of their minister, the people with whom he had long officiated, he thought it not improper to review upon that occasion, the doctrine which they had heard from him in his public services. He, therefore, in a brief but very able manner, recapitulated the leading subjects of his discourses: God—Divine Worship—Revelation—Jesus Christ—the Scriptures—Christian Ordinances—and the Situation, Duties, and Expectations of Mankind. Concerning each of these he candidly states what has been the nature and burden of his instructions, and concludes his discourse with some practical reflections adapted to the particular situation of his hearers.

In the course of his address, the preacher observed, that Jesus was not only the subject of prophecy, but himself a prophet, having distinctly foretold the destruction of Jerusalem by the Roman armies: that the hope of a future resurrection must be built solely on the death and resurrection of Jesus Christ; that naturally man is mortal, but Christianity renders him immortal; that the Scriptures represent death as a state of profound sleep; and, that the neglect of social worship is disgraceful.

These assertions, Mr. Sturch, the supposed author of a Free-thinking Tract, entitled Apeleutheros, and occasionally, at least, a hearer at the Gravel-pit, considers as unfounded. With respect to some of them we are inclined to think with him; but others, and especially the first, rest upon a foundation which no efforts of Mr. Sturch can shake. But we leave the proof of this with the preacher; who, if he judges it worth while to republish arguments which never have been, which we are fully persuaded never can be refuted, will easily subvert all that Mr. Sturch has advanced to destroy the character of Jesus as a prophet, and to disprove the *publication* of the gospels previous to the destruction of Jerusalem.

ART. XLII. *The Nature and Duties of the Christian Ministry; and the Co-operation of a Christian Society with the Labours of its Ministers: two Sermons preached at the New Meeting, in Birmingham, January 23, 1803, on undertaking the Office of a religious Instructor in that Congregation. By* JOHN KENTISH. 8vo. pp. 40.

THESE two discourses may be read with advantage, both by Christian ministers and their hearers. They are plain, serious, and impressive, and contain many observations of great importance to persons of these respective characters.

We subjoin the following extract as worthy of the attention of those who occupy stations in society similar to that of the author:

"It has sometimes been asked, whether the Christian minister ought to lay before the audience whom he statedly addresses, the full result of his opinions respecting the doctrines of the gospel? With us, my brethren, I trust that there can be no such question. Among the numerous causes which have hindered the progress of divine truth, none, probably, has been more hurtful than the resolution formed by some instructors to conceal or disguise their religious sentiments from their respective congregations: so that during, perhaps, a long connexion, the society has remained totally ignorant of its teacher's faith upon subjects of the first importance; and the teacher has boasted of his keeping them in this ignorance.——For myself, whether I reflect upon the very end and nature of our office, upon the uniform practice of Christ and his apostles, upon the enormous corruptions under which it has been almost buried, or upon the circumstances and wants of man, I cannot doubt but that it is our duty to declare unto you the whole counsel of God;—to declare it with meekness, indeed, yet with honesty and firmness;

Digitized by Google

calling upon you, as wise men, to judge of what we say. I am no friend to the unseasonable intrusion of even useful and momentous truths: I am no advocate for dogmatism and presumption. But I am equally hostile to that temporizing spirit which, under the specious names of prudence, catholicism, and moderation, would leave the world in ignorance concerning the object of worship, the rank of Christ, the terms of salvation, and the final destiny of man. Detested be the attempt to seek or preserve a short-lived popularity, to gain the suffrages of ignorance or the applauses of prejudice; by the use of words which are thought to express, but which in reality do not express, nay which are known by us not to express our views of evangelic doctrine! These artifices are utterly inconsistent with christian simplicity and godly sincerity; and, verily, they who practise them have their reward—a base ignoble reward, far unlike the solid recompense which awaits the men who are the fearless patrons of dishonored truth. It is in vain to allege that all Christians agree in the belief of points essential to salvation, and that there are wise and virtuous men of every persuasion. This, I grant, is a forcible plea for candid behaviour towards those whose creed differs from our own; but it cannot be admitted as valid in defence of that indolence which refuses to inquire, of that timidity which fears to state the issue of its inquiry, or of that disingenuousness which handles deceitfully the word of God."

ART. XLIII. *The Duty of Britons, at the present awful Crisis of their Country, a Sermon preached August* 7, 1803. *By* JOHN OVERTON, *A. M. Rector of St. Margaret and St. Crux, York.* 8vo. pp. 32.

FROM 1 Chron. xix. 13. the preacher recommends to his countrymen, in the midst of the dangers by which they are threatened, "humble confidence, vigorous exertion, and pious resignation." In order that they "may cherish a humble confidence that all will yet be ultimately well with them, he exhorts them to reflect on the goodness of our cause, on the goodness of our God; on the degree of true religion yet remaining in the nation; and, on what God has already done for us, and by our means." Of the exertions which are requisite he says, "We must be valiant against sin, valiant in prayer; chearfully contribute our pecuniary and personal aid; and, in general, must each of us, according to our various talents and opportunities, do our utmost for the public advantage. The wicked must reform, the righteous must intercede, the rich must contribute, the wise must deliberate, and the strong must fight. Our purses, our persons, our hearts, heads and hands, all our faculties, and all our energies, must be exerted in the cause."

Although this discourse claims not the praise which is due to eloquence, it breathes a loyal, a patriotic, and a pious spirit, and is well adapted to serve the important purpose for which it was originally preached, and is now given to the public.

ART. XLIV. *The National Defence, a Sermon, preached in the Parish Churches of Wainfleet, All Saints, and Thorpe, in the County of Lincoln, on Sunday, August* 7, 1803. *By the Rev.* PETER BULMER, *A. B. Vicar of Thorpe, &c.* 8vo. pp. 16.

"THE object of this discourse," we are told, "was to impress the minds of the hearers, especially those of the lower class, with a just sense of the present critical state of the country; and by pointing out the wisdom and necessity of the measures which have been sanctioned by the legislature, for the general defence and security of the realm, to animate them to prompt and vigorous exertions in assisting to carry such measures into execution." This object is highly laudable, and the means adopted to secure it are deserving of much commendation. The text which the preacher has selected, is Nehemiah iv. 14. "Be not afraid of them; remember the Lord who is great and terrible, and fight for your brethren, your sons and your daughters, your wives and your houses." Animated by a truly British spirit, zealous for the honour of his country, and the interests of mankind, he describes in strong and glowing language, the atrocious character of our insolent foe; he points out the duties which are incumbent on his countrymen; he directs them whence to gain strength in their present difficulties, and animates them to meet and to repel the dangers with which they are menaced. We are not surprized that "its effect, at the time of its delivery, was such as to induce a wish that its usefulness might be farther extended by means of the press."

Digitized by Google

ART. XLV. *Britons exhorted to the Defence of their Country, in an Address on the threatened Invasion by France, delivered Aug.* 28, 1803, *at Trim-Street Chapel, Bath, by the Rev.* THOMAS BROADHURST. 8vo. pp. 24.

"IT is a good land," saith the preacher, from Deut. i. 25, "which the Lord our God doth give us." Warmed by the contemplation of its excellencies, indignant at the threats of an usurping enemy to rob us of our envied enjoyments, he endeavours to excite in the breasts of others similar feelings, and, we apprehend, not without success. We cannot forbear from making one short extract from this animated address:

"Blest with the enjoyment of personal liberty, and the security of property, and free from all oppression of rank and greatness, the inhabitants of Britain are deeply interested in the preservation of much actual and positive good. But even if our situation were less favourable to happiness than it is, even if our lives and our property were endered less secure by the misconduct of our governors, and by acts of extortion and of cruelty, we cannot suppose that our condition would be at all ameliorated by a change of masters, and especially of such masters as we should find those to be, who are anxiously endeavouring to make us their prey. No, my countrymen, our situation would be a thousand times worse. We should be scornfully trampled to the dust. We should be ground to pieces by oppression. Our implacable enemies would satiate their utmost vengeance upon us in every possible way that malignity and ingenuity could devise. We should become hewers of wood, and drawers of water. We should be chained to the oar, or consigned to the dungeon. Foreign troops would take up their abode with us in our dwellings; and we should be daily insulted by the sight of those who had deprived us of every thing but life, and who would be ready to deprive us of that upon the slightest suspicion or provocation. The produce of our industry we should not be at liberty to enjoy. We should, indeed, plough and sow our fields, but our proud conquerors would reap the harvest. The flower of our youth would be pressed into the service of their tyrannic masters, and be sent from their homes to engage in supporting a system of universal oppression, and in making fresh additions to lawless power. O fatal day! when such is the lot of Englishmen! That day will be a day of weeping and lamentation. That day will be wrapt in clouds and darkness. Whoever wishes for the arrival of that awful day, wishes for the advent of all that is calamitous and dreadful. He is the enemy of his country. He is the enemy of the human race. He is a base degenerate son of Britain, fit only to be a slave; fit only to associate with those, who have lost all dignity of sentiment and elevation of mind. He possesses neither the spirit of a man, nor the philanthropy of a Christian. There is not such a man among us. If there be, he was not born in this happy isle. He was never nurtured in a land of freedom. From his natal day he has breathed only the polluted air of slavery."

ART. XLVI. *Courage and Union in a Time of National Danger, a Sermon, preached Oct.* 9, 1803, *at the Unitarian Chapel, Essex-street, by the Rev.* JEREMIAH JOYCE. Second edition, 8vo.

FROM the example of Nehemiah, recorded Nehemiah vi. 11, Mr. Joyce recommends the most strenuous and fearless opposition to that ambitious power which threatens to invade us; and exhorts his countrymen to determine to risque their lives to defend their independence. This sermon is another of those animated patriotic addresses which the peculiar circumstances of the times have called forth; and will, no doubt, greatly contribute to "rouse his countrymen to the exercise of those rights which may be the means of securing to themselves and their descendants the same honourable rank in the world they have so long held."

FAST SERMONS.

ART. XLVII. *Britain's Defence. A Sermon preached Aug.* 21, 1803, *in the Protestant Dissenting Meeting House, Battersea. By* JOSEPH HUGHES, *A. M.* 8vo. pp. 43.

OF this sermon many passages are eloquent and beautiful; and many others claim a much higher praise, that of being animated by a spirit truly benevolent and evangelical. We are informed that the subject of this discourse was chosen with an immediate reference to a circular meeting for prayer and exhortation, re-

Digitized by Google

cently established in the author's neighbourhood. This subject is connected by the preacher with the present alarming situation of public affairs; and his object is to shew that a devotional spirit is of the greatest importance to the welfare of communities in general, and in particular to the welfare of our own country at this critical season.

After a delineation of the horrors of war, Mr. Hughes concludes, notwithstanding, that defensive war is, on the principles of christianity, justifiable; and that as such the present contest may be regarded, at least in reference to the project of invasion.

The excellence of the leading sentiments of this discourse is such, that we shall not dwell on some subordinate blemishes, which might, perhaps, be pointed out.

ART. XLVIII. *A Sermon preached on Wednesday, October* 19, 1803, *the Day of National Humiliation, to a Congregation of Protestant Dissenters in St. Saviourgate, York. By* CHARLES WELLBELOVED. 8vo. pp. 37.

MR. WELLBELOVED pleads the haste with which this discourse was composed, and the short and unfrequent intervals of stated engagement which were allowed for its revision, in extenuation of the imperfections which he supposes will be discovered in it; and which, he says, under any other circumstances than those which attend its publication, would have prevented it from meeting the public eye. We may, however, venture to state our opinion, that his discourse will maintain a respectable rank among the many publications to which, from motives similar to his own, the services of the day appointed for national humiliation have naturally given birth.

Mr. Wellbeloved has chosen the apposite history of the invasion of Judah by Sennacherib, as the passage of scripture with which his reflections are connected. After a relation of that event, extracted from the accounts afforded by the sacred historians, he remarks the similarity which it bears to the present situation of our own country, and the menaced enterprize of our enemies. We extract the following passage, which contains the political creed of the author respecting the nature and object of the important contest in which we are engaged.

"Although I confess myself to be one of those who think that it would have been more advisable to have abided by the very letter of our treaties, and not to have afforded the enemy either the slightest pretence for the renewal of hostilities, or the possibility of justifying their conduct to the powers of Europe; yet I cannot close my eyes against the evidence which has been produced, to prove that the present ambitious ruler of France, who exists only amidst the noise and tumult of war, was, during the short season of peace, before the cession of a rocky island was demanded and refused, unceasingly and extensively employed, in what may be justly considered, not merely as the preparations for a future contest, but as violations of the peaceful character which he was bound to maintain. His military missions to the East, under the specious pretext of extending the commerce of France; the powers with which his pretended commercial agents in our own country were invested; the encouragement he gave to the disaffected in our sister kingdom, and the assurance which they appear to have received of his support in their attempts to overthrow her government, are to my mind, most powerful and convincing proofs of a hostile spirit utterly inconsistent with his open professions of amity, and demonstrate that he was ready and determined to seize any pretence to renew the war which had been so lately terminated. The contest on the part of our foe, I am fully persuaded is not now carried on, nor was it at first undertaken to secure the possession of a barren rock in the midst of the Mediterranean sea, but to humble the only power that remained prompt to watch, determined and able to arrest the rapid strides of lawless ambition; and to reduce to the same abject state in which the once most free and generous people of Europe are now lying, a nation, which, by its example and its influence, presents a constant and a formidable obstacle to the progress of tyranny and oppression. The nature of the war then affords us some ground for hope; it is a defensive war. Even to those who cannot fully approve of its origin, it must now appear a contest of no ordinary nature, and affording no ordinary reason to hope for the Divine protection. So far as the menaces of our enemy are to be believed, our extirpation is the object which animates all his efforts: his rage is boundless as his ambition, insatiable as the grave. Upon the issue of the present war, depends not the possession of a few islands on a distant ocean, or of rich provinces, in a distant continent; but our existence, as that free people who have been long the admiration of the world. However trivial the pretext for entering upon the war may have been, the cause for which it is

Digitized by Google

carried on, is weighty and momentous, no less than the preservation of our liberties and our lives. We are fighting now for the shade of our own oaks, and the streams from our own springs. We are called now to defend our rightful monarch from degradation and insult; our princes, our nobles, and our senators from poverty and exile; our wives and daughters from the brutal violence of a lawless soldiery; our fathers and our sons from slavery and from death. When we think over the magnitude and extent of the misery with which we are threatened; instead of despondency, why feel we not confidence? To animated exertions it cannot fail to rouse every British arm; and that these exertions will prevail, it affords to every British heart no unstable ground of hope. The proud Assyrian led in vain his locust troops to pollute and to destroy the little hill of Zion: the Persian despot having marched in eastern pomp, at the head of the whole force of his extensive empire, to insult and to overthrow the venerable seat of ancient Liberty, returned a miserable fugitive, unpitied and alone, through those very provinces, which were lately not sufficient to supply the luxuries of his table. We ourselves, in later times, were discomfited, when we unjustly attempted to prevent the independence of our powerful and distant colonies, and to fill our treasury on the banks of the Thames, with the profits of the industrious settler on the shores of the Ohio: and even they who are now threatening to be the invaders, were not suffered to fall before the numerous and well-disciplined forces that were not long since on their march to dictate to them the government they should form, and the laws they should obey. Why then may we not humbly trust in the same benevolent Providence to baffle and to bring to nought those counsels and those attempts, which would deprive us of our dearest privileges; violate our most sacred rights; rob us of our most valued possessions; and reduce us to slavery, misery, and ruin?"

The sequel of this discourse is employed in an estimate of our national character, and the aspect which it bears on our present situation; in an animated description of the consequences which would result from the success of the hostile enterprize; and an earnest recommendation, as the importance of the cause demands, to the use of those efforts, in dependance on divine Providence, which may most speedily accomplish a favourable termination of the contest in which interests of such magnitude are involved.

ART. XLIX. *A Sermon preached at Peterborough, on Wednesday, October* 19, 1803, *the Day appointed for a General Fast. By the Rev.* SPENCER MADAN, *A. M. Prebendary of that Cathedral.* 8vo. pp. 22.

FROM a striking and appropriate passage of scripture, (Hab. iii. 2.) Mr. Madan directs the attention of his audience to some just and pertinent reflections on the state of public affairs. From the first clause of his text, "O Lord, I have heard thy speech and was afraid," he properly represents the present threatening aspect of events, as an awful intimation to mankind of the necessity of reformation, and the practice of public and private virtue. He does not encourage us to hope for victory and safety, because we may conceive our adversaries to be more wicked than ourselves; we have each of us crimes of sufficient magnitude to account for; and it is our wisdom to estimate, with most scrupulous examination, the sum of our own guilt. But while, in hearing the voice of God, we have reason to fear, we have also reason to hope that "in wrath he will remember mercy." From this part of his text, Mr. Madan takes occasion to review some of the most remarkable instances of national deliverance, which occur in the latter ages of our history; to advert to our human means of protection, and to encourage the hope that, if repentant, we shall, in the day of danger, experience the divine blessing and assistance.

The composition of Mr. Madan's sermon is, in general, careful and somewhat studied. In a few instances, his language partakes rather too much of a poetical structure. For instance: "The victories, the fierceness, the rapidity of the foe, *became conscious* of a sudden reverse." The following words (p. 23,) present a complete verse of ten syllables: "Or taint with pestilence the breath of heaven."

Digitized by Google

ART. I. *Unanimity and Energy in the present Crisis. A Discourse delivered in the Dissenting Chapel at Lympston, Devon, on Wednesday, Oct.* 19, 1803, *being the Day appointed for a General Fast. By the Rev.* THOMAS JERVIS. 8vo. pp. 61.

THE author of this eloquent discourse takes an ample range of political, moral, and religious reflection, adapted to our present situation. The text is taken from Isaiah ii. 4. After some illustration of the prophetic style of this passage and its context, the author proceeds to describe the awful nature of the contest in which we are engaged, after the transient period of tranquillity succeeding the fierce and bloody war, by which this nation was lately occupied. Her situation is now different from that of the late and almost every former contest in which Britain has been involved. We have now to sustain alone the attacks of a mighty foe, before whom Europe has fallen; danger is at our gates, and our independent national existence is the stake in question. At such a crisis every other sentiment and consideration must be suspended; the country is in danger; its citizens hear no voice but that which calls them to arm in its defence. In this part of his discourse, Mr. Jervis draws an animated, and, we believe, a just picture of that extraordinary man, as he is justly termed, who threatens to assail us. To undervalue the talents and formidable qualities of our adversary, is folly; to appreciate them justly, and prepare ourselves with the requisite vigour to counteract their effects, is true magnanimity and prudence. We should with pleasure extract the whole of this well-drawn character, did it not extend to a length exceeding the proper limits of this article: we must therefore confine ourselves to the following sketch of the consular period of his life.

"The instant he appeared in the capital of France, he placed himself at the head of one of the most populous, extensive, rich, and fertile nations in Europe. There he still governs with an absolute sway, and rules without control. All is obsequious to his nod. His will is absolute, his word is law. His colossal power is identified with the very existence of the great country over which he presides. Giddy on the lofty pinnacle of power, intoxicated with the unexampled splendor of his accumulated fortunes, and the grandeur of his elevation amongst the potentates of the world, he now gives an unbridled loose to the suggestions of a wild, visionary, and domineering ambition. Whether it is that unlimited and absolute power tends to develope the real characters of men; or, that unmerited prosperity instils a subtile poison into the human heart, and corrupts and contaminates the most exalted minds—be this as it may, the subsequent conduct of this hitherto wonderful man, places him before our eyes under a new and different aspect. He is now lofty and imperious, inflexible and severe, crafty, dark and suspicious, cruel, impetuous and revengeful. Nothing can withstand the irritation and fury of his passions. Yet, in the wildest paroxysm of passion, though alike regardless of the considerations of personal dignity and the forms of external decorum, never does he so far lose the possession of himself as to defeat the purposes of deep dissimulation, of a subtile and designing policy. In these representations, I would not wish to subject myself to the imputation of indulging in the language of harsh and indiscriminate censure, of unfounded calumny, or of a disingenuous intention to blacken that conduct which is in itself sufficiently atrocious. But, let us for a moment advert to that dereliction of principle, that accumulation of hypocrisy and crime in which his political character is enveloped; his oppression at home, and his exactions abroad; and I fear we shall be amply justified in stating that he has made humanity the pretext of his ambition, and religion a mere engine of political intrigue; and thus has betrayed the cause of liberty, that venerable cause which he professed to foster and cherish, to patronize and protect; but which in reality only served him as a ladder by which to climb to empire and fame! Let us call to mind only a few of those events which have marked his progress. And here, let me ask, is not this the man whose insatiable lust of conquest has ravaged Italy and Germany—has invaded the territories, and annoyed the peaceful inhabitants of Holland and Belgium, and grasped with a rapacious hand the fruits of their honest industry and labour? Is not this the man, who, with a remorseless insensibility, disturbed the tranquillity of the simple, unoffending, brave and generous Swiss, in the hallowed recesses of their mountains and vallies; and with a cruel and insidious pretence of redressing their supposed wrongs, laid them under the iron yoke of a despotism more burthensome and galling "than they, or their fathers," and their venerable ancestors "were able to bear?" Is not this the man, who has violated the laws of justice, and resisted the claims of humanity and freedom in the distant regions of the Atlantic—who attacked the natives of St. Domingo, defending themselves in the natural entrenchments and the impregnable fortresses of their woods and mountains; gallantly fighting for

Digitized by Google

their wives and children; and bravely opposing the attempts of the hostile invader to subjugate and enslave them: till, at length, foiled in his enterprize, after immolating thousands of unhappy victims upon the altar of a dishonourable ambition, he was reduced to the necessity of withdrawing the reliques of his army which were saved from the ravages of the climate, and the fury of the injured inhabitants?"

The remainder of this very animated discourse is devoted to a just estimate of the nature of our danger, and the degree of confidence which we are entitled to entertain, and the moral and religious reflections with which it becomes us to occupy our minds. The wisdom of a liberal policy, on the part of government, for conciliating and uniting all classes of the nation, is pertinently recommended and enforced.

We have sometimes thought that there exists a considerable similarity between the characters of Hannibal and the French consul. We do not however accept the omen of the comparison, that, like another Hannibal, he shall bring destruction to the entrance of our capital: we believe, that to cross the channel, commanded, as it is, by British fleets, is an enterprize more difficult than to surmount the Alps; but should our adversary break through this barrier also, we trust that he will still find, on British ground, some British Scipio, who shall terminate his career of triumph, and place a final obstacle before his way to that universal empire at which he seems to aim.

ART. LI. *Courage, Patriotism, and Resignation, the Duties of the present Times. The Substance of a Sermon preached at Churchgate Chapel, Stockport, Oct.* 19, 1803. *By* W. EVANS. 8vo. pp. 23.

THIS is a discourse marked by the same patriotic sentiments and principles, which we have already noticed in so many similar publications. From ii Sam. x. 12, the preacher exhorts us to defend our country with courage, to prize its worth, and to resign ourselves to the will of God.

ART. LII. *Reformation of Life, Trust in God, and vigorous Exertions recommended. A Sermon preached in the Chapel of Berwick, Oct.* 19, 1803. *Being the Day appointed by Proclamation for a Public Fast. By* SAMUEL BUTLER, *M. A.* 8vo. pp. 22.

MR. BUTLER is advantageously known to the public, as having distinguished himself at Cambridge by his acquisitions in classical literature; and in his present situation he has, we believe, rescued a considerable and once flourishing seminary of education, from a state of great decline to fresh activity and usefulness. The present discourse bears many marks of a cultivated and liberal mind. The text is from Deuteronomy xx. 1. The plan of the sermon is delineated in the title-page.

Mr. Butler mentions with just abhorrence and indignation, the infernal decree of the convention to allow no quarter to the English and Hanoverians, and animadverts with becoming spirit on the very unjustifiable intimations which have appeared in some of our own journals, for the adoption of a similar conduct against the force which may invade our country. Mr. Butler, in censuring the French rulers, ought in candour and justice to have mentioned, that the soldiers refused to obey the orders of their government: nor was the decree, we believe, ever in a single instance executed.

ART. LIII. *An Antidote to the Alarms of Invasion: a Discourse delivered at the Meeting House in the Old Jewry, on Wednesday, Oct.* 19, 1803, *being the Day appointed for a General Fast. By* ABRAHAM REES, *D. D. F. R. S. Editor of the New Cyclopædia.* 8vo. pp. 23.

"ACCUSTOMED to reason more than to declaim," Dr. Rees takes occasion, from Nehemiah iv. 14. to state some obvious arguments, that seem to justify the application of the words of the text to our own case. To shew that Britons ought not to be afraid of their enemies, but to fight with confidence, he exhorts us to consider: 1. The nature of the contest in which we are engaged. 2. The character and views of the enemy with whom we have to contend. 3. The important and invaluable objects which depend upon the present contest. 4. The advantages which are likely to result from the prosperous issue of it. 5. The

Digitized by Google

means of our defence; and 6. That in the cause of justice and self-defence, we may rely on the providence of Almighty God. If we meet not with any towering flights of eloquence, we have what the preacher considers as of higher value, good sense, sound argument, and the expression of firm and rational piety, pure patriotism, and unshaken loyalty.

ART. LIV. *Trust and Confidence in the universal and sovereign Government, and constant Providence of God: a Sermon preached in the Unitarian Chapel in Essex-street, London, on Wednesday, October* 19, *&c. By* JOHN DISNEY, *D. D. F. S. A.* pp. 22.

"DISAPPROVING of the discussion of merely political topics, in a place appropriated to religious instruction." and wisely judging that "our fortitude in promoting and securing our defence, or in bearing and suffering our defeat, must be built on a broader and more satisfactory foundation, than that of merely gratifying our indignation at the avowed jealousies, asperities, or resentments of an ambitious and sanguinary enemy," Dr. Disney "proposes simply to suggest to his hearers such observations and reflections, deduced from the superintending providence of God, as have been and continue to be the support of his own mind." The words of the text are selected from Rev. xix. 6. Though not destitute of animation, this discourse is chiefly distinguished by its piety, and the liberal and enlarged views it presents of the government of God.

ART. LV. *The Situation, the Prospects, and the Duties of Britons in the present Crisis of Alarm and Danger, represented in a Discourse delivered to the Unitarian Congregation at Hackney, October* 19, *&c. By* THOMAS BELSHAM.

THIS discourse is of a complexion somewhat different from the preceding. The preacher does not avoid politics, but he introduces them no further than as they were naturally suggested by the subject and occasion of his address.—The situation of the country, he considers as alarming, from the peculiar character of the present contest, to which there appears no prospect of a termination; but still he sees no reason for despondency. The power of the British navy, the bravery of our defenders at home, the unexampled unanimity of the nation, the conciliatory spirit of the present administration, the moral character of Britain, the recollection of the seasonable interposition of Divine Providence in past emergencies, unite to afford a good ground of hope, that the divine blessing will accompany our strenuous exertions. With respect to the duties incumbent upon us at the present crisis, the preacher observes, that we should be properly sensible of the danger of our country, free from unmanly dejection, duly apprized of the nature and importance of the contest, anxious to bury all private animosities in a patriotic regard to the public good, strenuous individually to exert ourselves to perform those duties which the exigencies of the state may require, and in the faithful and resolute discharge of these should commit ourselves and our cause to God.

The whole discourse is animated and energetic; and contains such expressions of loyalty, as some would perhaps be surprised to hear from a preacher of the sect to which Mr. Belsham belongs, after all the unmerited obloquy which has been thrown upon it.

ART. LVI. *A Sermon preached on the late Fast Day, at the Parish Church of Hatton, Warwickshire. By* SAMUEL PARR, *LL. D.* 4to. pp. 31.

ANY work to which the name of Parr is affixed, will justly excite attention; and all that the promise of the publication now before us can have raised, will, by its appearance, be amply gratified. Distinguished by soundness of argument, vigour of expression, loftiness of style, and a liberal and enlightened patriotism, this discourse will not only promote the purposes in aid of which it was composed and delivered, but contribute to preserve the well earned fame of its author, to a far distant period. Nearly one half of this sermon is occupied in vindicating the gospel from the charge which has been alleged against it, in consequence of the supposed want of all instruction relating to the duty of patriotism. The sum of the preacher's reasoning is thus given by himself:

"If from the national temper and political situation of the Jews and Romans, to whom our Lord more immediately addressed himself, any precept about the love of our country would, probably, have been misconceived by the rash, and abused by the crafty; if the duty itself, in all its essential points, is evidently implied in the injunctions of the gospel, about universal benevolence; if the affection itself is sanctioned by the example of our Saviour, surely we are furnished with a sufficient answer to the severe reproaches of infidels, and the wild misrepresentations of believers. The gospel, in reality, separates the artificial from the genuine virtue. It omits all mention of false patriotism, and by such omission, as well as by the general spirit of its laws, may be said to discountenance it. It includes whatsoever is sound and praiseworthy in true patriotism, under the more comprehensive and more noble duty of charity; and in the life of its blessed author, it exhibits some particular and practical illustrations of that patriotism, which every head may understand, and every heart must feel."

One passage in the course of this reasoning, is worthy of particular attention:

"There is another point of view in which I wish you to consider the subject; for the frequency with which some commands occur in the scriptures, for the earnestness with which they are enforced, and for the phraseology in which they are expressed, satisfactory reasons may be assigned from the known and peculiar circumstances of the world, when our Lord appeared in it. Upon contemplating those circumstances, you will, perhaps, find ample reason for admiring both the wisdom and the humanity of our blessed Saviour, when he abstained from any explicit and positive directions for the love of our country.

"The passion, I am aware, is noble in itself; it takes a strong hold upon some of our best affections; it delights the imagination; it warms the heart; it gathers strength from the instantaneous and instinctive sympathy of every spectator. But, upon all these accounts, it is liable to be abused very grossly and very perniciously, by hurrying us into eager co-operation with the ambitious, and into implicit confidence in the artful.—Hence has often arisen the misapplication of a term, which, in its original sense, was precise; and hence too has proceeded the perversion of a principle, which, in its native character, is most meritorious.

"Now, when our Lord was upon earth, the Roman empire was stretching itself far and wide, and the Roman armies were leagued in a fell conspiracy against the tranquillity and the liberties of the world. The Jews also, among whom he lived, were bigotted to their own religious tenets, to their own ceremonial observances, to their traditions, to their temple, to their false and proud notions of a Messiah, who was to erect for them a temporal kingdom. Under the influence of that bigotry, misguided by error, and infuriate from zeal, they would gladly 'have bound all other nations in chains,' and, in thus exalting their own country, to the disadvantage, and even with the subjugation of the whole human species, they would have looked upon themselves as instruments, naturally, or it may be, even preternaturally, appointed to accomplish the will, and to promote the glory of God among his favoured people. Amidst such propensities, then, of the Jews, such practices of the Romans, and such wicked passions as were common to both, a precept immediately and earnestly directing men to love their country, would have been soon misunderstood, and soon misapplied. Through the glosses of interpreters, and the blindness of hearers, patriotism would have quickly mounted up to the highest class in the catalogue of virtues. In speculation, it would have been so perverted, as to debase the authority, and to counteract the influence of every obligation to universal benevolence. In practice, it would have produced such ambition in governors, such impetuosity in leaders, and such phrenzy among their followers, as would have plunged them into undertakings wholly inconsistent with common prudence, common equity, and common humanity."

Having shewn what may be really collected from the scriptures of the New Testament, upon this much agitated subject, Dr. Parr proceeds to point out how the friend of religion will prove himself a patriot. He next explains the motives by which he was induced, during the late war, to abstain "from political discussion, and even political allusions, when he addressed his parishioners from the sanctuary;" and justifies his present deviation from what had formerly been his practice. He then calls the attention of his audience to the peculiar and alarming situation of public affairs; and endeavours, in a very eloquent and impressive manner, to excite their confidence, "to animate their zeal, and to direct their conduct, upon an occasion most important to them, in all their various relations, as masters of families, as servants, as parents, as children, as Englishmen, as christians."

From many other equally impassioned and forcible passages, we select the following, as a specimen of the preacher's eloquent efforts to rouse the valiant spirit of his countrymen:

"You, my hearers, are not without your portion in the blessings which I have just

now enumerated. In the present state of society, you go forth in the morning to your daily labours without fear, in the evening you return without inquietude to your homely meals, and through the stillness of the night, you repose in your beds without alarm. But if your enemies were long to prevail, would they not, like the Egyptian task-masters of old, command you to make brick, and to supply yourselves with straw? Would they listen to your complaints, when you 'were hungry and thirsty,' and your souls were fainting within you? Would they suffer you to rehearse, in carols of joy, all the mighty feats, and all the glorious triumphs of your forefathers, in defence of that liberty which is now your own? No; they would not permit your tongues to utter that word, so familiar to the ears, and so captivating to the hearts of Englishmen. They would put out every spark of the holy fire, which now glows in your bosoms. They would force you to endure the scorching sun, and the chilling frost, but without recompensing your toil. By compulsion you would till the land, and by violence they would reap your harvests, or they would plunder your barns. From the character of freemen and of Englishmen, they would degrade you into vassals, too impotent to be dreaded, and too contemptible to be pitied. Day after day, and year after year, they would condemn you to the most ignominious drudgery, as 'hewers of wood, and drawers of water;' and the agility of your youth, the vigour of your manhood, and even the last lingering remains of your strength, in tremulous and languid old age, would be exhausted at the will, and for the benefit of your imperious and obdurate conquerors. Many of the evils here mentioned already impend over other countries, which are unable to break their chains; and if the power of your enemy were equal to his fierceness, the same evils, attended by various circumstances of aggravation, would inevitably overtake yourselves and your posterity."

ART. LVII. *The Right and Duty of Defensive War: a Sermon preached before a Society of Unitarian Dissenters at Sheffield, on the 19th of October, &c.; to which is added an Appendix, containing some Observations on the French Preparations for Invasion, and on the Mode of National Defence, &c. By* B. NAYLOR. 8vo. pp. 52.

THE words of Jeremiah, ch. iv. 14. "be ye not afraid of them, &c." are so appropriate, that we are not surprised to open a third discourse upon the same text. The sermon now before us is an animated defence of a war undertaken "to repel the meditated attack of a ferocious enemy, whose success would connect with it the downfall of every thing in this country, which can make life desirable; and with whose defeat the liberties, not only of Great Britain, but of Europe are connected."

We are sorry that we cannot bestow equal praise upon the appendix, in which much objectionable matter occurs.

MISCELLANEOUS.

ART. LVIII. *Rural Philosophy; or Reflections on Knowledge, Virtue, and Happiness; chiefly in Reference to a Life of Retirement in the Country. By* ELY BATES, *Esq.* 8vo. pp. 356.

WE have perused this excellent work, the result of mature deliberation, with much pleasure and benefit; and we recommend it to the serious attention of those of our readers especially, whose inclination or whose fortunes lead them to a country life. It owes its existence to the Treatise on Solitude, written by Dr. Zimmerman, of which it was our author's "first design to take a summary view; but upon nearer inspection it appeared so little capable of a logical analysis, or reducible to any certain principles, that he rather chose to pursue the train of his own reflections." We have reason to congratulate the public upon this choice. "Zimmerman," as our author justly observes, "was a writer of singular endowments; he possessed great mental sensibility, and a cast of imagination, which might be thought sublime; but he does not seem to have been equally distinguished by force of reasoning, or solidity of judgment. In his philosophy he appears superficial, and in his notions of virtue wild and romantic; when most favourably estimated, he can rank only as a grave sentimentalist." All the valuable qualifications of Zimmerman have fallen to the share of Mr. Bates, unmixed and uninjured by his errors and defects; his imagination is vigorous, his judgment strong, the philosophy he has embraced is rational, and the notions he has formed of virtue are just and extensive.

We shall endeavour to convey some idea of the nature and importance of this work, by a brief analysis.

The subjects upon which it professes

to treat are, knowledge, virtue, and happiness, in connection with a life of retirement.

Knowledge, the author considers, as embracing *three* objects: the knowledge of God, of ourselves, and of the world. The first, he thinks, may be best obtained in retirement from the world, but not merely by the light of nature: the word of God must be studied with the aid of prayer. The next branch is the knowledge of ourselves; or, in other words, the knowledge of our moral situation. In order to acquire this, "we must know," our author remarks, "the law of our creation, or the duties required of us, and our defection from that law; then we must learn in what degree we should conform to this law, in order to secure our present peace, and final happiness, and in what manner it is most usual for men to deceive themselves upon this subject." In this pursuit, Mr. Bates deems it necessary that we should withdraw ourselves as much as possible from the contagion of error, but that in doing this a just medium should be observed; since when seclusion from society is carried beyond certain limits, it tends to conceal a man from himself, in respect both of his vices and his virtues, his incapacities and his abilities.

"Upon the whole it may appear, that retirement and society are suited to contribute in their turns to self-knowledge. The former, as being peculiarly favourable to the investigation of truth, will supply us with higher standards by which to try ourselves; while the latter is more likely (in some instances at least) to shew us our strength and weakness, and to detect those principles which lie deep and latent in the heart.—What proportion they should bear to each other for the attainment of the end here in view, must be left to every individual to determine for himself, after a due consideration of his particular constitution, his habits and his circumstances."

In a knowledge of the world, Mr. Bates comprises, *first*, the knowledge of its *exterior*, or of its visible manners, with the nature and forms of its business; secondly, the knowledge of its *interior*, or of its secret principles, views, and dispositions; and lastly, of its *value*, or of the rate we ought to set upon the various objects which it offers to our pursuit." As the manners of Englishmen are not fixed and unalterable as those of the Orientals, the recluse is not so well fitted to acquire a knowledge of them as the man of the world; but in what remains, Mr. Bates conceives he has just claims to superiority; since by attending to his own heart, and diligently perusing the page of history, he may gain as great an insight into the principles and views of the world, as by mixing in its busiest scenes. To know the *value* of the world, the retired man has abundant means; he cannot fail to learn that it is transitory, unsatisfying, and dangerous; and this branch of the knowledge of the world, though attained by few, is the most important of all.

Under this head many very valuable and impressive practical reflections occur. The following passage deserves the serious consideration of those, who, in order to gain, as they pretend, a knowledge of the world, ransack the shelves of a circulating library.

"But of all the mirrors fabricated by the press, and held up to the public, there are none more common, or more fallacious, than those fictitious histories which go under the name of novels and romances, where, for the most part, the modesty of nature is overstepped, where reason is degraded into sentiment, and where human language and human manners are almost lost in rant, affectation, and intrigue. When the world is viewed in such representations it is scarcely to be known again; instead of men and women soberly engaged in business or innocent society, we are presented with a race of beings who have withdrawn themselves into a region of their own, and whose days and nights are wasted in fantastic pursuits, sentimental babble, and mad extravagance. For any one to take his ideas from such exhibitions, would be no less an injustice to the world, than a disgrace to his own understanding.

"Among the many portentous evils that threaten both the present age and posterity, there are few which are more to be deplored than the general diffusion of these visionary writings; for what can be more deplorable than that young persons, instead of being taught to consider the present life as a state of serious trial, where much is to be endured and much to be forborne, should be flattered with the destructive imagination, that its great end is pleasure and amusement? What is more to be lamented, than that, by wrong principles early imbibed, the few days of man on earth should be embittered by perpetual disappointment, and at length terminated by a querulous and miserable old age, without any cheering prospect beyond the grave? This certainly is but ill to know the world even in point of present enjoyment, and to know it still less in its relation to the world to come."

The *second part* of this treatise consists

of reflections on virtue as influenced by a country life.

Human opinions and human passions, Mr. Bates observes, are contagious:

"Hence, if in the mass of human opinions there is less truth than error, and less purity than depravity in the mass of human passions; and if, further, these passions and opinions, by engaging men in an eager pursuit of the same objects, convert public life into a scene of vehement competition (and that all this is the fact, I suppose no attentive and impartial observer will deny); it follows, that the general impression of the world must be unfavourable to truth and virtue; and that retirement, so far as it tends to weaken this impression, is an object of importance to all, and especially to persons of a yielding and infirm character; those, I mean, who, from a facility of disposition or unfixedness of principle, are very liable to be ensnared by false compliances, or, from a weak and irritable habit, to be discouraged at the least difficulty, exasperated at every appearance of opposition, and wounded before they are stricken."

But to all retirement is not advisable: not to those whose imagination is more seductive than their senses; for this faculty can, in the depth of solitude, furnish out more captivating scenes of gaiety and splendour than any which human life actually exhibits: not to those who have a disposition to melancholy; for solitude is the nurse of this sad complaint: not to those to whom, for want of employment, retirement is dull and uninteresting. Aware that retirement must be regarded chiefly as a negative mean of virtue, Mr. B. proceeds to some observations on education. Religion, philosophy natural and moral, and history, are means which tend, by a more direct and positive influence, to the promotion of that desirable end.

Under each of these heads we meet with many judicious and valuable observations. In education Mr. B. is an admirer of Mr. Locke's system; and he has offered some remarks, especially upon the reading of the classical authors, which, though not new, are deserving of serious attention. In religion he is warmly attached to the doctrine of the established church. Of natural philosophy our author observes, that it is favourable to virtue, as it enlarges the mind; gives a taste for intellectual enjoyment; drives away the terrors of superstition; discovers the limitation of our powers, and thus produces humility; and supplies analogies which obviate objections to revelation. Moral philosophy discovers the equity of the divine dispensations, teaches moral obligations and humility, and instructs concerning the true character of the world. History is Philosophy teaching by examples.

Warmly as Mr. B. admires retirement, he is not insensible of the evils to which it is exposed. Amongst these he ranks idleness; humour, or an indulgence of caprice; conceit; incivility; churlishness, and misanthropy. For each of these he suggests the proper remedies.

In the *third* part of his work Mr. B. treats upon *happiness*; which is considered as arising, in a life of retirement, from independence, agricultural pursuits, diversions and scenery. These streams of rural felicity do not always run pure; and our author candidly and judiciously shews the interruptions and the impurities to which they are most commonly liable.

Upon the subject of rural diversions Mr. B. offers the following just remark.

"As it might justly be thought impertinent for one who is no sportsman to undertake to estimate the pleasures of fowling and hunting, I shall dismiss this topic very briefly. It is certain that, in point of present gratification, every pleasure is such as it is felt to be; and therefore, if any one finds himself delighted in wandering through the woods with his fowling-piece, or in scouring the country along with dogs and horses, and desperate riders, to the terror of an innocent quadruped, it would be in vain to dispute against his experience. To what persons, or in what cases, such diversions are allowable, I leave others to determine; and shall content myself to observe, what I suppose none will deny, that, when they are made a principal object, their manifest tendency is to induce an incapacity for nobler enjoyments, and so to lay the foundation of a despicable old age; for it would seem difficult to imagine a character more entirely sunk, and devoid of all respectability, than that of an old worn out sportsman, the vigour of whose days has been wasted in mere animal exertions, and whose memory is stored with nothing better than the history of hares and foxes, of rustic adventures and perilous escapes, and who dreams away the evening of life, like the hound sleeping upon his hearth, in retracing the vain images of his wild and sportive excursions."

The pleasures of a literary retirement come next to be considered—as they arise from the study of history, philosophy and poetry. The section in which these topics are discussed contains much

useful matter, and concludes with the following remark, no less favourable to the heart than to the understanding of the author.

"A prudent change of studies is indeed no less grateful and salutary to the intellectual, than a change of air or exercise to the animal part of our nature. When the mind is exhausted with long application to scientific or abstruse subjects, she may often find relief in the lighter and more agreeable departments of learning, may expatiate in the interesting field of history, or wander in the flowery paths of poesy; or, if relaxed or scattered, for want of regular exertion, she may apply herself to mathematical, or even to metaphysical enquiries; just as, in regard to the body, it may be proper to climb the hill or to repose in the valley, according to the laxity or tension of the animal system.

"But, however judicious may be his plan for an interchange of studies, there will be frequent intervals when a wise man will quit his books and his speculations, in order to discharge the duties, and to share the innocent pleasures, of ordinary life; when, instead of passing from Locke or Newton to Homer or Virgil, to Thucydides or Livy, he will retire alike from philosophers, poets, and historians, to visit a neighbour, to enjoy the cheerful conversation of his own fireside, or, with an infantine spirit, to divert himself with his children. *Non semper arcum tendit Apollo.* Man was formed for social intercourse, as well as for solitary contemplation; and when these ends are pursued in a due manner, they contribute to their mutual advancement."

The pleasures of devotional retirement are next pointed out; from which Mr. B. passes to the *fourth* part of his treatise, which is intended to obviate a common objection against a life of retirement, namely, that it destroys or diminishes usefulness. He fairly contrasts the utility of a public and of a private life; and is thus naturally led to the subject of monasteries. Persuaded, as he is, that these institutions were detrimental to religion, he yet laments that they were so indiscriminately destroyed,

"Especially as they might have been converted to the advantage of the tender sex, who, for want of such retreats, are many of them turned adrift into the wide world, without a guide, and without asylum; and it is to be lamented, that, while the papists are industriously planting nunneries, and other societies of *religious*, in this country, some good protestants are not so far excited to imitate their example, as to form establishments for the education and protection of young women of serious dispositions, or who are otherwise unprovided, where they might enjoy at least a temporary refuge, be instructed in the principles of true religion, and in all such useful and domestic arts as might prepare and qualify those who were inclined to return into the world, for a pious and laudable discharge of the duties of common life. Thus might the comfort and welfare of many helpless individuals be promoted, to the great benefit of society at large; and the interests of popery, by improving upon its own methods, be considerably counteracted."

The volume concludes with some excellent remarks upon the choice of life. After this review of its important contents, our readers will be prepared to acknowledge that it merits the most earnest recommendation, to those particularly who are placed in the retirement, in favour of which it is composed.

ART. LIX. *A Supplement to a Picture of Christian Philosophy; or Instructions moral, theological, and philosophical, for the Culture and the Practice of Benevolence. By* ROBERT FELLOWES, *A. M.* 8vo. pp. 54.

IN this little treatise, the author traces the origin of the benevolent affections to a very early period of life; to that which is passed upon the lap and at the breast of the mother. "There is fixed," he observes, "in our hearts, when we come into the world, a latent spark of good-will to others; and this is commonly excited into its first activity, by the sensations of pleasure which we experience at our mother's breast." He considers benevolence as being of two kinds:—the passive feeling—and the active habit; on the due mixture of which genuine benevolence depends. If the former prevails—no benevolent exertions can be expected; "for we may cultivate sensibility so far as to be too feeble to perform the duties of active charity." One observation upon this subject is worthy of the regard of the modern novel reader.

"The reading of novels, particularly those of the more impassioned kind, acts, in some measure, on the affections, as strong liquors do on the stomach; and both, in the end, diminish the natural strength and sanity of the individual. And it happens in novel-reading as well as in dram-drinking, that a degree of excitement higher than the last is perpetually lusted after; till the nerves become languid and dying by excess of stimulus.—The grief of Niobe ended in her being

Digitized by Google

changed into a stone. Whether there be any thing like a moral allegory in the fable, I shall not say: but, though it may seem paradoxical, yet I believe it will be found true, that the heart of man is, practically never so hard, as when it has reached its extreme point of softness. Too much of artificial sensibility always, at last, terminates in making the affections as insensible, as the stones that pave our streets.—And the mind, that has been tainted, though, only in a slight degree, with that cant of sensibility which has been lately imported among us in such huge masses from the book-shops of Germany, and which some of our modern dramatists, with more success than wisdom, have introduced upon the stage, is soon brought to regard as vulgar and contemptible the duties and offices of humanity. They, whose heads have been turned dizzy by the fume of this intoxicating sensibility, are above the common offices of humanity. They can live and breathe only in the high empyrean of sensation;—and they cannot leave the ideal world of mighty enterprise and gigantic woe to sooth the ordinary and every-day miseries of their fellow-creatures. No;—they belong to too lofty a sphere to execute the low drudgery of vulgar beneficence.—'*Dear me!*' exclaims a fine lady, whose nerves are thrilling with the noxious effluvia of some inflammatory romance, 'how shocking it would be to soil my hands or to offend any of my exquisitely refined senses, in entering the peasant's dirty hovel to carry bread to his ragged family!—No; such paltry occupations were never designed for us;—we will keep mounted aloft in the regions of melting sensibility; and will leave such unbecoming toils to be performed by the dull and insensate part of mankind, who never shed one delicious tear over the enchanting pages of a Goëthe or Kotzebue."

The directions which are offered for the purpose of leading to the cultivation and practice of true benevolence are just and forcible; such as might be expected from the well-known goodness and abilities of the respectable writer.

ART. LX. *A familiar Conversation on religious Bigotry, Candour, and Liberality, humbly intended as a Persuasive to greater Moderation, Union, and Peace, amongst the Followers of Christ.* By DAVID EATON. 8vo. pp. 64.

IF any considerations can influence the mind of that man who has the temerity to persuade himself that he or his sect is exclusively possessed of religious truth, and the folly to believe that all who subscribe not to the same creed, must "without doubt perish everlastingly," they are such as are contained in the pages of this small tract. That *Zelotes* should finally yield to the *more forcible* arguments of *Candidus*, is no other than must necessarily happen, to suit the author's purpose; but we acknowledge that this does not happen till the contest has been long and fairly carried on. Zelotes urges every principle which the character he personates must be supposed to own, and Candidus very ably supports the more liberal and christian views which must distinguish the enemy of bigotry. Mr. E. is, however, unfortunate in his title. The length of the speeches gives the work more of the air of *Formal Harangues* than of *Familiar Conversations*.

ART. LXI. *Part the First, of an Address to the Public, from the Society for the Suppression of Vice, instituted in London, 1802. Setting forth, with a List of the Members, the Utility and Necessity of such an Institution, and its Claim to public Support.* 8vo. pp. 106.

THAT the members of this society act from the best motives, we cannot allow ourselves to doubt: but that the institution has all that claim to general patronage, which they here endeavour to prove, we are disposed to deny. Upon this subject we have much to offer, which will appear with more propriety when the Second Part of the Address shall have been laid before the public.

ART. LXII. *Directions for the Student of Divinity; in a Letter to a Young Gentleman intended for Holy Orders.* By the Rev. JAMES BANISTER, &c. 8vo. pp. 22.

THIS little work principally consists in the enumeration of a catalogue of books, which the author recommends to the study of a friend entering upon a course of theological reading. For this purpose he conducts his disciple

Digitized by Google

through the various departments of morals, history, logic, rhetoric, poetry, criticism, metaphysics, (so far as to preserve him from materialism, with which, in the opinion of the author, atheism appears to be necessarily connected) the study of the Old and New Testaments, with the Jewish and Christian revelations, the history of the reformation, and Christian ethics. The authors mentioned under each of these heads are, no doubt, important and valuable; they would form, however, but a scanty library for an enlightened student of modern times, and many writers of equal, and in some of these branches of superior importance, are omitted. Under the first six of these classes no modern works are introduced. As the author has not confined himself to the recommendation of studies strictly theological, we cannot perceive why natural philosophy and history are excluded from his catalogue, since on these sciences are founded our best demonstrations of the fundamental doctrines of religion, the being and providence of God.

We hope that the period will not soon arrive when classical literature shall be lightly prized; and Mr. Banister has discovered for it a claim upon our regard, which has not perhaps before occurred to many of its votaries. He believes, in short, that it constitutes one of the great bonds of order in society, and best preservatives against the miseries of anarchy. "By the neglect of classical learning in France," he says, "an opening was made for the frothy impiety of Voltaire, the daring atheism of Helvetius, and the hypocritical cant, perverse sophistry, and paradoxical scepticism of Rousseau."

"The principles of these writers," he continues, "gave rise to the late revolution in that country, and guided their leaders through those scenes of rapine, bloodshed, perfidy, and impiety, which we have all beheld with horror, and the effects of which will probably be felt for many generations."

This little tract, consisting of 22 pages, would in other times have formed a four-penny pamphlet; by the help of hot-pressed paper, and other articles of decoration, it is now made a handsome book, at the price of two shillings.

ART. LXIII. *A Sermon, preached at St. Andrew's Church, Plymouth, at the Visitation of R. Barnes, M. A. Archdeacon of Totness, May 27, 1803. By* J. BIDLAKE, *B. A.* 8vo. pp. 29.

THIS is a sensible, liberal, and well-composed discourse, on the importance of the ministerial office, and the duties and character incumbent on those by whom it is discharged. The text (from 2 Pet. i. 12.) appears to have been applied by Mr. Bidlake, not so much to the subject of his sermon, as to his own situation, with reference to the audience to which it was addressed. He first examines the moral situation of the Christian world, and attempts to investigate the causes to which the imperfect operation of Christian principles is to be traced, expressing at the same time a charitable, and, we believe, just opinion, that notwithstanding the acknowledged prevalence of vice, its whole amount may be less, and the sum of virtue greater in the character of mankind, than we are at first sight ready to suppose; and that the actual influence of Christianity, on the moral state of society, is real and important, if not all that we might expect or wish. He concludes, therefore, that neither the moralist nor the divine ought to be discouraged; but may be assured, that their labours are productive of much good. He then proceeds to some reflections on the mode of rendering the office of public preaching more efficacious than it is; for which purpose, as the foundation of rational piety, removed from the extremes of superstition and enthusiasm, he directs the Christian minister to impress his mind as much as possible, with enlarged conceptions of the nature and character of the Deity, as the foundation of all subsequent opinion, and a preservative from many dangerous errors. Into controversial topics he advises the preacher rarely to enter, and when employed, to treat them with temper and caution. Condemning a zeal that is without knowledge, he still recommends a necessary degree of earnestness, and the practice of every innocent art of composition and delivery, which may tend to render public discourses attractive; above all, to enforce doctrine by sustaining such a character in life as may give power to instruction, and win by a conciliating conduct. He then vindi-

Digitized by Google

cates the title of the clergy to the rank which they hold in society, and to the emoluments of their office, as justified by their education, and required by the situation which they are obliged to maintain in life. He concludes by briefly urging on his clerical audience, the sacred obligations which they are under to devote themselves zealously and disinterestedly to the service of their master, and to "remember that nothing is to them ornamental, nothing good or great, which does not immediately or ultimately conduce to the glory of God, and the salvation of mankind."

ECCLESIASTICAL HISTORY AND CHURCH DISCIPLINE.

ART. LXIV. *Transactions of the Missionary Society.* Vol. I. 8vo. pp. 516.

THE history of this society is truly characteristic of the Evangelicals: it displays their honourable zeal, and their base superstition; their collective importance, and their individual imbecility; the prodigious means which they possess, and the more prodigious absurdity with which they exert them.

A warm address appeared in the Evangelical Magazine for September, 1794, exhorting the "Gospel Christians" to advance the glory of God by attempting the conversion of the heathen. Shortly after, Mr. Melville Horne published his Letters on Missions; however little attention this book excited elsewhere, it was reviewed and strongly recommended in the Evangelical Magazine. The tinder was ready, and the spark took. Accordingly, a number of "Gospel Ministers" in London, together with some of their country brethren, held every fortnight, during six months, a meeting for prayer and consultation on the most effectual means of commencing and carrying on the missionary work. This led them to insert an address in their magazine, and to send circular letters to ministers in the country. Their provincial brethren, in reply, professed a similar zeal, and offered liberal pecuniary aid. A general meeting was summoned in London. Immense multitudes of all denominations assembled; money was subscribed; missionaries offered themselves; and sermons were preached, which, by their own account, rivalled in success the spiritual trophies of St. Bernard.

The society determined to make their first efforts in the South Sea Islands. Twenty-four single and five married brethren were *shipped by the grace of God, and in good condition*, on board the good ship Duff. The captain and his crew were all *god-fearing* men, and many of our sailors remember the strange circumstance, that this vessel heaved anchor, and set sail from Portsmouth, the captain, the crew, and the cargo, all singing psalms. The details of this voyage have been published in a volume, which contains more information respecting the South-Sea islanders, than is to be found in all the volumes of all the navigators, French or English. Two of the missionaries returned to England in the same ship; twelve single and the five married brethren were left at Otaheite; one at the Marquesas, and nine at Tongataboo. This volume commences with the Otaheitean journals, beginning on the day of the Duff's departure.

"*August 4th*, 1797.—This morning the ship Duff was got under sail, and lay to without the reef. The boat went off with our dispatches for England, and we took, with tears of love, our last farewell of the captain, officers, and seamen; and stood gazing at that highly favoured ship, in which we had lived almost eight months, and sailed more than twenty thousand miles, over the boisterous deep, till it vanished from our sight; not forgetting to lift up our hearts to God, in fervent prayer, for her protection, and safe passage to our native shore. We also gave ourselves, in a more particular manner, to the Lord, to aid and uphold us in our important undertaking, praying that he may grant us such qualifications, as shall enable us to act with consistency before the poor benighted heathen; and that many may, through our instrumentality, be translated from the power of darkness, into the kingdom of his dear son Jesus Christ. We are now situated in one of the most delightful countries in the world: here the cares and anxieties, which possess the poor man's breast, with respect to the maintenance of his family, require not a thought; but still we have our troubles and anxieties, when we consider our critical situation, upon a small island, many thousands of miles distant from our native country, and surrounded by an uncivilized people. We have, it is true, received from them kind treatment, greatly surpassing what we expected; but from our knowledge of human nature, we have cause to apprehend, that much deceit and covet-

Digitized by Google

cunness may be mingled with their actions, as well as professions of kindness; and are therefore taught the necessity of some degree of caution in our transactions with them. Probably, we are in no danger at present, from an open attack, as they stand in dread of our fire-arms; but what craft or stratagem they may use to injure us we cannot tell; and, therefore, we keep a guard of two brethren, through the whole of the night, to prevent any sudden alarm."

The Theogony of the Otaheiteans might form as wild a poem as was ever made of the fables of Grecian faith. The general name for Deity, in all its ramifications, is Eatooa. They hold three to be supreme—Tane, the Father; Oromattow, the Son; and Taroa, the Bird or Spirit. So say the missionaries; the prism through which they have looked has probably coloured this, but we fully believe that they have represented it as they have seen it. The other greater Gods, among whom are Orohho, Oehawhow, Tamma, Toaheite and Vayeah, they call *fowhanow po*, the children of night. In the beginning Tane took Taroa, and begat Avye, the fresh water; Atye, the sea; Awa, the water-spout; Matai, the wind; Arye, the sky; and Po, the night. Next he begat Mahanna, the sun, who was born in the shape of a man, called Oeroa Tabooa, and then the Father ceased from the work of creation. Oeroa had by Townoo (whose origin does not appear) the thirteen months; then she returned to earth, and he embraced the Rock Poppoharra-Harréha, which conceived and brought forth a son, after which the rock returned to its original state, and the Father of the Months himself died and went to dust. The son Tetooboo-amata-hatoo embraced the sand of the sea, and begat a son and a daughter Tee and Opeera, then he also returned to earth. The brother and sister married, and had issue a daughter, Oheera-Reene-Moonoa.—Opeera afterwards fell sick, and requested her husband to heal her, promising in his illness to do the same for him, and thus they should both live for ever; but Tee let her die, and married his daughter: their children peopled the earth. The stars they believe to be the offspring of the sun and moon; and when the sun and moon are eclipsed, they suppose them in the act of generation.

Tee, with some reference to this common father, is become the name of the guardian Spirit or Household God.—Each family has its Tee, supposed to be one of their departed relatives, who for his superior excellencies, has been exalted to an Eatooa or Divinity. This resembles the Cami-worship, the old religion of Japan, and is a part perhaps of all superstitions, from Hero-worship to Saint-worship.

Αυταρ επει και τουτο γενος κατα γαια καλυψε.
Τοι μεν δαιμονες εισι. Διος μεγαλυ δια βουλας,
Εσθλοι, επιχθονιοι, φυλακες θνητων ανδρωπων·
Οι ρα φυλασσουσι τε δικας και σχετλια εργα
Ηερα εσσαμενοι, παντη φοιτωντες επ' αισα
Πλουτοδοται· Και τουτο γερας βασιληιον εσχεν.
HESIOD.

When in the grave this race of men was laid,
Soon was a world of holy dæmons made:
Aerial spirits, by great Jove design'd,
To be on earth the guardians of mankind;
Invisible to mortal eyes they go,
And mark our actions, good or bad, below.
The immortal spies with watchful care preside,
And thrice ten thousand round their charges glide;
They can reward, with glory or with gold,
A power they by divine permission hold.
COOKE'S WORKS AND DAYS.

This tutelar God, the Otaheiteans believe, can inflict sickness or remove it, and can preserve them from a malignant Deity, called Tee also, who has no power but upon earth, and is always employed in mischief. These spirits are very powerful. The remarkable peaked mountain in Taloo harbour, is said to be but a part of what it originally was. Some spirits, from Ulietea, had broken off the other half, and were transporting it down the bay to carry it away; but they were obliged to drop it near the mouth of the harbour, where it now stands conspicuous as a rock; for the break of day had overtaken them, and they walk and work by night.—These household deities are, as may be supposed, more prone to anger than to kindness; for it is the characteristic of superstition to fear the unseen powers, not to love them. Some of the natives told these missionaries that they were afraid to say much to them in censure of Temaree, for fear of the gods which he had in his house, who would come at night when they were asleep and kill them; and when it was attempted to show them that these fears were groundless, they appealed to two Swedes upon the island, if what they said was not true. Pomere, the father of the reigning king, dreamt in the night that his Tee

Digitized by Google

appeared to him, and told him he must sacrifice a man to him, or he should be angry. In obedience to this he arose, laid hands on the first man he caught suitable to his purpose, and murdered him without hesitation. They put great confidence in dreams, believing that in sleep the soul leaves the body under the care of a guardian angel, and moves at large through the region of spirits.

"And all things *are* that *seem*."

In conformity to this faith, they say, my soul was such a night in such a place, and saw such a person. A shooting star they imagine to be the Eatooa.—When a person dies, they say his soul is gone to the night; yet they have a belief, that when the soul departs from the body, it is swallowed by the Eatooa bird who frequents their Morais, and passes through him in order to be purified, and be united to the Deity. The bowels they suppose to be the seat of the soul.

Their idolatry is more refined than that of more civilized nations: they do not believe that there is any inherent power in the idol, nor that it represents the Deity; but that the Deity at certain times enters into it. When the last advices came away, a war was expected upon account of such an idol, which had been stolen by the people of one district from another. This was nothing more than an unhewn log of wood, about six feet long, wrapt up in sundry cloths, and decorated with red feathers. A more complicated object of superstition is the sacred canoe which the missionaries describe.

"It is decorated with various apparatus of idolatry; such as the image of a bird, nearly as large as a goose, rudely formed, and covered with feathers of different colours, into which the poor natives boldly assert their god Oóro delights to enter; a small canopy, fixed over a little stool, under this also they believe their god at times rests himself; the canopy is covered with feathers; a hollow cylinder, about ten feet long, and three feet round, covered with feathers, set upright on the stern of the canoe, which was very lofty —its use we know not;—and various other things. To themselves the sight was very grand and magnificent; to us it could only shew what sin has done, and is doing, and draw forth a desire that they might be saved from such fooleries."

Though the missionaries disbelieved the actual agency of their spirits at first, after they had remained some time on the island, they also, like the Swedish sailors, attributed to the devil what they were not philosophers enough to explain. We continue, say they, making some advances in the knowledge of the language, and acquaintance with many of their diabolical practices, whereby it is demonstrated they are very deep in the mysteries of Satan's kingdom.

"In the afternoon, hearing that a neighbour, who was oft at our houses, was very ill and dying; brothers Bicknell, Eyre and Henry, went to his dwelling, where they saw the poor man lying on the ground, and seemingly in so great pain as silently forced tears from his eyes. The brethren had not much opportunity of speaking to him, as a priest was present, and chaunting his prayers over him with as much musical harmony as the chaunting ceremony in a cathedral.—These poor heathens thank us but little, when they understand that our message is not to promise them a long temporal life, and an indulgence of sensual enjoyments. Like all other of the children of our first parents, their conceptions of, and desires for good, extend not beyond the present world. In the evening held a prayer-meeting. May it please God to pour out upon all the camp of Israel, a mighty spirit of prayer.

"*Dec. 4th.*—Warm weather, with a gentle north wind. We hear that the sick man, noticed yesterday, is so far recovered as to be able to walk about. We are informed that the condition the brethren saw him in, was owing to his being cursed by the priest who was chaunting over him for his recovery, and a rätéera in the neighbourhood. These two cursed him because he cursed a canoe which the rätéera is preparing for Pomére. There is such a mystery of iniquity in the execrations used by the natives, that the wisdom which is from beneath is very manifest by them. Though we cannot credit all that is reported concerning them, yet we think that the powers of darkness are busy agents with the execrators, and execrated, in a manner beyond their common influences, and that the bodies of the execrated, are in reality affected thereby."

The enchantment which they practise to discover a robber is beautifully imagined. A pit is made and filled with water: the priest holding a young plantain-tree in his right hand, utters his prayers over this pit till the spirit of the thief is reflected in the * water.

* One of our old metrical romances, contains a passage oddly resembling this superstition.

Horn seyd, in thine erber is a tree,
There under is a wall free,
Ygrowen all with yoe;

Digitized by Google

"The king's title is *Otoo-noo-ey-te-Atóoā*; the meaning of which we do not clearly understand, but as the word Atóoā is used to express the object of worship, it is doubtless as full of arrogancy and pride as is possible. His house is called *Yow-rye*, (clouds of heaven;) his double canoe, *Anóoānooā*, (the rainbow;) his manner of riding on the shoulders of an attendant, *Māhówtā*, (flying;) his torch, *Oowéerā*, (lightning); and a drum that is frequently beating for his amusement, *Pātéere*, (thunder.)"

The mythology of Tongataboo, is not so well understood: they believe in Tongaloer the god of the sky, and Fenonlonga the god of the rain. Besides these, they have many others of both sexes, over earth, sea, and sky, acting in their own spheres; and sometimes counteracting one another, as interest or inclination prompts them. They also acknowledge the existence of a great number of strange gods, calling them by the general name of Fyga; among whom they rank ours as the greatest: and when they think it will answer their purpose, they readily acknowledge him to be far wiser, and in every respect better than their own; having taught us to make so much better ships, tools, cloth, &c. than they have ever been able to do. They likewise imagine that every individual is under the power and controul of a spirit peculiar to himself, which they call Odooa, who interests himself in all their concerns; but is little regarded till angry, when they think he inflicts upon them all the deadly disorders to which they are subject, and then to appease him, the relations and other connections of the afflicted person, especially if he be a chief, beat their faces, *taboo* themselves from certain kinds of food, or cut off their little finger, as an atonement for the sufferer. These sacrifices of atonement, are extended even to life, as in Egypt; and, from the story of Alcestis, probably once in Greece. A shocking example occurred while the Duff was at Tongataboo. Moomooe being dangerously ill, sent for his son Colelallo, who lived at some distance, under pretext that he should cut off his little finger to appease the Odooa, that so his father might recover. But the old man not deeming this atonement sufficient, had resolved that he should be strangled. Colelallo, on his arrival, was cordially saluted by his elder brother, and then went in to see his father. He was immediately seized by the attendants. Comprehending at once their intention, he told them that if they would use gentler means, he would submit to his father's will; but they continuing their violence, he, by a desperate exertion, beat them off. More men were then called in, and, being assisted by his own sister, they accomplished his death.

The soul, they say, is immediately after death conveyed in a very large fast-sailing canoe to a distant country called Doobludha, which is a paradise of sensual pleasures. Higgolayo, the god of this happy region, is the greatest and most powerful of all the gods, the others being only his servants. The frequent earthquakes which are felt there they explain by supposing that the island rests upon the shoulders of a mighty deity called Mowee, who has supported it for such a length of time as exceeds their conceptions. This heavy burthen often exhausts his patience, and then he endeavours, but in vain, to shake it off. The fear, however, excites a dreadful outcry over the whole country, which lasts some times after the shock is over. They even endeavour to quell his discontent, and reduce him to good behaviour, by beating the ground with large sticks. This fiction is quite classical.

Fama est Enceladi semiustum fulmine corpus
Urgeri mole hac, ingentemque insuper Aetnam
Impositam, ruptis flammam expirare caminis,
Et fessum quoties movet latus, intremere omnem
Murmure Trinacriam.

Their temples appear to be regarded as sanctuaries. During the war, when the enemy were about to land at Akeefo,

Rimnild, for the love of me,
Every day that thou there be,
To see the water lithe;
And when thou seest my shadow there,
Then trowe thou me na mare,
Then am I bound to wive;
And while thou seest my shadow not,
Then changeth never my thought
For no woman alive.

Horn Childe and Maiden Rimnild. RITSON'S ROMANCES. Vol. III. 301.

Digitized by Google

"Brothers Shelley and Wilkinson lodged in the spirit's house, Beak and brother Buchanan in a large one near the Fiatoka, both of which were full of people, who were most clamorous during the whole of the night, in their addresses to their false gods; in the morning, the enemy was expected to land, and Maffee ordered Beak and brother Buchanan, to the spirit's house, where they found the other brethren, and a number of women and children, belonging to the chiefs; they continued here for some time, during which many offerings of kavva were brought to Ladoo, and Talleeitoobo, two of their deities, to whom the place seemed to be sacred; among others, Maffee came upon the same business, who seriously advised us to remain where we were, as Ladoo would certainly protect us from every harm: these things raised in our minds some scruples concerning the propriety of our conduct, in seeking shelter in such a place, which we were sure was a refuge of lies, we therefore determined to quit it at all events, and cast ourselves upon the care of our all-sufficient God, whom we knew could not fail us; we accordingly left it in the former part of the day, and returned to our abodes."

If the religion of these islanders had been all with which the missionaries were to contend, their victory would have been easy. Savages are never tenacious of their faith: they care little for the religion of their fathers, because their knowledge of their forefathers is bounded by the memory of man. The whole object of their ceremonies is to deprecate the anger of the gods; they know nothing of them but their power, and feel for them only fear. But when they become acquainted with a nation more advanced than themselves, whose arts are more efficient, whose weapons are more destructive than their own; as they perceive their own inferiority, so do they also acknowledge the strangers gods to be mightier than theirs; and the terror which they felt towards their idols is soon converted into contempt and indignation. Thus it was that the religions of Peru and Mexico disappeared, and that the work of conversion has ever been so easy among the Pagan Africans. Force is even less effectual than intellect in such a conquest: the Roman empire was destroyed by idolaters; but the conquerors submitted to the religion of a people, whom they knew to be wiser than themselves.

The people of Australasia and Polynesia are all in that state of ignorance, credulity, and acknowledged inferiority, which best predisposes them to receive a new religion. Let us now examine the proceedings of this Methodistic mission.

The day after the Duff had departed from Otaheite, Edea, the king's mother, and the chiefs, were overheard talking of the property which the missionaries possessed, and the propriety of taking it from them. They put themselves in a state of defence, ordered the natives to withdraw from their dwelling, and remonstrated with Edea, who denied the charge, and thus a good understanding was re-established. The journal proceeds with their prayers and preachments, and monthly prayer-meetings, and experience meetings, which are noted down as regularly as if they suspected that the recording angel might not give them credit for the full amount, and therefore kept a check account of their own.

"We have formed an hospital near our house, for the reception of any sick natives that will come, as many of them lie languishing under the venereal disease; a few have come, but the generality of the poor souls seem afraid, or are insensible of our goodwill towards them; some have even expected a present before they would take any thing, and every thing must be sweet, or they think it is not good; and they expect to be cured in three or four days. Oh! may the Lord make us honoured instruments of bringing their souls to Jesus Christ the great physician."

"*August 23d.* Early this morning, discovered an entrance made into the smith's shop, and a number of small, but valuable articles, stolen. The manner of this robbery was somewhat curious, and shews the artifice and cunning of the thief. It is supposed, the man was destitute of a knife, with which he might have cut the lashings of the sticks that composed the walls, as it were, of the shop; and, by so doing, have entered with ten-fold less trouble as well as time; but instead thereof, he digged out the sand, apparently with his hands (the common spade of the natives), and made a hole large enough to admit himself through, with the articles he had stolen, under the ends of the sticks, which were not less than two feet deep in the ground. This must have taken him some time to compleat, and he must have been under continual apprehensions of being detected by the watch, who was walking round the house, and must have passed him at the time. Once the watch's attention was attracted towards the place where the man was at his work; but he had so coiled himself up, in the hole he had digged, that the watch took him for a hog, and left him unmolested. Pitea, the deputy chief of the district, being applied to on the occasion,

Digitized by Google

he soon recovered the stolen property, and restored it to the society.

"*August 29th.* Another attempt was made upon the blacksmith's shop last night, but without success. The natives that surround us, are as void of gratitude as of principle; and seem, in general, to be watching opportunities to impose upon us. We endeavour to preserve ourselves from depredations, without doing any injury to the depredators, when we have it in our power; thereby manifesting, that we desire to do them good, and not hurt. But our lenity hath been misconstrued into cowardice, by some, and they take encouragement therefrom to animate each other in their evil practices."

During the first three months the brethren were so occupied in settling themselves, that they had little leisure to think of the work which they had undertaken. They did indeed occasionally attempt to converse with old Mannemanne the priest, whom they found very bigoted in his opinions concerning the gods of Otaheite; but from no other authority than, as he says, "My grandfather told my father, and my father told me!" When we can discourse intelligibly, say the brethren, we confute him in argument. At length they began to deliberate in what manner they were to proceed.

"*Nov. 9th.* Some of the brethren, on hearing of various instances of the great barbarity of the natives in murdering their children, having in a private meeting consulted on some means of preventing so horrid a practice, did this evening, at a general assembly of the society, propose the following question: 'Will it be proper for us, as missionaries to the heathen, to attempt the abolition of the horrid custom of murdering infants? and if so, what means should be adopted for the accomplishment of such an end?' The question appearing of great importance, and the evening being too far advanced for a discussion of it, it was moved, 'That a meeting be held the ensuing morning, at five o'clock, at which time we should be free from the interruption of the natives, as well as be under no necessity of concealing Otaheitean names, which might occur in the debate.' Agreed.

"*Nov. 10th.* At the appointed time the society met; and, after prayer, a president was chosen, who requested the brethren, who were the occasion of the present meeting, to lay before the society the subject for consideration. The question proposed last evening was repeated, ('Will it be proper, &c.') To the first part of the query, 'Will it be proper for us, &c.' it was answered by some, They could see no impropriety in it, provided it could be done without endangering ourselves, and the cause we are engaged in; but the latter part of the query, respecting the means for the accomplishment of such an end, probably the querists could answer best. The brethren who called the meeting proposed; 1st. That as the principal persons in the island held us in esteem, we should make use of our interest with them, and request their exertion, for the abolition of a custom which would depopulate their island; and if they should consent to the same, it would be well. 2d. If the chiefs would not agree to our proposals, we would use every means in our power for the suppression of such barbarities *in our own district*. These propositions met with much opposition from many of the brethren; and after many arguments on both sides, the meeting was adjourned till the following morning, at five o'clock.

"*Nov. 11th.* The brethren met at five o'clock. After prayer, chose a president, and the subject of last morning's meeting was resumed. Many arguments were brought, which shewed their attempt would fail without doubt, as it respected the first proposition; because the chiefs were the promoters of infant murder. And the second proposition was proved to be wholly inconsistent with the characters we sustained, it not being our duty to exercise the least civil authority over the natives, nor even to inflict any corporal punishment on persons who might be taken in the act of stealing from us. It was therefore concluded our duty in this matter to be simply this: To inform the chiefs, when they were assembled, the object of our mission, and point out to them the dreadful consequences of murdering their offspring; and, as a farther inducement, should any of the Arëoie society be prevailed on to save their children, and put them under our care, we would instruct them in our arts, which would make them far superior to their neighbours around them, and more useful members of society. These sentiments being generally acceded to, the meeting closed."

We shall reserve our comments upon the conduct of the missionaries till we have concluded the history of their transactions. Two questions equally curious were next agitated.

"*Nov. 17th.* After evening-prayer, brother Oakes informed the society, it had been much upon his mind, What would be the consequence of an hostile attack upon us from the natives: though he did not apprehend any thing of the kind at present, yet, as he knew there was a difference of sentiment in the society, respecting self-defence, he desired to know how the society would proceed, should such an attack be made? He likewise brought forward an enquiry, If any brother should find himself disposed to marry one of the native women, would it be thought by the society an improper act? It was moved, that a meeting be held to-mor-

Digitized by Google

row afternoon, to give these things a particular consideration.

"*Nov.* 18*th*. Assembled according to last evening's appointment. Opened the meeting with prayer. A president being chosen, brother Oakes was called upon to state his first enquiry; which he did as follows: 'I should be glad to know how the society intend to proceed, should an attack be made upon us by the natives?' This question brought on a long debate, in which the brethren being disagreed, it was judged prudent to adjourn the consideration of the subject till the following Monday. Closed with prayer.

"*Nov.* 20*th*. Brother Main's house being finished, he is gone to it to reside. In the afternoon the society assembled; and, the same order being observed as on Saturday, brother Oakes's enquiry was resumed; namely, What we intended to do in case of an attack? It was answered, our having the musquets on shore, was professedly with no other design than to intimidate the natives, and to intimidate only, without ever firing upon or injuring them; and if an attack was permitted to be made, Query, Would it not be our duty to give up ourselves, and all we possess, to the enemy? This query met with great objections; in consideration of the insults our sisters would probably meet with from such characters as the Otaheiteans are known to be. It was answered, by a brother, Were it not for the feelings he possessed for the women, and the children, he should not hesitate a single moment concerning his duty in the matter. It being therefore deemed necessary, that we should stand upon our defence, in the case of an hostile attack upon us by the natives, it was proposed, That our dwelling be barricaded all round, that if an attack should ever be made, opportunity may be given for a parley; but no one, on any account whatever, to go without the boundary, on pain of being charged with blood-guiltiness, if any native should be shot. This was agreed to, and the meeting closed.

"In the evening the society again met, and order being observed, brother Oakes's second enquiry was brought forward: viz. 'If any brother should find himself disposed to marry one of the native women, would it be thought by the society an improper act?' Reference was had to the word of God, by which it was proved to be an unlawful action for any brother to marry a native woman in her present state, an idolatress. It was replied, it ought to be considered, that if a native was not taken in her present condition, there was no alternative, but to remain single, and exposed to all the dreadful temptations with which we were surrounded. To this it was answered, God changes not his mode of government for the accommodation of his creatures, and whatever he calls us to we ought to look to him for strength to endure. It was then requested for the brethren to express their sentiments individually, and in order, upon the subject. This was agreed to, and beginning alphabetically, each brother acknowledged, That to marry an heathen woman was directly contrary to the word of God, and resolved, in the Lord's strength, to abide as they were."

In pursuance of their resolution, the brethren remonstrated with the chiefs upon their practice of infanticide. Peter the Swede, whom they had found upon the island, acted as interpreter, and the chiefs promised to abolish the custom with that perfect coolness which is peculiar to savages and statesmen, when they are uttering a deliberate falsehood. —Their determination respecting marriage led to more consequences. Brother Cock, who had not been present at the discussion, fell into temptation, laid his case before the society, and requested to know if brother Cover might marry him to a young native woman. He was immediately answered in the negative, and informed, that the church had already determined such conduct, in any of her members, to be a departure from the faith. Brother Cock submitted to the decision. At the same time, Peter the Swede asked the society, if the woman he lived with might be baptised and married to him. This also was refused.

In March 1798, the Nautilus, of Macao, touched at the island. During her stay, two of the men deserted, and the brethren, being apprehensive that the chiefs would obtain musquets and ammunition for giving them up, as they demanded, determined formally to claim the men, and if they were refused, to forbid the natives from entering upon their district. Four of the missionaries were sent upon this embassy. Before they could execute it, they were robbed and stript by the natives. This terrified the society: they consulted whether or not they should abandon the mission, and eleven, among whom were four of the married brethren, accordingly departed in the Nautilus. The seven who remained sent away their arms and ammunition, to prevent them from falling into the hands of the natives, and gave up their public store-room and blacksmith's shop, with all their contents, to Pomere.

They had offered their private property also to Pomere, and it would have spared them much uneasiness had he accepted it, as attempts were repeatedly made to rob them; their alarms, however, for personal safety had subsided.

Digitized by Google

The district wherein the four brethren had been stript and plundered, was punished, and a petty war broke out in consequence. A native, who had learnt the use of the forge, had taken possession of it for Pomere; and applied the iron which the missionaries had carried over, to making lance heads, more destructive than their own weapons. They themselves were called upon by Pomere to bear arms; but they had determined not to meddle with arms, either for offence or defence. The war was soon terminated, and the journal for a while becomes more interesting.

"Otoo has been of late asking brother Lewis to teach him the Hebrew language, and has been inquisitive to know if the king of England is acquainted with Hebrew. What can have excited such an out-of-the-way desire, in the Otaheitean chief, we cannot tell, unless the strange appearance of the Hebrew characters in some Hebrew book shewn him, caught his fancy; however, as it is probably only a spark of passion, it will soon die away again."

"Otoo and Tatóoa-noee still continue their regal privileges of riding across the shoulders of their attendants; and, however unseemly the custom is, and uncommon, to an European, yet it must be acknowledged they sit as easy, and what is termed graceful, as any expert horseman can on the back of a horse; and although Otoo and Tatóoa-noee are well grown persons, yet their bearers carry them, when travelling, generally a trotting pace. The young king continues friendly to us. Yavva continues to be prepared, as related by Captain Cook, &c. and drank to excess by chiefs and common people. The effects it produces are visible, in some, from the head to the soles of their feet. The eyes of the great yavva drinkers are much blood-shot, sometimes very sore; their skin covered with a great thick scurf, and the soles of their feet chopt or cracked; it also subjects some of them to strong fits. Notwithstanding the filthy manner of its preparing, its nauseous smell, and reputed disagreeable taste, it is as much admired by Otaheitean epicures, as the finest wines produced in Italy or France, are by the most refined sensualist in England."

"*July 2d.* We this morning received information, Edéa has been delivered of a child; and, that according to the inhuman custom of the country, it is destroyed. This is the second infant Edéa has murdered, since our residence on the island. The assigned reason for this abominable custom is, Edéa is of royal blood, the man she cohabits with is of menial birth, should the fruit of their unequal union be permitted to survive, the dignity of the royal family would be considered as polluted and dishonoured; to prevent which, the savage parent suffers her babe to be strangled as soon as it comes from her womb. The rest of the chiefs of the island, who are of the royal family, follow the example of their head; so that, if any of them (male or female) are connected with persons of inferior birth, all the offspring, issuing from such a connection, are massacred. As every person of inferior class is left to follow his, or her inclination, to save or destroy their children, the number of infants murdered is very great; it being no uncommon thing to destroy the first three a woman has; and if a woman has twins (which is often the case) it is very rare that both are permitted to live. Some of the Otaheiteans are acquainted with the satanic art of destroying the fetus in the womb, on the first discovery of a conception, but this is, in general, attended with bad consequences to those who practise it."

But now that the society was no longer disturbed by external danger, a great internal calamity befel them. Brother Lewis had long been suspected of backsliding: he had been seen kissing the heathen women, and sundry other unseemly actions had been observed; at length, he delivered the following letter to the society:

"Brethren and Sister,

"After a long and great conflict of mind, I now inform you it is my fixed determination to take to wife one of these natives, and abide faithfully towards her until death, thinking it the most eligible step in the present circumstances, all things considered. Dear brethren, although you may be otherwise minded, yet I pray you to remember this, that while in this tabernacle we see but in part, and know but in part; many things might be said on the present subject, but I forbear, submitting the whole to Him who disposeth all events to their final end, and may the Lord order our steps, both yours and mine, to his eternal glory, and our felicity. I hope you will return an answer to this by the bearer.

I remain,
Your's affectionately,
In the bonds of the gospel,
THOMAS LEWIS."

August 1st, 1798.
To the Rev. Mr. Jefferson.

"Brothers Eyre, Harris, and Jefferson, considering the above letter too important to give an hasty answer unto, declined sending any. In the evening brother Lewis's letter was read to the society, as also the 21st article of the articles of faith, &c. drawn up on board the Duff, entitled, 'Of marriage;' which article, and brother Lewis's determination,

Digitized by Google

we each of us deemed very opposite. That such an event would take place, we long have had reason to fear, from brother Lewis's conduct towards the females. About three weeks or a month ago, brother Lewis called brother Harris apart, and privately interrogated him on the propriety of his marrying a native of Otaheite: afterwards he interrogated brother Eyre in the same private manner. Twice or thrice he called brothers Harris and Eyre aside, and questioned them upon the point. At first they seemed favourable to his inclinations upon certain conditions—that he aimed at the glory of God in what he did; and if the person he had chosen had not known man by lying with him, &c. But at the second interview with each of them, (having reflected upon the matter) they objected to the lawfulness of the action, and used arguments to dissuade him therefrom. Brother Eyre having informed brother Jefferson of the substance of his private interviews with brother Lewis, brother Jefferson did, on Saturday, July 7, after evening prayer, desire the society to stop, and mentioning to them the cause of their detention, requested of brother Lewis to say, Whether he was determined to marry an heathen woman or not? He for some time evaded the question, considering (as he said) such a mode of procedure unjustifiable; but in the end he said, he had told brothers Harris and Eyre his mind upon the matter a day or two before; which was—he should drop all thoughts of it for the present. The conversation then turned upon the inconsistency and unlawfulness of the action, for proof of which was produced 1 Cor. vi. 16.: from thence arguing the impropriety of a christian man's marrying an heathen harlot. But brother Lewis would not allow that marriage was there meant, only fornication without wedlock. In reply it was said, however it would apply to whoredom without marriage, it would also apply to marriage with an harlot: and it was at the same time asserted, that from the manner in which the children of the natives are brought up, it is probable that there is not a female on the island, above the age of twelve years, that is not an harlot."

He, however, persisted in his resolution, and having broken the bond of fraternity, Mr. Thomas Lewis was excommunicated by the church of Christ residing on Point Venus, Otaheite.

Brother Cock, the first who had fallen into this temptation, was one of the party who left the island: he had gone to Botany Bay and there relapsed. "Poor John Cock," says one of the brethren with him, "is like the sow that was washed, but now turns to her wallowing in the mire." This was not the case with poor Lewis: he cohabited with the woman whom they would not permit him to marry, attended worship, and made every effort in his power to be re-admitted to communion with the brethren. This mode of life he continued for more than twelve months, and was then murdered, there is every reason to suppose, by his wife and her relations.

Shortly after this event, brother Harris took an opportunity of quitting the island. This loss was made up by the return of Henry and his family from Botany Bay; but a more afflicting loss befel them: brother Broomhall turned metaphysician, and found out that because the soul did exist, it must necessarily cease to exist!

As they could not confute *Mr.* Broomhall, (for of course he was immediately unbrothered) they excommunicated him. He remained a year longer upon the island, and then left it in the missionary ship, which brought out a reinforcement of eight single brethren. A married brother who escaped from Tongataboo, where three of the society were killed, and where the mission has been of necessity abandoned, has since joined the church of Point Venus, containing now fourteen members, three of whom are married.

Such was the state of the mission in July, 1801, when their journals end. The missionaries have applied to the directors for a reinforcement of at least twenty or thirty brethren, recommending that the major part of the number be married persons. It is not very probable that the directors will attend to this, nor indeed that they should be able to find adventurers. At the outset of the enterprize there were candidates in abundance for the employment. A second cargo was provided with as little difficulty, before any accounts of the proceedings of the first had been received. These were taken by the Bonaparte French privateer, and carried into Spanish America, and nothing remarkable resulted from the voyage, except that the son of an Englishman was christened Ebenezer Gershom. But when a third expedition was to be fitted out it was known that the islands were not flowing with milk and honey. Forty persons were wanted for the work, and only twelve could be found. The directors themselves appear, by their concluding reflections, to have little hope of the success, or rather of the continuance

Digitized by Google

of the mission. A civil war in Otaheite appears inevitable, and in that case the lives of the missionaries would be in danger. The directors seem to expect that they will be compelled to abandon the island, and in that apprehension express a wish, that as American ships are in the habit of visiting the Pacific, they may have prepared the way for their Transatlantic brethren.

The difficulty of attaining the language is stated by the missionaries themselves as one of their main obstacles. They had been two years on the island when they spoke of it thus:

"*April 9th.* Our growth in the knowledge of the language is still slow, and in many cases uncertain; which is in a great measure owing to our not being able to catch the sound of the words with that exactness that is necessary. The language abounds with vowels, even more than any navigator who has given specimens of it was aware of. Many words consist of nothing but vowels, and each has a sound; but the natives utter their words with such rapidity, that it is with the utmost difficulty we can discover the true manner of spelling them; and when this is accomplished with any tolerable degree of precision, there is as great a labour to arrive at the true sense and meaning of a word, or its various meanings; for one word is used to express very opposite things in different sentences. And, which adds to the difficulty, they abbreviate their words so much, that those which we are well acquainted with, and which, if fully pronounced, we should readily understand, are by the abbreviation so shortened, that we frequently mistake them for new words, and are thus puzzled and perplexed. However, we have good hopes, that when, by the blessing of God, we have mastered the language, and reduced it to the best order that our skill will accomplish, it will be easy for others to learn."

The main cause of failure has been overlooked,—the miserable folly, ignorance, and imbecility, of those who planned and directed the mission. They sent out their missionaries abundantly supplied with fire arms, cloaths, iron, and every implement of European convenience which they could possibly require. These things are more tempting in Otaheite than jewels or gold would be in London, and these treasures they exposed among a people who had the power to plunder as well as the inclination, expecting that they were to be deterred from plundering by being taught the eighth commandment! The missionaries themselves were poor miserable methodists, without either common talents or common courage; so utterly destitute of all plan and all forethought, that after they had been three months upon the island, we find them gravely deliberating whether it would be proper to attempt the abolition of infanticide, and whether they themselves might intermarry with the heathen women.—— During the course of four years, they have neither made, nor attempted to make, a single convert, not having in all that time sufficiently acquired the language; and they honestly confess, that they see no good arising from their residence there. The little good which as Christian ministers they could have done, their sectarian bigotry prevented them from doing. They refused to baptize the woman with whom Peter the Swede cohabited. They refused to marry him to her; and they afterwards refused to baptize his child, alleging, that the mother was a heathen! From these applications, it is evident that the Swede respected the forms of his religion, and conceived them to be of essential importance; it is evident that he had a rooted reverence for the customs of his forefathers, and that he was desirous to teach the child the same prayers and the same creed, which he himself had been taught in childhood. Their refusal could only have proceeded from the uncharitable and unchristian intolerance of their sect, and from that lamentable want of common sense which characterises all their proceedings. A catholic would have gone through fire and water to have sprinkled an infant in the name of Christ Jesus. Let us not be suspected of attributing any mysterious importance to a symbolical ceremony; what we assert is, that the way to reclaim idolaters is by changing their ceremonies: whatever they believe, so long as they are ignorant, they must believe superstitiously; while they are ignorant, therefore, too much stress cannot be laid upon the ritual of religion. To expect from them a rational faith, before they are civilized, is as absurd as to suppose they could read Shakspeare before they have been taught English. They must be made, like children, to believe what they are told, merely because they are told it; but this can only be effected by men of superior and commanding intellect. From this mission no good can possibly result. Let us leave the church at Point Venus to its

Digitized by Google

speedy dissolution, and pass on to considerations of higher utility.

The enviable state of the Otaheiteans was at one time the theme of general panegyric among our Anti-Christian Philosophists. Happy people, whose food was produced spontaneously, and who had no other object in existence than enjoyment!

The Otaheiteans, and probably all the inhabitants of Polynesia, are a degenerated race: to trace the history of their degradation is impossible, but the fact is certain. Their mythological fables are physical allegory, and imply a degree of observation and knowledge of which at present they are utterly incapable. The cause of their degradation is equally certain. It exists in the very circumstances for which they were envied by the sensual sophists of Europe—*their food was produced spontaneously, and they had no other object in existence than enjoyment*; therefore do these islanders present to us the aweful spectacle of a whole people abandoned to lust, the most intensely selfish, the most brutalizing of all the passions. It is supposed that two-thirds of the children who are born into the world there, are immediately murdered. The *fashionables*, (we may thank the impudence of modern folly for this word of distinction, which implies nothing that either is, has been, or can be, respectable); the fashionables of the island are associated together for the purpose of promiscuous intercourse, every female Areeoie being bound to procure abortion, or murder every child of whom she may be delivered. These are the customs of the Otaheiteans, of these islanders who have been held up as the exemplars of savage innocence and savage happiness! After these atrocities it would seem trifling to speak of the human sacrifices common in all the islands, and of the *live*-cannibalism of Tongataboo.

In this state of sensuality, the most abandoned and most atrocious, were they discovered by the Europeans. Let the missionaries relate the consequence.

"*Jan. 31st.* Among the natives around us are many objects of compassion, whose bodies are wasting with disease, and their souls hurrying into eternity in a state of the utmost insensibility. It is surprising what havock disease has made since we have been on the island. Matavai is almost depopulated, in comparison to what it once was, according to the accounts given by the natives; and not only this district, but the whole island. Stout men are cut down in a few months; women and children share the like fate. They say the disorder that makes such havock among them came from England; and we have told them repeatedly that it is owing to the wickedness of their women, in prostituting themselves to the sailors of the vessels that come here. They understand what we say, and assent to the truth of it, but their hearts are so set upon covetousness, that the appearance of a vessel effaces all remembrance of the evils they have suffered, and are suffering; and they burn with a desire to obtain something, if it is but a rag; this induces husbands to prostitute their wives, and parents their children."

Thus have these "merciless murderers of children been tormented with their own abominations." We have carried among them not the comforts of civilization, not the improvements of science, not the blessings of the gospel; but instead thereof we have communicated to them that tremendous disease which seems to have well nigh done its work in Europe, and is now dispensed more severely to scourge or destroy this "cursed seed," who perhaps, like the Canaanites, are no longer to be suffered to pollute the earth.

The skill and industry which they possessed when first discovered, has materially declined. "So important," says Vancouver, "are the various European implements, and other commodities, now become to the happiness and comfort of these Islanders, that I cannot avoid reflecting with Captain Cook on the very deplorable condition to which *these good people* on a certainty must be reduced, should their communication with Europeans be ever at an end. The knowledge they have now acquired of the superiority, and the supply with which they have been furnished of more useful implements, have rendered these and other European commodities, not only essentially necessary to their common comforts, but have made them regardless of their former tools and manufactures, which are now growing fast out of use, and I may add equally out of remembrance. Of this we had convincing proof in the few of their bone or stone tools or utensils that were seen among them: those offered for sale were of rude workmanship and of an inferior kind, solely intended for our market, to be purchased by way of curiosity. I am likewise well convinced that, by a

Digitized by Google

very small addition to their present stock of European cloth, the culture of their cloth-plant, which now seems much neglected, will be entirely disregarded, and they will rely upon the precarious supply which may be obtained from accidental visitors, for this and many other of the most important requisites of social life."

The only atonement which can be made to this wretched people, for the injury we have done them, and the disease we have communicated, is to communicate also our religion, our morals, and our knowledge; our religion foremost and first, not only as of first importance, but as the necessary and only possible means of imparting morality and science. This is to be done by colonization and by force. England is indeed neither peopled nor cultivated in any due proportion to its extent, but its population is already too great for its system of society. There exists not a single profession, trade, or calling, which is not overstocked with adventurers; colonization is the remedy for the miseries which befall the unsuccessful, and for the crimes which arise in consequence. In these islands there is no pestilential climate to encounter; and it would be insulting the reader to prove the right of conquest,—the right of conquering cannibals and child-murderers! the right of preventing human sacrifices by force!

Shame be to the despicable statesman, who regretted the colonization of America, because the United States renounced their allegiance to Great Britain! his understanding must have been as contracted as his heart. We could say much upon this very interesting and very important subject; but to enter into it fully, and treat it as it should be treated, would far exceed the limits of a review. It would be unjust to these poor simple missionaries, not to acknowledge the value of the information which they have communicated in this volume. The book before us, with all its oddities, contains more in matter, in kernel as well as shell, than many a modern quarto.—They are honest zealous men; and we have only to regret, that their zeal has not been accompanied with more knowledge, or directed with more wisdom.

* * * * *

The remainder of this volume relates to a mission in South Africa, which has been far more wisely conducted, and which promises well. In this the main agent has been Dr. Vanderkemp, a Dutchman of most extraordinary abilities and character. This person studied at Edinburgh, has served in the army with distinction, and has since practised medicine; he is versed, not merely in the usual modern and ancient languages, but also in oriental learning, and in the Gaelic. His own history of his infidelity and conversion is very curious: he was an infidel of Lord Herbert's temper, disbelieving whatever his reason rejected, yet praying to be cured of this disbelief; "waiting upon God, that he would take him by the hand, and lead him in the way everlasting."

You will have observed, says Vanderkemp, that when the Lord Jesus first revealed himself to me, he did not reason with me about truth or error, but attacked me like a warrior, and felled me to the ground by the force of his arm. On this extraordinary narrative we need offer no comment; it will be equally intelligible to the reasoner and to the miraculist. This particular affection in no degree changed or weakened his general powers of mind; it disposed him to become a missionary, and he entered upon the work with such qualifications, both of body and mind, as perhaps never were, and never will be found again in one so disposed. By his exertions, a missionary society was raised in Holland, to co-operate with that in London, and another at the Cape; to which place he was accompanied by one Dutch, and two English associates. The colonists behaved to these missionaries with unexampled liberality: they gave the two who went among the Boschemen eleven oxen, one hundred and eighty sheep, seven cows and a calf, with poultry and other stores, says the journal, too numerous to mention. Vanderkemp twice entered Caffraria, and has brought back a more ample vocabulary of their language, and a better account of the people than can be found in any former traveller. We cannot speak too highly of this indefatigable man. The English government, at the Cape, entertained a due sense of his merits, and of the usefulness of his object. Under their auspices, he has founded a Hottentot settlement near Algoa bay, upon a plan not unlike the Jesuit establishments at Paraguay. The Dutch government has since promised to protect and encourage the missionaries; and by what has been done, there seems little reason to doubt,

Digitized by Google

that much good will be produced by their exertions. We regret that our limits will not permit us to enter into a minuter account of the mission.

Before the war broke out, the society were exerting themselves to diffuse their principles in France and Italy. The scriptures were to be printed in French and Italian, with Watts's and the assemblies catechisms, in such numbers, that if the one-half should reach Italy, the Pope may make his next year's bonfires entirely of heretical paper.

We will not conclude this article without noticing a very remarkable circumstance relative to the propagation of christianity. It has been asserted, in the public papers, that in certain of our West India islands, the missionaries have been forbidden to attempt the conversion of the negroes. If such tenets as they inculcate can any where be useful, it must be in those accursed islands, where the sight of a plantation would soon reconcile the most scrupulous humanity to the doctrine of fire and torments for the wicked. Disbelief produces very different effects in Europe and in America. The esoteric atheism of a European metaphysician is only injurious to himself: but the disbelief or disregard of a God in the sugar islands, converts the planter into the image of the devil. The denunciation of eternal punishment may not awaken him, but it will at least console his victims; it will teach them hope as well as patience, and infuse one drop of comfort into their cup of bitterness. If the circumstance which we have stated be true, it is incumbent upon our bishops to inquire into it. We have one set of laws for the sugar islands, and another for England; one set of feelings, one set of morals for each: it would then be seen if, in our liberality, we are to allow them a different religion also. It would then be seen, whether those worthy, and noble, and royal legislators who, in their humanity, voted away the bodies of the negroes, would also, in their piety, vote away their souls.

LXIII. *A Chronological History of the People called Methodists, of the Connexion of the late Rev. John Wesley; from their Rise in the Year* 1729, *to their last Conference in* 1802. *By* WILLIAM MYLES. 12mo. pp. 348.

"MY reasons for publishing this history are, 1. It appears to me to be absolutely necessary, in order, that if a stranger should enquire what are the principles of the methodists, as to their doctrine, morality, polities, œconony? how are they governed? what is the nature of their religious government? how is the work supported? what are their designs? what methods do they take to accomplish their designs? what is their success? who are their preachers? what effect Mr. Wesley's death had upon the body at large, and the preachers in particular? he may have a satisfactory answer to all these enquiries from their most authentic records. 2. I wished to shew the methodists what great things the Lord hath done for them; how from very small beginnings they became a very numerous, useful, holy people, owing to the Lord's blessing on his gospel preached among them.

"The methodists I divide into three generations: The first, those that joined the society from the year 1739 to the year 1765; most of these are gone to their eternal reward; the few that remain are worthy of double honour, and I would wish to stir up their pure minds by way of remembrance, by calling them to consider former times and persons, in order that their gratitude to, and confidence in the Lord may be thereby increased. The second generation are those that joined the society from the year 1765 to 1790: from this body we at present derive most of our steady, active, useful members. To these I present this history, that they may know without much labour, the rules by which we all act. The third generation are those who have joined the society since Mr. Wesley's death, in the year 1791. A numerous and a promising race of christian men and women. I wished to shew these the origin and progress of methodism.—3. That they may all see at what time these regulations took place, and those rules were made, which, under God, have been instrumental in preserving so numerous a body united together. 4. To shew, that though our doctrines have been the same from the first, and, as we think, purely scriptural, the same which the *primitive christians* held for the *three first centuries*, and also agreeable to the *liturgy, articles and homilies of the established church*; yet with regard to our discipline and œconomy, we have been in a regular state of improvement from the first conference in 1744, to the last in August 1802."

This volume is no subject for criticism. 'Plain truth for plain people' is the author's motto, and we will make it our text. We will use the book as the future historian of England must use it, and extract therefrom a detail of the Rise and Progress of Methodism.

John Wesley was born in 1703: he graduated at Christ-church Oxford, was

Digitized by Google

ordained by the bishop of Oxford, and elected fellow of Lincoln college. While at the university, he became deeply serious; this disposition he communicated to his brother Charles: they received the sacrament weekly, and obtained two or three proselytes to this practice, and to the regular course of living which they observed. The title methodist was given to Charles Wesley, in ridicule of this regularity, by a fellow of Merton, alluding to the Roman school of physicians, so called from the regimen which they always enjoined. The removal of John to a curacy, suspended for a while the growth of the society; Charles however again renewed it, and John returning to Oxford in 1729, resumed the whole management; no very arduous task, for besides himself and his brother, it consisted of only two persons. Certain pupils of the Wesleys soon requested permission to attend at their meetings. In 1732, Clayton, a tutor at Brazen Nose, joined them with some of his pupils also, and by his advice they began to observe Wednesday and Friday as fasts, after the custom of the ancient church. In 1735, George Whitfield of Pembroke was added to the number; "at that time they were fourteen or fifteen in number, all collegians, of one heart and mind, and must be considered as the first methodists;" they formed rules for the regulation of their time, their studies, reading the scriptures, and self examination; they visited the sick and the prisoners, and received the Lord's supper every week.

In 1735, Wesley began the custom of extempore preaching in consequence of this accident; he went to All Hallows church in Lombard-street, to hear Dr. Keylin, and the doctor not coming, the church-wardens requested him to preach: he complied though he had no notes: this habit was for several years regarded as a very uncommon and wonderful thing. This year he embarked for Georgia in America, as a missionary, and there became acquainted with the Moravians. With the Indians he could do little; but so many of his own countrymen met weekly at his house in Savannah, that he considered this as the second rise of methodism. Here he and his companions, Ingham and Delamotte, agreed,

"1. To advise the more serious among them to form themselves into a sort of little society, and meet once or twice a week, in order to improve, instruct, and exhort one another. 2. To select out of these, a smaller number, for a more intimate union with each other, which might be forwarded by him and his friends, conversing singly with each, and altogether at his house. And this accordingly they determined to do every Sunday in the afternoon. Here we see the first rudiments of classes and bands, which have had no small influence in promoting the success of the methodists, beyond any other denomination of christians, not immediately favoured by the civil power.

"In the beginning of August 1737, he joined with the Germans in one of their love-feasts. This I believe was the first time he ever saw a love-feast. He speaks thus of it: 'It was begun and ended with thanksgiving and prayer, and celebrated in so decent and solemn a manner, as a christian of the apostolic age would have allowed to be worthy of Christ.' He afterwards introduced love-feasts into the œconomy of methodism. At first they were for the *bands* only, *i. e.* small companies of true believers. Afterwards the whole society were permitted to partake with them. They are conducted in the following manner:—The meeting begins with singing and prayer, after which the stewards distribute cake and water. A collection is then made for the poor; afterwards liberty is given to all present to relate their religious experience, which is generally made a blessing to all. The meeting continues nearly two hours, and is concluded with prayer."

He returned to England in 1738.—Till now Wesley had always used a form of prayer, but now visiting a condemned criminal at Oxford, he prayed with him extempore to such good effect, that the man rose up and said, now I am ready to die. On May-day, in this year, he and some Moravians formed themselves into a religious society, which met at Fetter-lane; this he called the third period of methodism.

"The rules which were agreed on were:—1. That they would meet together once a week, to confess their faults one to another, and to pray one for another that they might be healed. 2. That the persons so meeting should be divided into several bands, or little companies, none of them consisting of fewer than five, or more than ten persons. 3. That every one in order should speak as freely, plainly, and concisely as he could, the real state of his heart, with his several temptations and deliverances, since the last time of meeting. 4. That all the bands should have a conference at eight every Wednesday evening, begun and ended with singing and prayer. 5. That any who desired to be admitted into this society should be asked, What are your reasons for desiring this? will you be entirely open, using no kind of reserve? have you any objection to any of our orders? (which were then read.) 6.

That when any member was proposed, every one present should speak clearly and freely whatever objection he had to him. 7. That those against whom no reasonable objection appeared, should be, in order for their trial, formed into one or more distinct bands, and some person agreed on to assist them. 8. That after two months trial, if no objection then appeared, they should be admitted into the society. 9. That every fourth Saturday should be observed as a day of general intercession. 10. That on the Sunday seven-night following, should be a general love-feast, from seven till ten in the evening. 11. That no particular member should be allowed to act in any thing, contrary to any order of the society; and that if any persons after being thrice admonished, did not conform thereto, they should not be any longer esteemed as members."

Members were classed in bands according to their different degrees of attainment in divine life, men and women; the single and the married separately. This institution was adopted from the *Moravians*. The rules of the band societies were drawn up in 1738, with this title, "Orders of a Religious Society met together in Obedience to that Command of God, by St. James, c. 5. 16. Confess your faults one to another, and pray one for another that ye may be healed. The following are the rules:

"Questions to be proposed to those who desire to be admitted into the bands:

"1. Do you enjoy the knowledge of salvation by the remission of sins? and have you the peace of God in your conscience?—2. Have you the love of God shed abroad in your heart? 3. Have you the Spirit of God bearing witness with your spirit, that you are a child of God? 4. Has no sin, inward or outward, dominion over you? 5. Do you desire to be told of all your faults, and that plainly? 6. Do you desire that each of us should tell you whatever we think, or fear, or hear concerning you? 7. Do you desire, that in doing this, we should come as close as possible; that we should search your heart to the bottom? 8. Do you desire, that each of us should tell you from time to time, whatsoever is in his mind concerning you? 9. Is it your desire and design, to be on this and all other occasions, entirely open, so as to speak every thing that is in your heart, without exception, without disguise, and without reserve?

"Our design is,

"1. To meet once a week at the least. 2. To come punctually at the hour appointed, without some extraordinary reason.—3. To begin exactly at the hour, with singing or prayer. 4 To speak each of us in order, freely and plainly, the true state of our souls, with the faults we have committed in thought, word, or deed, and the temptations we have been exercised with since our last meeting. 5. To end each meeting with prayer, suited to the state of each present. 6. To desire some person among us to speak his own experience first; and then to ask the rest in order, as many, and as searching questions as may be, concerning their state, sins, and temptations. Such as—1. Have you been guilty of any known sin since our last meeting? 2. What temptations have you met with? 3. How were you delivered? 4. What have you thought, said, or done, of which you doubt whether it be a sin or not?"

This year he first received assistance from a lay preacher: the ensuing is an important epoch in methodism. On the second of April, Wesley being denied the use of the churches in Bristol, preached for the first time in the open air: the same means were resorted to in London in consequence of the same exclusion, and this may be considered as the beginning of his itinerancy. The first methodist meeting house was built this year at Bristol. Wesley had settled it on eleven feoffees, but Whitfield observed to him, that as these men had the power of appointing the preachers, they could even turn him out, if what he said or did should not be pleasing to them. He immediately called them all together, cancelled the writings, and took the whole management respecting the building into his own hands; "believing," as he said, "that the earth was the Lord's, and the fulness thereof, and in his name he set out nothing doubting." We see, says the author, that from the beginning he thought the only possible way for the work of God to continue as it had begun, was by his having the appointment of the preachers in all the chapels under his care.

In this same year 1739, the methodist school at Kingswood was begun, and a meeting-house opened in London, and now the mother society was formed. The rise is thus related by Mr. Wesley;

"In the latter end of the year 1739, eight or ten persons came to me in London, who appeared to be deeply convinced of sin, and earnestly groaning for redemption. They desired, as did two or three more the next day, that I would spend some time with them in prayer, and advise them how to flee from the wrath to come, which they saw continually hanging over their heads. That they might have more time for this great work, I appointed a day when they might all come together, which from thenceforward they did every week, viz. on Thursday in the

Digitized by Google

evening. To these, and as many more as desired to join with them, (for their number increased daily) I gave that advice which I judged most useful for them, and we always concluded the meeting with prayer, suited to their several necessities." This was the rise of the methodist society, first in London, then in other places. Such a society is no other than "a company of persons, having the form and seeking the power of godliness, united in order to pray together, to receive the word of exhortation, and to watch over one another in love, that they may help each other to work out their salvation." It appears from this account that he did not consider this as a division from the established church, but simply as a religious society.—It was not till May 1, 1743, that he and his brother Charles drew up rules for the united societies. This period must be considered as the *fourth* in methodism."

Schisms now began: the Moravians and methodists differed concerning the nature of faith, and how to attain it; the Moravians taught that there were no degrees of faith, and that the way to attain it was to be still. Wesley asserted that there were degrees, and that it was to be gained by constantly attending on all the ordinances of God. This was the first separation; the next was of more importance. Whitfield and Wesley differed concerning unconditional election, irresistible grace, and final perseverance. The second separation took place, and the methodists were divided into Calvinists and Arminians, the latter being now known by the name of Mr. Wesley's connection.

"In 1742, the societies having greatly increased, were divided into *classes*, each class consisting of twelve persons or more, who were committed to the care of one person stiled the leader. Mr. Wesley thus records the occasion of this:

"Feb. 15, 1742, he observes, "many were met together at Bristol to consult concerning a proper method of paying the public debt contracted by building, and it was agreed: 1. That every member of the society that was able should contribute one penny a week. 2. That the whole society should be divided into little companies or classes, about twelve in each class. 3. That one person in each should receive the contribution of the rest, and bring it in to the stewards weekly. Thus began, says he, that excellent institution, merely upon a temporal account, from which we reaped so many spiritual blessings, that we soon fixed the same rule in all our societies.

"April 9, 1742, the first watch-night was held in London. The service at these times begins at half past eight o'clock, and continues till midnight. The custom was begun at Kingswood by the colliers there, who, before their conversion, used to spend every Saturday night at the ale-house. After they were taught better, they spent that night in prayer. Mr. Wesley hearing of it, ordered it first to be once a month, at the full of the moon, then once a quarter, and recommended it to all his societies.

"His account of it is, "I was informed, that several persons in *Kingswood* frequently met together at the school, and (when they could spare the time) spent the greater part of the night in prayer, and praise, and thanksgiving. Some advised me to put an end to this: but upon weighing the thing thoroughly, and comparing it with the practice of the antient christians, I could see no cause to forbid it. Rather, I believed, it might be made of more general use. So I sent them word, "I designed to watch with them, on the Friday nearest the full of the moon, that we might have light thither and back again." I gave public notice of this the Sunday before, and withal, that I intended to preach, desiring they, and they only, would meet me there, who could do it without prejudice to their business or families. On Friday abundance of people came. I began preaching between eight and nine, and we continued till a little beyond the noon of night, singing, praying, and praising God."

"In this year commenced also in London the visitation of the classes, once a quarter, by the preachers, which gives them an opportunity of conversing four times every year with the people, concerning the state of their souls; as also of ascertaining who continue to be real members, by giving to each person a ticket, with a text of scripture on it, as a mark of their approbation. This is now universally practised, and the ticket is the same in every place. On the band tickets the letter B. is marked. The increase of the societies, together with the probable supposition that improper persons would endeavour to come among them, led to this prudential measure."

Visitors of the sick were now appointed. The visitor is to see every sick person within his district thrice a week, to enquire into the state of their souls, and advise them as occasion may require; to enquire into their disorders, and procure advice for them; to relieve them if they are in want; to do any thing for them which he or she can do; to bring in his account weekly to the steward. The rules given to the visitors were only these:—Be plain and open in dealing with souls; be mild, tender, patient; be cleanly in all you do for the sick; be not nice.

The first conference was held at London in 1744; Wesley invited the persons who attended, and presided among

Digitized by Google

them, nor could any conference be held unless he were present, or had appointed a deputy. The advantages of this yearly meeting are stated to be, that it brings the preachers into a closer union, quickens their zeal, and terminates their disputes; and, by changing them from one circuit to another, it proves a blessing to the people, giving them the benefit of the gifts and abilities of the preachers in general, while it gratifies an innocent curiosity. Of the minutes of this conference, this part is important.

"Q. Do we separate from the church? A. We conceive not: we hold communion therewith, for conscience sake, by constantly attending both the word preached, and the sacraments administered therein.

"Q. What then do they mean who say, 'you separate from the church?'—A. We cannot certainly tell; perhaps they have no determinate meaning, unless by the church they mean themselves; *i. e.* that part of the clergy who accuse us of preaching false doctrine. And it is sure we do herein separate from *them*, by maintaining that which they deny.

"Q. But do you not weaken the church? A. Do not they who ask this, by the church mean *themselves*?—A. We do not purposely weaken any man's hands, but accidentally we may thus far:—they who come to know the truth by us, will esteem such as deny it, less than they did before. But the church in the proper sense, the congregation of English *believers*, we do not weaken at all.

"Q. Do you not entail a schism on the church? *i. e.* is it not probable that your hearers after your death, will be scattered into all sects and parties? or, that they will form themselves into a distinct sect?—A. 1. We are persuaded that the body of our hearers will even after our death remain in the church, unless they be thrust out. 2. We believe, notwithstanding, either that they will be thrust out, or that they will leaven the whole church. 3. We do, and will do, all we can to prevent those consequences which are supposed likely to happen after our death. 4. But we cannot with a good conscience neglect the present opportunity of saving souls while we live, for fear of consequences which may possibly or probably happen after we are dead."

The select society, or band, was instituted in 1745; the persons admissible were "those who were earnestly athirst for the full image of God, those who continually walked with the Father, and with his Son Jesus Christ." Nothing spoken in this society was to be repeated out of it. "I could say freely to these when they were met together," says Wesley, "ye may all prophesy one by one, (taking that word in its lowest sense) that all may learn, and all may be comforted." The writer of this history expresses his regret, that so few of the people embrace this privilege, and that every preacher does not warmly espouse such profitable meetings.

In 1747, the rules for the stewards were drawn up. Their business is somewhat more than the name implies. Besides receiving and expending the funds of the society, and sending relief to the poor, they are to inform the minister if any of the rules of the society are not punctually observed, and to tell the assistants, in love, if they think any thing amiss either in their doctrine or life.

During all this period, and for many years afterwards, the preachers received no money except what individuals voluntarily bestowed upon them, and a little from the stewards for their travelling expences; in consequence, some popular preachers possessed abundance, while others were comparatively destitute. In 1752, it was determined that they should receive a yearly stipend of twelve pounds; in 1800 it was increased to sixteen. About this time two eminent preachers got independent congregations for themselves, and forsook the itinerant plan; but it was probable that they would not have ceased to travel, if there had been a provision for their families. This led to an allowance for preachers wives, at first of four shillings weekly.

The ceremony of renewing the covenant was the next device which Wesley invented or adopted. The words of a covenant to serve God, as given by Richard Allen, are recited in the meeting, and the people hold up their right hands in token of assent. This is now generally practised in all the larger societies, on the last night of the old, or the first Sunday of the new year. It is generally, says the writer, a very solemn sermon, and productive of blessed effects.

A great revival of religion, as it is called, took place among the methodists in 1760. Many persons, men as well as women, professed that they were cleansed from all unrighteousness, and made perfect in love, in a single moment, often while hearing the word, but more frequently while at prayer, or while others were praying for them. The latitude thus knavishly given to folly, fraud and frenzy, led to frequent extra-

Digitized by Google

vagancies, and sometimes occasioned petty schisms; but Wesley called this the glorious work of sanctification, his pentecost, the perfecting of the saints.

Though the permission of lay preachers was a chief characteristic of Wesley's institutions, he thought that no person should administer the ordinances of God without ordination; and as the English bishops had refused to ordain his preachers, he applied to a Greek, Erasmus, the bishop of Arcadia in Crete, who visited London in 1763, upon the principle, that whoever is episcopally ordained, is a minister of the church universal, and as such has a right to officiate in any part of the globe.

For this conduct he was publicly attacked by Mr. Toplady, who in his pamphlet asked him, did you, or did you not, *strongly press* this supposed Greek bishop to consecrate you a bishop at large? In the reply which was published by Wesley's consent, this query was thus answered:—"*No.* But suppose he had, where would have been the blame? Mr. Wesley was connected with a number of persons who have given every proof which the nature of the thing allows, that they have *an inward call* to preach the gospel; both he and they would be glad if they had *an outward call too*, but no bishop in England would give it them; what wonder then if he was to endeavour to procure it by any other innocent means?" The establishment of the independence of America afforded Wesley a fair opportunity for assuming episcopal power; from the time of the peace, the new civil government was universally acknowledged, but no ecclesiastical authority of any kind was either exercised or claimed by any person whatsoever.—During the war the methodist societies there had been deprived of the ordinances of God, baptism and the Lord's supper, the clergy of the church of England having been generally silenced, or having fled to England; they therefore applied to Wesley after the peace, and he, without scruple, then performed the ceremony of ordination, because if the English bishops had then been willing to do what they had before very properly refused, some confusion might have arisen from the authority of an English hierarchy over an American clergy. The Americans submitted willingly to Wesley's supremacy, but they changed the title of superintendant, by which his higher ministers were c into that of bishop. Some disple arose that Wesley should act thus copally; but the majority of his fo ers regarded his extraordinary call were satisfied. He soon proceede ordain for Scotland, and then for land.

To connect together the societie one general union, the assistants o perintendants, as they are now c were instituted. This office rese that of pastor, elder, or bishop i primitive church, except that the s intendants are itinerants. Their ness is,

"1. To see that the other preache have well, and want nothing. 2. T the classes quarterly in each place, regu the bands, and delivering new ticket To keep watch nights and love feast To take in, or put out of the bands, or s 5. To hold quarterly meetings, and ther ligently to enquire both into the sp and temporal state of each society. take care that every society be duly su with books, and that the money for th constantly returned. 7. To send from quarterly meeting a circumstantial ac to London of every remarkable conve and of every one who dies in the triu faith. 8. To take exact lists of the so every *Easter*, and bring them to the conference. 9. To meet the married the married women, the single men, a single women, in the large societies, o quarter. 10. To see that every society a private room, and a set of the *libra* the helper. 11. To write an account t Wesley of all the defects of the he which they themselves cannot cure. travel with Mr. Wesley, if required, o year, through the societies in his circu

No one was admitted to exhort i of the societies, without a note c commendation from the superintend —The office of the helper or pre was also now distinctly marked o He is,

"1. To expound every morning and ing. 2. To meet the united society bands, the select society, and the per every week. 3. To visit the classes quarter. 4. To hear and decide all ences. 5. To receive on trial, for the ety and bands, and to put the disc back on trial. 6. To see the steward leaders, and the school-masters fait discharge their several offices. 7. To the leaders of the bands and classes w and the stewards, and to overlook the counts."

Wesley's authority was at one endangered by the offer of a du

Digitized by Google

alliance. Certain of the clergy were willing to unite with him, provided the exclusive superintendance of the societies in their parish were left to them. Even Charles assented to this demand as reasonable; and declared, that if he were a parish minister, the preachers should not preach in his parish. The business was discussed in the conference of 1764, where twelve clergymen attended. Wesley insisted upon his supremacy, the preachers unanimously agreed with him, and as these clergymen would not unite with him except upon their own terms, the projected union was abandoned. He was right: federalism would have been too loose a tie; his object was to establish a methodist republic, one and indivisible, and to be chief consul of it himself as long as he lived.

Even his own people wished to curtail his power. Wesley ably defended it: he pointed out how it had gradually arisen. The first persons who desired to flee from the wrath to come, came to him to request that he would advise and pray with them; here began his authority to appoint where and when, and how they should meet. They subscribed money for the expences of the society; he asked who would take the trouble of receiving and disbursing it? One said, I will do it, and keep the accounts for you; here commenced his power of appointing and removing stewards, for it was he, and not the people, who made the choice. The first preacher came to him, and desired to help him as a son in the gospel, and to labour when and where he should think proper to appoint; in this instance also, power was freely given him. The conference began by his inviting the ministers to advise with, not to govern him. The providence of God, he said, had cast this power upon him, without any design or choice of his own; and as he had accepted it in obedience to that providence, so in the same obedience did he continue to exert it.

Wesley's care of the preachers, it is said, extended even to the smallest things; the founder of a protestant sect could not indeed *prescribe* a diet for his followers as was done by the monastic worthies, but he could advise for their bodies as well as souls; egg and wine, and all spirituous liquors, he declared, were deadly poison, especially after preaching; at that time lemonade was to be taken, candied orange peel, or a little soft warm ale. At one of the conferences he issued his advice, though with a premisal that advice is made for the few that will take it; touch no dram, tobacco, or snuff; eat very light, if any supper; breakfast on nettle or orange-peel tea; lie down before ten; rise before five; every day use as much exercise as you can bear; or, murder yourself by inches. Wesley imagined he had a gift for the medical art: George Fox had once the same fancy. It is the only point of similitude between two extraordinary men, in every other respect utterly unlike each other; between a worldly man, and one simple as a child; between a man of inordinate ambition, and one who was pure and lowly of heart; between a pharisaic instituter of forms and ceremonies, and an Israelite indeed, in whom there was no guile. A worse danger than the spread of methodism can scarcely be apprehended for England; a greater blessing for mankind cannot be desired or devised, than that the system of George Fox should become the practical system of the Christian world.

At all times Wesley had professed a sincere love for the church, and declared, that he would not separate from it; but the forms of respect were gradually thrown aside, as he felt himself stronger; already he had exercised episcopal power. At first he had allowed no service during the church hours; in 1786, it was permitted when the minister is a notoriously wicked man; when he preaches arian, or any equally pernicious doctrine; when there are no churches in the town, sufficient to contain half the people; and when there is no church at all within two or three miles. As the pernicious nature of the clergyman's doctrine was to be judged by the itinerant's single opinion, this was equivalent to a general permission. By way of salvo it was advised, that the preachers who officiated during church hours, should read the psalms and lessons, and part of the prayers, "because this will endear the church service to our brethren, who probably would be prejudiced against it, if they heard none but extemporary prayer!"

No alteration or event of importance in the society occurred from this time till 1791, when Wesley died at the age of 89. The number of preachers in Great Britain was at that time 291, and of

members 71,668. So far back as the year 1769, Wesley had issued directions how the connection should proceed, whenever that event should take place; "perhaps," he said, "you might take "some such steps as these: On notice "of my death, let all the preachers in "England and Ireland repair to London "within six weeks; let them seek God "by solemn fasting and prayer; let "them draw up articles of agreement, "to be signed by those who chuse to "act in concert; let those be dismissed, "who do not chuse it, in the most "friendly manner possible; let the re- "mainder chuse by votes, a committee "of three, five, or seven, each of whom "is to be moderator in his turn; let the "committee do what I do now."

It had been expected, that the death of Wesley would shake and dislocate the connection, but every thing went on as before. The conclave elected no new pope. Instead of having a perpetual president, the conference were now annually to elect one, and this was all the difference. The political fact is curious. The power of Wesley was actually monarchical or papal while he lived, and yet his death occasioned no more change or difficulty to the society, than would have been produced at Berne by the loss of the national bears. He had been regarded as the head of their body politic, but in fact was only the hat, crown, or tiara.

Under this republican hierarchy, the society has increased even more rapidly than at any former period. Some improvements and alterations have been made in the organization and discipline; the circuits have been formed into districts; each district containing from eight to three circuits, upon the average five.

"The districts have authority, 1. To try and *suspend* preachers who are found immoral, erroneous in doctrine, or deficient in abilities. 2. To decide concerning the building of chapels. 3. To examine the demands from the circuits respecting the support of the preachers, and of their families. 4. To elect a representative to attend and form a committee four days before the meeting of the conference, in order to prepare a draft of the stations for the ensuing year. Three things the district assemblies cannot do:— 1. They cannot *make* any rule. 2. They cannot *expel* a preacher. 3. They cannot *station* the preachers. An appeal to the conference is allowed in all cases."

They have separated somewhat more widely from the church. Wesley, having been regularly ordained, used in annual visits to administer the Lo supper. The societies petitioned they might still enjoy this privilege; the other hand, many who, like Wes were for keeping up appearances the church which they undermined, sisted that the privilege should not granted. The conference being divi in opinion, decided it by lot for year, and the lot was against the ac nistration; it has since been permi upon certain conditions, and is now ministered in above two hundred of societies. Gowns, cassocks, and ba which Wesley wore, have been prohib upon the plea of avoiding offence; title of reverend forbidden to be use them toward each other; and the tinction between ordained and u dained preachers dropt. These have the chief alterations since the found death. The state of the connectio 1800 was as follows: 940 chapels in united kingdoms; 417 preachers, 109,961 members; so that in ten y the addition to their force consist 38,393. It must be remembered, these are only the Arminian metho only one of the combined armies ag the church of England. Let the ch look to it! This is the History of Rise and Progress of Methodism. the church look to it, or the sequel be the History of her Decline and

The organization of this connec as they denominate themselves, has skilfully constructed: it is a syste compleat subordination; the me to the helpers; the helpers to the s intendants; the superintendants t conference The whole commonw is divided into districts; districts circuits; circuits iuto societies; a cieties into classes and bands. So w ful an eye is kept upon the subje this hierarchy, that no one can re from one society to another, with certificate from his superintenda which notice must be given to eve ciety. Any member who shall himself or herself to an unbeliev expelled; for as the Mohammeda press their scorn and hatred of the tians by this contemptuous appell in like manner do these schismati sult the members of the estab church of their country. The pre and superintendants act as book for the conference, being charged commend frequently and earnest

Digitized by Google

books which they have published, as those which ought to be read in preference to any other. To read only the Bible, is declared to be rank enthusiasm; if you read only the Bible, say they, by parity of reason you ought to hear only *the Bible*, and if so, preaching becomes needless. During the life of the founder, no preacher was permitted to print or reprint any thing, till Wesley had corrected it. This inquisitorial office is now exercised by a book committee.—Whatever is thus published, with their authority, becomes the property of the conference, the author having, for his own emolument, a tenth of the impression; and it is worthy of remark, as it indicates the number of their impressions, that this is expressed by saying, he shall have a hundred copies out of every thousand. A preacher, who may exercise his Englishman's privilege of printing without this popish licence, is not permitted to sell his book at the chapels, nor to advertise it from the pulpits.—These are not the only advertisements which are issued from the pulpits. *God-fearing* servants, who want places, and *serious* house-keepers who want servants, advertise their wants in like manner by the preacher. The covers of their official magazines are filled with such notices. The plan of itinerancy was admirably devised to cement and consolidate the whole of the system. As no preacher is permitted to remain more than two years in a place, he has not time so to establish himself as to become independent of the conference; and as the members of this conference, or conclave, or convention, are all itinerants, the pleasures and advantages of power outbalance the inconveniences of this unsettled life. In another point of view, this plan is useful, as it renders the governors intimately acquainted with those whom they are to manage.

The funds of the connection are derived from the books, and from the yearly subscriptions. The profits of the books, for the year preceding the conference of 1802, was 10871. 13s. and this was the smallest annual sum that they had produced since the death of Wesley. The whole receipts of that year amounted to 9979l. 4s. 2d. It was the original rule of the societies, that every member, unless he were too poor, should contribute one penny per week, and one shilling for the quarterly renewal of his class or band ticket. This probably is to supply the funds of each particular society. The main revenue of the state, if that phrase may be applied to a parliament of priests, arises from the yearly subscriptions. All is said to fall short of the necessary expences. This deficiency, however, does not, and will not impede the growth of the connection, nor the increase of the preachers. The preachers are not actuated by the prospect of immediate and direct emolument; their self-interest is less gross than that of Henry Huntington, *S. S. sinner saved*, the quondam coal-heaver, who prays for new breeches; and when one of his congregation, in consequence, sends him a pair, prints and publishes the story, with the blasphemous observation, that it is no wonder they should fit, for his Master knows his measure, having miraculously cloathed him for seven years.

Will it then be asked, by what hopes of advantage can so great a company of preachers have been raised, and by what motives are so many induced to engage in so laborious a vocation? Undoubtedly they are, for the most part, sincere when they begin the work, to which indeed, at present, many of them are regularly trained in the Kingswood school, which is now appropriated for the children of the preachers. To this early zeal, it is not uncharitable to add, the love of popular applause, as an assistant, predominant and permanent motive, for by no other possible pursuit could they so certainly and so fully gratify this passion, how craving soever. Their celebrity, indeed, is confined within the limits of the connection, and is but a life-hold property, but the society is their sphere, their world; and what this fame may want in extent and duration, is amply made up by its intensity. Dear man! sweet man! fine man! blessed man! these are the aspirations that ascend from old women and young women to the orator's ears, while his male auditors groan, in undersong, and twirl their thumbs. At length his portrait appears in the Methodist Magazine, the official gazette which is to make honourable mention of his merits; thus is he installed among the worthies; thus does he take possession of his shrine in the pantheon; this is the consummation of his glory; this is his apotheosis, the canonization of the living saint. Nor is fame only his reward; a gift of prayer leads to more substantial benefits.—

Digitized by Google

Happy are they who can obtain the preacher for their guest, that they may enjoy his gift in private, and that he may bless the feast which they provide for him; to this may be added, without illiberality or scandal, the opportunities afforded him of marrying to advantage. When it is considered, that the men who are thus honoured, thus flattered, thus caressed and courted, would have been tradesmen of the lowest order, bakers, barbers and taylors, perhaps servants or labourers, if they had remained in that rank for which, by birth, education, knowledge and intellect, they are fitted, it will be seen, that the wordly inducements to become a methodist preacher are neither few nor trifling; and the ultimate object held in view by this ecclesiastical society must never be forgotten. —They profess an entire conformity in doctrinals with the church, and subscribe to her discipline. Whensoever, therefore, they shall have become the majority, whensoever they shall have succeeded in emptying the churches and cathedrals, they are ready to fill them; to take possession of the seats, stalls, and thrones; to translate society into parish; helper into priest; superintendant into bishop; circuit into diocese; conference into convocation; from which revolution God preserve the church of England! from which triumph of ignorance, craft and fanaticism, from which renewal of intolerance and persecution, God preserve the people of England!

Nor are the means which they pursue less mischievous than the end at which they aim. True it is, that they preach against vice and discourage it; the profession of morality is common to all sects and all religions, nor can religion be professed without it. The methodists may, perhaps, be as sober as the mahometans; so far they have produced some contingent good among the ruder ranks of society; for it is the wise order of things that some good should be educed from every thing; but with what evil is this accompanied? Let us examine their practice, its dissocializing character, its inevitable tendency to darken the understanding, and defile the imagination. Be serious, says the edict of the conference; avoid all lightness as you would avoid hell-fire, and trifling as you would cursing and swearing; fix the end of each conversation before you begin; watch and pray during the time; rarely spend above an hour at a time in conversing with any one; if you above an hour at any place, take o book and read; the children at Ki wood school must never play, a master must be always present them. In this precious seminary, most mongrel medley of studies is sued, that ever could be planned b norant fanaticism, and stupid big Methodism and mysticism are mi with the classics, materials as hete neous as the ingredients of Eze cake; with Cæsar and Sallust, the to study Bengel and Bunyan; Christian Perfection; the Life of De Renty; and the Life of Mr. burton. Homer, and Virgil, and S speare, and Spenser, are to be read their effects worked off by plentiful of Thomas à Kempis, and John W "Whoever carefully goes throug course, say they, will be a better s than nine in ten of the graduates at O or Cambridge." On Sunday they ea meat; a diet which, it will be re bered, certain methodist legislator attempted to enforce upon the peo England by law; on Wednesday Fridays they are allowed no animal and on Fridays they fast, *if they c* till three in the afternoon, a pr which hath been found greatly c cive to health! Oh! if superstit again to triumph and to reign, rather be harlot-tempted than ridden; let her not come in dirty and dingy black, with sallow fac greasy locks, but in purple and in s decked in gold and precious ston pearls! if we are to be made drun the cup of her abominations, inst being drenched with the dregs of beer from an ale-house mug, let u wine from the golden goblet; if a twilight and night of human rea to come upon us, let us build u monasteries again, let us re-establ benedictines and revive the jesuit there may be at least lights shin the darkness.

Wear no needless ornaments, s conference, such as rings, earrings laces, laces or ruffles. The pre are not to give band tickets to a dress in the fashion, not even to m women, who may plead that they thus to please their husbands; times the father of a family i dupe, woe then to the children! shall be turned out of doors as u nerate; and while the fattened

Digitized by Google

killed for the preacher, they shall make the daughter of the house kneel, and insult her by praying for that unconverted and hardened sinner. More frequently the woman takes their bait; no sooner then is her husband gone from home, than the dear helper is apprised, that he may come and solace her in private with comfortable prayer. Pestilent insects! thus it is that they canker the fair flower of domestic peace; whatever they touch they fly-blow, and leave it to ferment and fester.

An unbeliever, it must be remembered, signifies, in the methodist nomenclature, every person who is not a methodist. We shall copy a part of the minutes of the third conference, showing how they are to be dealt with, in order to conversion.

"Q. Can an unbeliever (whatever he be in other respects) challenge any thing of God's justice?—A. Absolutely nothing but hell; and this is a point which we cannot too much insist on.

"Q. Do we empty men of their own righteousness, as we did at first? do we sufficiently labour, when they begin to be convinced of sin, to take away all they lean upon? should we not then endeavour, with all our might, to overturn their false foundations?—A. This was at first one of our principal points, and it ought to be so still; for till all other foundations are overturned, they cannot build upon Christ.

"Q. Did we not then purposely throw them into convictions? into strong sorrow and fear? nay, did we not strive to make them inconsolable? refusing to be comforted.—A. We did, and so we should do still, for the stronger the conviction, the speedier is the deliverance; and none so soon receive the peace of God, as those who steadily refuse all other comfort.

"Q. Let us consider a particular case:—Was you, *Jonathan Reeves*, before you received the peace of God, convinced, that notwithstanding all you did, or could do, you was in a state of damnation?—*J. R.* I was convinced of it, as fully as that I am now alive.

"Q. Are you sure that conviction was from God?—*J. R.* I can have no doubt but it was.

"Q. What do you mean by a state of damnation?—*J. R.* A state, wherein if a man dies, he perisheth for ever."

It would be needless to detail their mode of practice upon this plan; every person who has once entered their meeting-houses, must know how their sermons are seasoned with brimstone, and glowing with hell fire. So frightful are the effects of such a conduct, that Spenser has assigned it to his Despair as the last and powerfullest temptation that even that fiend could devise.

——"When the miscreaunt
"Perceived him to waver, weak and fraile,
"(Whiles trembling horror did his conscience daunt,
"And hellish anguish did his soul assaile,)
"To drive him to despair, and quite to quaile,
"He shew'd him, painted in a table plaine,
"The damned ghosts that do in torments waile,
"And thousand feends that doe them endless paine
"With fire and brimstone, which for ever shall remaine."

What therefore was to be expected from such a system, has actually resulted. The increase of madness, in England, has been proportioned to the increase of methodism. This is not lightly hazarded, nor ignorantly affirmed. Positively and knowingly we assert, that the increase of madness, melancholy madness, religious madness, the worst form of the worst calamity which flesh is heir to, has been proportioned to, and occasioned by the growth of methodism. In Moorfields itinerant preaching began, and in Moorfields is its consummation; there the first seed was sown, and there the fruit may be seen,—Bedlam is the granary.

Such are the effects of their denunciations of damnation, and of that tremendous blasphemy, their yearly covenant with Almighty God! Thus it is, that they foster and force the seeds of insanity wherever they exist: minds predisposed to madness, being prone to methodism, as the dropsical sufferer craves for the draught which aggravates his disease. Upon those of a happier temperament, who escape its physical effects, it acts as a moral poison. Even in the first freshness, in the heat and vigour of their sanctification, they become liars and systematic hypocrites; they call themselves the vilest of sinners, and believe themselves the elect of God; they profess the utmost humility and self abasement, the deepest conviction of their own unworthiness and wretchedness; and they groan and lift up their eyes in contemptuous compassion for their kinsman and their neighbour, the master of the family, and the parish priest, their brother, and perhaps their

very parents, as for the rejected, the vessels of dishonour, the children of wrath, who are to lie howling, while they themselves shall be ministering angels. They humble themselves to each other that they may be exalted, baiting with self-accusation for flattery, each pampering the other's spiritual pride. For a while this miserable self-delusion continues in full force; every lucid interval is the devil's work; and the devil hath the credit of every thought akin to common sense. But when these intervals grow longer, and recur more frequent, when these thoughts or temptations, as they are called, come upon them thick and thronging, still they continue the same exterior, the same face of formality, the same lip-righteousness; the smoke is kept up, though the fire hath cooled; they have enlisted, and are ashamed to desert; they are fettered by habit, by vanity, by interest.

Their separation of the sexes is even more mischievous than all the impure precautions of popery. Touch no woman, says the conference; be as loving as you will, but the custom of the country is nothing to us. Every preacher is charged to see that the men and women sit apart in their chapels; they are also to meet men and women, the married and the single apart. In their bands, sex is separated from sex, husbands from batchelors, and maids from matrons. In these societies, each is to confess to all; *to confess*, in the strict and popish sense of the term, "to speak freely and plainly the faults they have committed in thought, word, or deed, and the temptations they have been exercised with since their last meeting." They are to be asked "as many and as searching questions as can be, concerning their sins and temptations. Have you been guilty of any known sin since our last meeting? What temptations have you met with? How were you delivered? What have you thought, said, or done, of which you doubt whether it be a sin or not?"

Englishmen, who have happily been delivered from the bondage of the Romish church, are well aware of the evils which inevitably result from auricular confession. Our fathers witnessed those evils, and bore testimony against them; they bore their testimony against them in danger and in suffering, in prison, in torments, in the flames; but the confession of the catholics is modest and innocent, when compared with that which t schismatics have introduced. Of nature it must chiefly be, is evident this separation of man from woma maid from matron, in the bands, when they are visited by the helper, priest, the father confessor. We touch lightly on this abominable sub Is it possible, that they who devised confession, could be ignorant o consequences? Every incipient fee every lighter thought that would past over the maiden's mind and forgotten, is to be remarked and re bered, that it may be renewed, an vetted and *burnt-in* to the heart by pain and shame of confession! of fession, not to one whom, from his and character, she has ever from he fancy been taught to regard wit therly, or more than fatherly rever and who, by the holiest oaths, and severest penalties, is bound to invio secrecy, but to companions of her sex and age, who will make it thei table talk; and each of whom is, similar confession, to renew and her shame! Either from natural sacred modesty, the thought will be cealed, and made more intense b imagined sinfulness of that conceal or it will be confessed, and that a will strengthen the idea, and the will recur more frequently, because thus strengthened; and thus confe will be again and again required, sinful pleasure be at length extr from confession itself, the atone will partake of the nature of the sin all modesty and all shame be u destroyed.

We have now detailed the Histo Methodism, explained its organiz and exposed its tendency. Wh reasons and understands the natu the human mind, will perceive tha a system which must necessarily d the understanding, deaden the feeling, and defile the imagination ultimate object is to destroy the c establishment. No, say they, we w not destroy it, we are no enemies t establishment! Neither was the tender an enemy to the throne of Britain, he had no design to destr all that he meant was to eject the ing prince, and seat himself in his s

The church of England is in danger; her clergy will be ousted from thei nefices, unless some effectual remed speedily applied. The Arminian

Digitized by Google

thodists of Great Britain, have increased above 38,000 in number, within ten years, according to their own population returns; and the Calvinistic branch is equally active, and probably equally numerous. Many of them have already entered the church, so many as to form a loud and powerful faction; and, it is said, that they have funds among them to strengthen their party, by purchasing presentations. Meantime the conduct of the church has been such, as leads to her own destruction; if she persish, it will be by suicide. Infidelity and atheism have been her bug-bears; she has been acting like an ideot, who cracks a flea in triumph, while he suffers a viper to crawl into his bosom. Infidels and atheists will always be the minority; their opinions will die with them untransmitted, and their children fall into the ordinary course of society. Nature will not suffer her instincts to be perverted: blindness of heart is no more hereditary than blindness of eye; these defects are forbidden to be perpetuated by the same unerring wisdom which renders mules and monsters incapable of propagation. Some miserable individual may occasionally raise his voice, but they never form a sect; and like stage players, every new blasphemer effaces the notoriety of his predecessor. They have no common object; their very speculations differ; and, if in any one point they are united, it is in preferring, to all others, that establishment under which they are secure of toleration. Infidelity and atheism are excellent man-targets to fire at from the pulpit; they are enemies of straw, whom their antagonists may place in what attitude they please, and beat them at pleasure; but our clergy are called upon to a more serious conflict. There are, in Great Britain, 110,000 *united methodists*, there are as many more *united calvinists*; they differ concerning unconditional election and irresistible grace, but they agree in hostility to the establishment, and will not dispute upon the partition treaty till they have won the battle.

The church of England is in danger! Is she then to resort to coercive measures for defence? God forbid! better means are in her own power, better and more effectual than these, which are neither justifiable by policy, nor reason, nor religion. We are attached to the establishment; and the advice which we offer will prove the sincerity of our attachment, because it is salutary and unwelcome. The thirty-nine articles must either be enforced or abolished; it is an insult to the understanding and the feelings of the people, that their articles should be calvinistic, and their clergy arminian. It is degrading and hurtful to the clergy, that they should subscribe one set of opinions, and preach another. It is upon this weak point that the schismatics bring their artillery to bear; it is this which excludes from the establishment, those who would be its best and most ardent defenders, from the very strength of feeling which occasions their exclusion. Away with the African and Genevan interpolations of Christianity; let us have the religion of Christ Jesus, and not of Calvin; let that which the scriptures have left indefinite, remain undefined! Open the doors of the church, that they who feel and love the gospel may enter in, that zeal may be opposed by zeal, ignorance by knowledge, enthusiasm by virtue. It is idle to object, that this would effectually change the establishment; the establishment must undergo a change, "if it do not reform itself from within, it will be reformed from without with a vengeance." There is yet time for it to make its choice between reformation and ruin.

ART. LXIV. *Vindiciæ Ecclesiæ Anglicanæ: in which some of the false Reasonings, incorrect Statements, and palpable Misrepresentations, in a Publication, entitled, "The True Churchman, ascertained by John Overton, A. B." are pointed out. By the Rev.* CHARLES DAUBENY. 8vo. pp. 471.

THE controversy which in this work is continued, has now, for some time, been before the public, who, with us, will probably conceive that all has been long since advanced that the subject deserves or requires. "Much more indeed," as Mr. Daubeny himself remarks concerning *one* part of it, "has been written than appears necessary to its perfect illustration. The real merits of it lie in a narrow compass, and, by a writer in the habit of annexing clear and

Digitized by Google

precise ideas to the words he uses, may be comprehended in a few sentences." P. 233. For ourselves, we confess, that we have long been fully persuaded, that however the articles of the church may appear to lean towards that moderate Calvinism which is professed by some in the present day, it is contrary both to historic fact and the clearest evidence, to attribute to the compilers of them those sentiments which J. Calvin and his disciples taught. The slightest comparison between these articles, the liturgy, the homilies, the private works of our first reformers, Cranmer, Ridley, Latimer, and Hooper, and the institutes of Calvin, is sufficient to demonstrate the truth of this opinion: of this Mr. Overton himself seems to be convinced, as our readers will learn from the following passage, which at the same time will afford a specimen of the superiority which Mr. Daubeny has over his opponent:

"We are at length arrived at the conclusion of this chapter, professing to ascertain the true sense of our articles, and the genuine doctrines of our reformers; which Mr. O. winds up by telling his readers, that nothing is further from his purpose, 'than to infer, from what has been advanced in this section, that the precise theological system of J. Calvin in all its parts, and to its full extent, was intended to be established in the thirty-nine articles.' P. 93. The general object of Mr. O.'s publication, if I understand it, is to prove the articles of our church to be Calvinistic. This must be understood to mean, that they were constructed in conformity with the tenets of J. Calvin. In page 85 of this section, Mr. O. told his readers, 'that the large portion of the great body of the clergy of our church, who favoured Calvinistic sentiments, included the very men who thus formed and imposed these articles.' A few pages after (p. 91) Mr. O. writes thus: 'On all hands, therefore, does it thus unquestionably appear, how generally those (Calvinistic) sentiments were entertained by the founders of our church, which are now represented 'as a curious conceit,' 'a system of nonsense, &c.' The sentiments which in my writings were thus disgracefully characterized, related to the Calvinistic doctrine of absolute and unconditional decrees; which the learned Jortin described, as 'a religious system consisting of human creatures without liberty, doctrines without sense, faith without reason, and a God without mercy;' and which Dr. Balguy somewhere calls 'a system of nonsense,' because it endeavours, in contradiction to the most decided language, to reconcile the absolute decrees of the Deity with the accountableness of a rational being. Such, then, according to Mr. O.'s own statement, were the 'sentiments entertained by the founders of our church;' for to such sentiments alone did the observations of Drs. Jortin and Balguy apply; and the persons, according to Mr. O., who entertained these sentiments relative to absolute and unconditional decrees, were the 'very men who framed and composed our articles.'

"From which premises Mr. O.'s readers may be led to conclude, on his authority, that the articles of our church were meant to be decidedly Calvinistic. But in the page now before us we are told by Mr. O. that 'the precise theological system of J. Calvin was not meant to be established in our articles.' This is such backward and forward writing, as renders the meaning of the writer to me incomprehensible. After having laboured through a whole chapter for the express purpose of proving that our reformers were decided Calvinists, and the articles framed by them of course Calvinistic; Mr. O. turns short on his readers, and tells them, by way of conclusion to this same chapter, that 'the precise system of J. Calvin was not intended to be established in the articles.' It would, therefore, I believe, be satisfactory to Mr. O's readers, and would certainly cut short the argument in this case, if Mr. O. would tell them, in plain unequivocal language, what system of doctrine was meant to be established in our articles; without perplexing them with describing that doctrine under a title in itself unscriptural, and to which he himself does not annex any precise and determinate idea. Instead of saying then, as Mr. O. does, that, 'our established forms do not teach directly several doctrines contained in Calvin's institutions,' p. 93; from which ambiguous mode of writing his readers may conclude, that our established forms teach those doctrines indirectly, and thus come prepared to swallow Calvinism in disguise; it would have been to better purpose to have said plainly, what doctrines our established forms directly do teach. His readers then might have known, under what doctrines of our church the tenets of Calvinism were supposed to be comprehended; and, if intelligent readers, have been qualified to judge of the strength of the ground, on which such a supposition stood."

Mr. Daubeny is engaged in the volume before us, not in vindicating the articles of the church from the charge of Calvinism, but his own work, entitled, "A Guide to the Church," from the rude attacks of Mr. Overton. To follow him through the long course of his argument, would needlessly occupy our pages, and be a wearisome and unprofitable task to ourselves and our readers. He has, in general, gained his purpose,

Digitized by Google

and disproved the positions of Mr. O., both as they respect the confessions of the established church, and the doctrine advanced in "the Guide."

In perusing this work, such enquiries as the following repeatedly suggested themselves to our minds:—If the sense of these articles, framed for the express purpose of preserving uniformity of opinion, be so obscure as this controversy represents it: if they, who are teachers in Israel, are thus divided in their opinion upon the doctrines to which they have respectively subscribed their assent as the doctrines declared by the church to be those of scripture, what good purpose do these articles answer? If after subscribing them, every one is at liberty to decide for himself respecting the sense they bear, will not diversity of sentiment be likely to prevail as much as it could do, were the scriptures themselves proposed as the only formulary to which assent should be required? Are those articles of faith worth retaining, which demand such elaborate works of explanation, and now stand in need of some authoritative declaration to determine the sense in which they ought to be understood? Many of our readers also may have felt the same or similar difficulties upon this subject. If they wish for a satisfactory solution of them, we cannot recommend any other means more effectual than a diligent perusal of the Confessional, and the letters published upon the subject of subscription by the late Dr. Jebb.

ART. LXV. *A Charge delivered to the Clergy of the Diocese of Lincoln, at the Triennial Visitation of that Diocese in May and June* 1803. *By* GEORGE PRETYMAN, *D.D. F.R.S. Lord Bishop of Lincoln.* 4to. pp. 26.

THE subject of this charge is similar to that of the preceding work. His Lordship first attempts to prove that Calvinism is not agreeable to scripture, and then that the church of England is not Calvinistic. We shall select what the right reverend author observes concerning the homilies:

"*But* the most extraordinary circumstance of a negative kind remains to be noticed with respect to the homilies; to which so confident an appeal has lately been made by certain writers, that I request your particular attention to the fact I am going to state. Not one of the peculiar doctrines of Calvinism is mentioned in either of the two books of homilies. The word predestination does not occur from the beginning to the end of the homilies. The word election occurs only once, and then it is not used in the Calvinistic sense. The word reprobation does not occur at all. Nothing is said of *Absolute Decrees*, Partial Redemption, Perseverance, or Irresistible Grace. You all know that the former of these books was published in the reign of Edward the Sixth, and the latter in the beginning of queen Elizabeth's reign, and that both are pronounced by our thirty-fifth article to "contain a godly and wholsome doctrine, and necessary for these times;" that is, for the times in which they were published. If our great reformers, the authors of these homilies, Cranmer, Ridley, Latimer, and Jewell, held themselves, as is sometimes pretended, held Calvinistic opinions, is it to be believed that they would have composed a set of sermons, to be used by the parochial clergy in their respective churches, for the avowed purpose of establishing their congregations in a sound faith and a right practice, without even mentioning in them any one of these points? And let it be remembered, that the subjects of many of the homilies are immediately connected with the Calvinistic system, such as Original Sin, the Salvation of Mankind, Faith, Good Works, declining from God, the Nativity, the Passion, the Resurrection, the Descent of the Holy Ghost, the Grace of God, and Repentance.

"But though the homilies contain neither any discussion in support of the Calvinistic doctrines, nor any direct refutation of them, there is a great number of incidental passages which plainly shew that the authors were not Calvinists. The little notice taken of these points proves, that when the homilies were written and published, Calvinistic opinions had made very little progress in England. For, if they had been generally prevalent, or even if they had been embraced by any considerable number of persons, the framers of the homilies would have thought it 'necessary for the times' to have entered more fully into these subjects, and to have offered a confutation of what they manifestly considered as erroneous doctrines: they would have exposed the new errors of Calvinism in the same manner as they have exposed the old errors of popery. The fact is, that the introduction of Calvinism, or rather, its prevalence in any considerable degree, was subsequent to the beginning of queen Elizabeth's reign, when all our public formularies, our articles, our liturgy, and our homilies, were settled as they now are, with the exception of a few alterations and additions to the liturgy, not in the least affecting its general spirit and

Digitized by Google

character. Our reformers followed no human authority—they had recourse to the scriptures themselves as their sole guide. And the consequence has been what might have been expected, that our articles and liturgy do not exactly correspond with the sentiments of any of the eminent reformers upon the continent, or with the creeds of any o protestant churches which are there lished. Our church is not Lutheran— not Calvinistic—it is not Arminian— Scriptural. It is built upon the apostl prophets, Jesus Christ himself bein chief corner stone."

ART. LXVI. *A Dissertation on the Seventeenth Article of the Church of Eng wherein the Sentiments of the Compilers, and other contemporary Reformers, subject of the Divine Decrees, are fully deduced from their own Writings. To wh subjoined, a short Tract, ascertaining the Reign and Time in which the Royal Decl before the Thirty-Nine Articles was first published. By the Rev.* T. WINCHE *D. D. late Rector of Appleton. A New Edition, with Emendations from the A corrected Copy, and the Addition of a Biographical Preface.* 8vo. pp. 106.

THIS little tract is reprinted as part of a larger miscellaneous work, entitled, "The Churchman's Remembrancer: being a collection of scarce and valuable treatises in defence of the truly primitive doctrines and discipline of the established church." The editors profess themselves "happy to introduce to the public Dr. Winchester's admirable treatise on the seventeenth article: a work now known to very few, and not procurable for money; the design of which is to prove, that our reformers were not Calvinists, by the same mode of argument as that by which Dr. Kipling has, very recently, demonstrated that our liturgy and articles are not Calvinistic: and such is its execution, that, excepting those "predestined never to be convinced," it will doubtless be considered by all its readers "as decisive" upon the point in question, "and as setting it at rest for ever." P. v.

In prosecuting his enquiry, Dr. Winchester very wisely confined himself to the sense of our reformers in the reign of Edward VI.

"The design of the ensuing dissertation is, to prove that the seventeenth article of the church of England, which treats of predestination, was not drawn up by the compilers of our articles, conformable to the doctrine of Calvin on this subject. In prosecuting this enquiry, it is intended to confine it to the sense of our reformers in the reign of Edward VI. To proceed further, into that of Elizabeth, would only be to discover that many of our divines, during their exile under Queen Mary, were strongly tinctured with Calvin's doctrines; which occasioned at length great disputes at Cambridge in the year 1595. They who maintain that the article is nistical, have generally chosen to fix this * latter period; but the evidence from those times, whatever it may a to, cannot be equal to that which arise the apparent sentiments and design compilers themselves, and their con raries."

He first states at large Calvin' nion on the subject of the xviith a then, from the design and history article, and the sentiments of the pal compiler of it, (Cranmer) he that it gives no countenance to th trines of the Genevan reformer confirm this, he next produces, fro Reformatio Legum, the chapter d destinatione. The testimonies shops Hooper and Latimer, again rigid doctrine of the Calvinists, a produced, and are strong in fav the anti-calvinistic interpretation; the difference in opinion, on this s between those who were imprison Queen Mary, is considered.

A passage from Latimer is v markable: "Christ shed as much for Judas as he did for Peter; Pe lieved it, and therefore he was Judas would not believe it, and th he was condemned, the fault. b him only, and in nobody else." certainly not calvinism; and Mr ton, in attempting to get rid of t ficulty it occasions, has resorted strange and useless measure, of the sentiment not just.

The declaration prefixed to th cles is, in the short tract sub proved to have been published reign of Charles the First.

* Dr. Waterland, in the Supplement to the Case of Arian Subscription, has con in a masterly way, the disputes on this subject, which happened in the reigns of El James I. and Charles I.

Digitized by Google

ART. LXVII. *A Reply to the Anguis in Herba of the Rev. James Hook, M.A. & F.S.A. containing a Refutation of his Defence of Pluralities, Non-residence, and the Employment of Substitutes by the Beneficed Clergy. By* A MEMBER OF THE ESTABLISHED CHURCH. 8vo. pp. 87.

THIS is a strenuous and well written defence, of a very important work noticed in our last volume, and entitled "the Necessity of the Abolition of Pluralities, Non-residence, &c." against which the Rev. James Hook, *credens se aliquem*, had entered the lists, and taken up the gauntlet in favour of his pluralist and non-resident brethren. We suspect that the author of that work is here again before us; if not, he is one who, by many strong marks of likeness, discovers a near affinity. It is not necessary to enter into a detail of this transaction, it contains little that is not to be found in the larger work to which we have just alluded.

The following passage deserves the attention of Mr. Hook, who has argued in support of pluralities, from the small income arising from the greater part of livings:

"It is singular, that this gentleman takes no notice of the number of superior benefices, which form a competent maintenance for a resident incumbent; and one might suppose, that in his opinion there were no single livings sufficient for that purpose. I am convinced however, from my own observation, and the information of others, that the number of benefices in England, above 800l. a year, cannot be less than 2000, and these best livings are held in plurality equally with the inferior! Is a plurality of these to be defended on the plea of poverty? Or rather, is not the insufficiency of some churches made use of as a pretext to hide and support the plurality of others that are sufficient? If the plan of universal residence cannot be reduced to practice, as near an approximation to it as possible should be adopted; and a law should be passed to prevent benefices above 300l. or 400l. per annum, to be held in plurality by any clergyman."

It is indeed high time that some reformation should be adopted, if the establishment is to possess the esteem of the great body of the people; who not being liable to be misled by interest, feel the force of such truths as these:

"Every one admitted into the christian ministry is equally bound, by the express authority of scripture, to employ his time and exert his talents in the faithful and conscientious discharge of its duties, and to make full proof of his ministry. The clergy being under an indispensable obligation to perform it in their own persons, it becomes, by necessary consequence, impossible that they can neglect it, or discharge it by the agency of a delegate. Every character, title, and designation, attributed in the gospel to its ministers, demonstrate this truth. An ambassador is not at liberty to delegate the commission which he has received from his sovereign to a substitute of his own appointment. A watchman or sentinel is not allowed to neglect or desert his post, or place another in his stead at his own pleasure. A shepherd is not permitted to forsake the flock entrusted to him, and commit them to the care of a hireling. A steward is not suffered to absent himself from the family of his lord, and assign the care and management of his household to a deputy. And therefore those, who are commissioned to go and preach the gospel, are not at liberty to refuse to go and discharge their important mission, or to send others in their room; much less, if they neglect to serve at the altar, ought they to live by the altar. Every clergyman must give an account of his personal diligence and fidelity in the work of his Lord, and receive his reward according to his own work, and not according to the labour of his substitute.

"On these equitable principles were the ministers of the gospel first established, and by these just principles did they regulate their conduct for ages; nor is a single instance to be found in the history of the church, for near a thousand years, of any minister, in any order and rank of the priesthood, performing his duty by the help of a substitute, much less of any minister receiving the rewards earned by the services of his deputy."

ART. LXVIII. *A Word of Advice to all Church Reformation-mongers: containing Strictures on two recent Publications.* 8vo. pp. 32.

THE two recent publications are—"the Necessity of the Abolition of Pluralities, &c." and "a Plea for Religion and the Sacred Writings," both noticed in our former volume. This Word of Advice is, not inaptly, styled by the author a *squib;* and as we have no fondness for gun-powder, we shall not venture to touch it. Our readers, we can assure them, will suffer no loss; and they will keep themselves out of danger, if they follow our example.

Digitized by Google

LXIX. *An Appeal to the Right Reverend the Archbishops and Bishops of the Churc England.* 8vo. pp. 16.

A POMPOUS and angry declamation against those upon whom anger and rebuke are wasted, the Editors of the Anti-Jacobin Review, who, it appears, "have recommended their co-adjutors and friends to a place on the august and venerable bench" of bishops. Not producing the numerous instances they have afforded of corrupt criticism, lax morality, and unsound theology, nor expatiating upon the abuse they have poured upon the administration of their country, and upon many of the ministers of religion, the author grounds his ch against them, upon a favourable rev which they have published of a worl which it is proposed, that subscrip to the articles of the church of Eng shall be abolished; and in one paragr of which, the whole body of the En clergy is involved in deep and indi minate censure! We cannot think there is any reason to apprehend, the recommendation of such persons have any influence upon the mind our spiritual rulers.

LXX. *A general Epistle of Brotherly Admonition and Counsel, to the People c Quakers, in Great Britain, Ireland and America, issued at the Time of the Yearly Me in London, Anno* 1803; *on behalf of sundry Brethren concerned for the religious Impr ment of that Society. By* THEOPHILUS FREEMAN. 8vo. pp. 24.

IN a full belief of that divine call and assistance which formerly attended many of his predecessors, the author wishes to excite the society of friends to the recollection of past examples, and to engage their attention to the genuine concerns of the christian religion, p. 4. Generally speaking, Mr. Freeman considers the forefathers of the present quakers, as believers in the simple unity of God, and the divine mission of the Great Prophet of Nazareth. In this respect, he recommends an imitation of their example, but he regards them as mistaken upon the subject of tythes; and wishes every opposition, in itself, not consistent with the laws of the land, to be laid aside. He objects to the doct of eternal torments; to the predomi feeble ministry of females; and rec mends a greater degree of attentio the classical and religious educatio their young men. He also cens many parts of the present discipline hastening the decay, rather than a nistering to the support of a soci which he seems to consider as in a s of declension.

This little tract will be read with p sure, by those who feel any interes observing the progress of religious quiry, and the revolutions in relig opinion.

Digitized by Google

CHAPTER III.

HISTORY, POLITICS,

AND

STATISTICS.

THE publications of the last year that come under the department of civil history and politics, though equal in numbers, are, upon the whole, inferior in importance to those recorded in our former volume. The anti-revolutionary war which was terminated by the peace of Amiens, has found a historian in Mr. Steevens, whose ponderous volumes are principally, however, taken up with the exploits of the British, the documents of which were at hand, than with those of our continental confederates, which would have required the previous collation and study of French and German authorities. The last years of this eventful contest, commencing from the interrupted negotiations at Rastadt, have also been related by Mr. Ritchie, but without communicating to us much novel information.

Dr. Bisset has executed an ample, accurate, and instructive account of the reign of George the Third, highly flattering to a Sovereign of whose personal opinions it is perhaps too much the mirror. Mr. Coote has continued his History of England to the peace of Amiens, in the concise form and liberal spirit of his former volumes. The late Professor Millar's History of the English Government is a work of no common value, though rather to be numbered among the theories of philosophy than the records of experience.

The History of Ireland, especially since the accession of the house of Stuart, has been detailed by Mr. Plowden with voluminous generosity. He exhibits the English government as a penitent in a confessional, and, by the allowed dedication of his work to the Prince of Wales, may be considered as the harbinger and pledge of a more just and honourable sway. Mr. Hay has communicated in a manner no less candid than interesting, the ineffacable horrors and disgraceful excesses of the promoters and quellers of the Wexford insurrection.

Mr. Adolphus has compiled a meritorious history of France: we are indebted to the Chevalier Tinseau for an English version of the late statistical survey of the French empire and her dependent provinces; and Miss Williams has cast an additional interest round the character of Louis XVI, by the publication of his confidential letters.

Towards relating the local fortunes of the West Indies, Mr. Dallas has contributed his History of the Maroon War, and Mr. Chalmers his Narrative of Transactions in San Domingo.

Mr. Card has presented the English public with a convenient and condensed Abridgement of the Annals of the Russian Empire; and Mr. Turner has brought down his History of the Anglo-Saxons to the forcible intrusion of the Norman dynasty.

Digitized by Google

The political tracts of the last year are almost wholly occupied with one g object; the recommencement of hostilities between Britain and France. F distinctions have for the most part been laid aside, and the threat of an exte nating invasion has aroused the ancient patriotism of the British nation. The tem of colonial policy has been investigated by Mr. Brougham with much abi and the Essay on Population by Mr. Malthus, has been expanded from a s octavo to a large quarto, with a corresponding increase of publicity and ge approbation.

ART. I. *The History of the Anglo-Saxons, from the Death of Alfred the Great Norman Conquest.* By SH. TURNER, *F. A. S.* Vol. III. 8vo. pp. 420.

THIS third volume of the Anglo-Saxon history is better executed than the second, is far better executed than the first volume: Mr. Turner here displays a research more travelled, and an estimate more judicious. The sagas edited in Denmark, and the manuscripts of the Cotton Library at length begin to be called in to his assistance: and considerable additions are made to the information so eloquently condensed by Milton, and so clearly unfolded by Rapin. Several manuscripts, however, which the Cotton Library contains, and which might have been expected to throw light on the events discussed, are not quoted. Such as the manuscript *Caligula, A. IX.*, in which illustrations may be found of the fabulous history of Arthur, and of his pretended invasion of Denmark. The Anglo-Saxon heroic poem, or chronicle in verse, of the tenth century, *Vitellius, A. XV.*, contains matter applicable to the purposes of this historian. There is a compendium of the history of the Anglo-Saxon kings, in *Domitianus, A. VIII.*, and also valuable particulars of the institutes of Knute, or Canute. Of this king again there is especial notice in the manuscript *Caligula, A. X.* and of his tribute, or tax, called *Danelage*, in the Harleian manuscripts, *No.* 746. There are also manuscripts concerning the gests of the Normans, whence perhaps something could have been borrowed to illustrate their origin, which is somewhat within our author's scope. Is not the Latin original also extant, whence Lydgate versified his life of St. Edmund? Yet we have not observed under that reign mention of either biography. When Mr. Turner has properly examined these, and some other domestic and foreign sources of instruction, he will, no doubt, revise his whole work, and accompany it with a profuse appendix of scarce and inedited documents: it will become, we d not, a perennial monument in the ple of British literature. A greate tail, both of narrative and quota both of text and note, might with vantage have been indulged, and are several of our country histo who might be assessed for tributary terials. There is a fragment of a cient poem concerning Saint Ge which was edited at Copenhage Barthold Christian Sandvig in 178 which is transcribed from a Va manuscript containing the gospel cording to Otfrid's version. Fro ballad, or hymn, it appears tha Saint George, so highly venerate the Gothic and Anglo-Saxon tribes an early christian missionary, and bably a Lombard by birth, for h gend has been found connected w history of Lombardy. He was opp by a heathen named Tatian, and into a well; but he rose again wrought many miracles. It is n likely that this Saint George v England, and left behind him th pularity of character, which we since transferred to the army-contr of Alexandria, the Cappadocian Ge In this ballad he is called *mare merry count George*, which agrees wi chivalrous character ascribed to this We should have been glad to se date of a mission ascertained, whic left such profound traces of effic our vernacular literature. He can ly have flourished before Beda whose works demanded the perusa historian of the Anglo-Saxons), as would not have failed to notice the ecclesiastical history. Mr. G recommended a magnificent editi the early writers on English affair wished it to be entrusted to Mr. P ton. Might it not be undertake voluntary committee of the learn

Digitized by Google

our antiquities, and the requisite expence defrayed by subscription? Mr. Turner could give to it, and derive from it, valuable assistance.

On no period of the Anglo-Saxon history has Mr. Turner thrown so much new light as on the reigns of Ethelred, of Edmund Ironside, and of Canute. We shall extract a part of the narration of this period.

"An important struggle ensued between Edmund and Canute for the possession of London. It was long besieged in vain, sometimes by a part of Canute's forces, sometimes by all. London was at this time defended on the south, by a wall which extended along the river. The ships of Canute, from Greenwich, proceeded to London. The Danes built a strong military work on the south bank of the river, and drew up their ships on the west of the bridge, so as to cut off all access to the city. Edmund vigorously defended it awhile in person, and when his presence was required elsewhere, the brave citizens made it impregnable.

"During the siege, Edmund fought two battles in the country: one at Pen in Dorsetshire; the other, the most celebrated, at Scearsten, about Midsummer.

"Edmund selected the bravest soldiers for his first line of attack, and placed the rest as auxiliary bodies; then noticing many of them individually, he appealed to their patriotism and their courage, with that fire of eloquence which rouzes man to mighty deeds. He conjured them to remember their country, their beloved families, and paternal habitations: for all these they were to fight; for all these they would conquer. To rescue or to surrender these dear objects of their attachments would be the alternative of that day's struggle. His representations warmed. A country overrun, the massacres of ferocious victory, and plunder every where triumphant, were anticipations which excited the Anglo-Saxons to every martial daring. In the height of their enthusiasm he bade the trumpets to sound, and the charge of battle to begin. Eagerly his brave countrymen rushed against their invaders, and were nobly led by their heroic king. He quitted his royal station to mingle in the first ranks of the fight; and yet while his sword strewed the plain with slaughter, his vigorous mind watched eagerly every movement of the field. He struggled to blend the duty of commander and the gallant bearing of a soldier. Edric the Infamous, and two other generals, with the men of Wilts and Somerset, aided Canute. On Monday, the first day of the conflict, both armies fought with unprevailing courage, and mutual fatigue compelled them to separate.

"In the morning the awful struggle was renewed. In the midst of the conflict Edmund forced his way to Canute, and struck at him vehemently with his sword. The shield of the Dane saved him from the blow, but it was given with such strength that it divided the shield, and cut the neck of the horse below it. A crowd of Danes then rushed upon Edmund, and after he had slain many he was obliged to retire. Canute was but slightly wounded.

"While the king was thus engaged, Edric the Infamous struck off the head of one Osmear, whose countenance resembled the king's, and raising it on high, exclaimed to the Anglo-Saxons that they fought to no purpose. 'Fly, ye men of Dorset and Devon! Fly, and save yourselves. Here is your Edmund's head.'

"The astonished English gazed in terror. The king was not then visible, for he was piercing the Danish centre. Edric was believed, and panic began to spread its withering poison through every rank. At this juncture Edmund appeared receding before the pressure of the Danes, who had rescued Canute. He saw the malice, and sent his spear as his avenger. Edric shunned the point, and it pierced two men near him.

"But his presence was now unavailing. In vain he threw off his helmet, and gaining an eminence exposed his disarmed head to undeceive his warriors. The fatal spirit had gone forth, and before its alarms could be counteracted, the army was in flight. All the bravery and skill of Edmund could only sustain the combat till night interposed.

"The difficulty of the battle disinclined Canute from renewing it. He left the contested field at midnight, and marched afterwards to London to his shipping. The morn revealed his retreat to Edmund. The perfidious Edric, discerning the abilities of the king, made use of his relationship and early connection (he had married Edmund's sister, and had been his foster father) to obtain a reconciliation. In an ill-omened hour Edmund consented to receive him on his oath of fidelity.

"Edmund followed Canute to London, and raised the siege of the city. A conflict soon followed between the rivals at Brentford. Both parties claim the victory. As Canute immediately afterwards beleaguered London again, the laurel seems to have been obtained by him. Baffled by the defence, he avenged himself on Mercia, whose towns, as usual, were committed to the flames, and he withdrew up the Medway. Edmund again urged the patriotic battle at Otford in Kent, and drove him to Shepey. A vigorous pursuit might have destroyed all Canute's hopes; but the perfidious counsels of Edric preserved the defeated invader.

"When Edmund withdrew to Wessex, Canute passed into Essex, and thence advancing, plundered Mercia without mercy. Edmund, earnest for a decisive effort, again assembled all the strength of England, and pursued the Dane, who was retiring to his ships with his plunder. At Assandun, in

Digitized by Google

the north part of Essex, the armies met. Edmund arranged his countrymen into three divisions, and riding round every rank, he rouzed them by his impressive exhortations to remember their own valour and their former victories. He intreated them to protect the kingdom from Danish avarice, and to punish, by a new defeat, the enemies they had already conquered. Canute brought his troops gradually into the field. Edmund made a general and impetuous attack. His vigour and skill again brought victory to his arms. The star of Canute was clouded, when Edric, his secret ally, deserting Edmund in the very hour of success, fled from the field with the men of Radnor, and all the battalions he commanded. The charge of Canute on the exposed and inferior Anglo-Saxons was then decisive. The valour of Edmund was forgotten. Flight and destruction overspread the plain. A few, jealous of their glory, and anxious to give a rallying point to the rest, fought desperately amid surrounding enemies, and were all cut off but one man. In this dismal conflict almost all the valued nobility of England perished. Ulsketyl, the noble duke, who had alone taught Svein the force of English valour, was among the victims of Edric's treachery.

"The betrayed Edmund disdained the death of despair, and attempted new efforts to rescue his afflicted country. He retired to Gloucester; and such was his activity and eloquence, that a fresh army was around him before Canute overtook him.

"It was then that the greatness of Edmund's soul appeared. He could not endure that the blood of his best subjects should be so lavished for his personal profit, and he challenged Canute to decide their quarrel of ambition by a single combat. He intimated the glory which the conqueror would gain, whose dignity would be the purchase of his own peril and merit.

"Canute accepted the proposal. The isle of Olney was the place of meeting, around which the two armies assembled. The kings received each other's spears upon their shields. Their swords were brandished, and the combat became close. Long the weapons sounded upon their helms and armour. Their dexterity was equal; their spirits emulous. At last the strength of Canute began to fail before the impetuosity of Edmund. He felt his powers fast ebbing, and in an interval of the combat, he exclaimed to the Anglo-Saxon, "Bravest of youths, why should our ambition covet each other's life! Let us be brothers, and share the kingdom for which we contend.' Edmund, with generous prudence, agreed to the new idea; the duel ceased, and England was divided between them. Canute was to reign in the north, and Edmund in the south. The rival princes exchanged arms and garments; the money for the fleet was agreed upon, and the armies separated.

"The brave Edmund did not long survive the pacification. He perished the year. The circumstances attending h assassination are variously given. Malm mentions that two of his chamberlains seduced by Edric to wound him at a private moment with an iron hook, b states this to be only rumour. The violent death, and its author, are le servedly avowed by others. The Kny Saga and Saxo carry up the crime as as Canute. They expresly state that was corrupted by Canute to assassinat mund."

We take the more pleasure in mulgating this interesting fragmen it forms one of the best fables for tional epic poem, which our heroic present. The frank, the daring, generous virtues of Edmund Iron the nationality and importance cause, fit him for a favourite hero. triumph of Canute, by treachery assassination, is a melancholy but u useless lesson. In proportion as a is barbarous, and as the moral ta imperfectly evolved, the probabili success by foul means is increased. bitterer satire can be written on a p than that its men of guilt were it of sway. Public opinion can with its countenance from the mightiest if resolutely bent on the success o tue, principle, duty, justice, hum and generosity, can baffle the fo armies, and the more dangerous s tions of opulent bribery. The secret of the surprising influence Danish party in England, mu sought in the prevalence of heathe The Anglo-Saxon kings associated cause with that of a church, whi overbearing insolence of a Dunsta deservedly rendered odious. Th nish intruders were favoured by t converted portion of the nobles a the people. The barbarous divini the Edda fought for the adheren Canute; and the saints of christ for the loyal followers of Edmund side.

Mr. Turner may find warmer gyrists of his exertions, but not si valuers of his labours than our They have added much, they ma yet more to our knowledge of a of British history, which display heroic virtues and vices, and fo that taste for maritime enterprise s spicuous in every subsequent ag so conducive to our present pros We recommend that, in a future e a distinct chapter, or book, be a

Digitized by Google

to the history of Anglo-Saxon literature. Every writer in that dialect should be enumerated, the biographical notices concerning him collected, the works, whether printed or manuscript, appreciated, and their lurking places indicated. To the religion, the legislation, the manners and sports even, distinct disquisitions should be appropriated. It becomes us to light up many a taper before the shrines of our forefathers.

ART. II. *A Vindication of the Celts from ancient Authorities: with Observations on Mr. Pinkerton's Hypothesis concerning the Origin of the European Nations, in his Modern Geography, and Dissertation on the Scythians or Goths.* 8vo. pp. 180.

THIS author begins by stating, that he considers it as a duty to combat the system of Mr. Pinkerton, because its principles reject the authority of the holy scriptures. This is announcing beforehand that we are not to expect truth; but the perversion of testimony to the support of preconceived opinions. What have Mr. Pinkerton's antiquarian notions to do with the authority of scripture; or his religious opinions with the probability of his antiquarian system? This author, who writes in the plural number, as if he spoke the sentiments of a bench of bishops, says:

"We shall confine ourselves to a few grand points, which form the fundamental parts of his system.

"1. His chronology; 2. The boundaries and extent of ancient Scythia, and the identity between the Scythians and Goths; 3. Whether the Celts were confined to the furthest west of Gaul 500 years A. C.; 4. The early progress of the Goths in Europe; particularly in Thrace, Greece, Italy, and Gaul; 5. Their settlements in Germany, or an examination of the proofs that the ancient Germans were Scythæ, and that the Belgæ of Gaul were Germans; 6. The progress of the Goths, or Picts, in Scandinavia."

On the first topic the author thus continues:

"He begins his chronology with the fables of Egyptian history, and lays it down as a certainty, that Menes, king of Egypt, reigned about 4000 years before Christ, or nearly coeval with our æra of the creation.

"He then establishes a vast Scythian empire in Asia, extending from Egypt to the Ganges, and from the Caspian to the Persian gulf and Indian sea, 3660 years before Christ, or only 344 years after the creation. Of this empire, not the smallest mention is made by Herodotus, or any of the early writers; but it is barely hinted at in two passages of Justin (one of which is obscure and vitiated), in his abridgement of the History of Trogus Pompeius, who lived in the time of Augustus.

"In one of these passages, Justin, after speaking of Ninus, king of the Assyrians, says, 'that he first made war against the neighbouring people, who were incapable of resistance, and subdued them as far as the confines of Libya. But in more ancient times lived Vexoris, king of Egypt, and Tanaus, king of Scythia; the first of whom made irruptions as far as Pontus, and the other into Egypt; but they waged distant wars, and not near their own frontiers, were content with victory, and abstained from empire. Ninus confirmed the magnitude of his power by permanent possession. Having conquered the neighbouring people, he passed to others with this accession of force; each conquest became the instrument of a subsequent conquest, and he thus subjugated the whole east. The last war was with Zoroaster, king of the Bactriani, who is first said to have invented magic arts, to have discovered the origin of the world, and the motions of the stars. Zoroaster being killed, Ninus also died, leaving his infant son Ninias, and his wife Semiramis, &c.

"In the second book, Justin, after describing the origin and conquests of the Scythæ, adds, 'After continuing fifteen years for the purpose of pacifying Asia, they returned at the solicitation of their wives, who declared, that unless they returned, they would obtain progeny from their neighbours, and would not suffer the Scythian name to be extinct. To these people, therefore, Asia was tributary 1500 years. Ninus, king of Assyria, put an end to the tribute.' Without the least hesitation in regard to the authenticity of this last passage, which is proved to be corrupted, Mr. P. computes the origin of the Scythian empire 1500 years before Ninus, believes the history of Ninus to be authentic, and fixes the æra of his reign about 2160 years before Christ, whereas the history of Ninus is generally reported to be fabulous, or is placed at a much later period.

"Mr. Pinkerton attempts to support this slight testimony by the authority of Eusebius, Epiphanius, and the Chronicon Paschale, who all say nothing on the existence of this great and early Scythian empire. Two of these writers, according to Mr. Pinkerton himself, only divide religious errors into four periods, Barbarism before the flood; after the flood Scythism, Hellenism, and Judaism; Epiphanius attributes the building of the tower of Babel, among others, to the Scythians, and Eusebius puts the Scythians as the immediate descendants of Noah, down to Serug, his fourth descendant, a period of 400 years.

Digitized by Google

"Thus Mr. Pinkerton is compelled to acknowledge the event of the deluge in support of his system, though he had before denied it: and after all, his system rests on the vague authority of Justin, who lived at least 3800 years after the event, according to Mr. P.'s own chronology, even supposing that there was no proof of the passage being corrupted."

Feeble as this argumentation may appear, it is a very sufficient refutation of Mr. Pinkerton's wild and baseless hypothesis, of a primæval Scythic empire. The oldest historians are the best authorities for the oldest events; and they know nothing of this Scythic empire. These oldest historians are the Jewish writers, and Herodotus; by a diligent and critical comparison of whom, all that can be known of very ancient history must be inferred. Certain theologians have rendered it probable, that the Pentateuch was reduced to its present form in the family of Hilkiah, and was probably completed by Jeremiah at the time of his return to Jerusalem, under Cyrus, with the new name or title of Sheshbazzar. The accounts of the creation, of the deluge, and of the building of the tower of Babel, appear to be Babylonian documents, first obtained during the captivity. But the history of Abraham seems to be an original account, cotemporary with that patriarch, which had been preserved by his descendants in the land of Goshen, and brought from Egypt by Moses. Many documents cotemporary with Moses appear to be transcribed with entire fidelity; especially those inserted in the book of Numbers. In the Exodus, there are symptoms of epic embellishment; and there are directions for the priesthood, which cannot have originated in the wilderness; but imply a long established worship, and a curious progress in the arts of manufacture. In the Leviticus again, there is a great deal of legislation, which must have been subsequent to the conquest of Canaan. These circumstances do not invalidate, they corroborate, the historical importance of the Jewish scriptures; and encourage the antiquary to lean on them with confidence, as satisfactory testimonies of fact. The earliest sketch of the distribution of the primæval nations is that contained in the tenth chapter of Genesis. It is geography in the form of genealogy; as Bochart, Schloetzer, and Michaelis have evinced: as if we were to say: London is the son of Middlesex, the son of England; or, as Ferishta does say: Dekkan is the son of Hind, the son of Asia; meaning that Dekkan is a subdivision of Hindostan, which is a subdivision of Asia. Now this tenth chapter of Genesis contains no traces of the Scythic empire in question; although it enumerates all the nations or tribes eventually comprehended under the sway of Cyrus, and Darius Hystaspis. The first state of all nations is anarchic. Each family submits to its own patriarch. It requires conquest to consolidate scattered villages under a common commander. Now Herodotus pointedly states Dejoces to have first combined the Medes; as the writer in Genesis states Nimrod to have first combined Babylon and the contiguous villages in Shinar. These petty exploits could not be still to perform, if there had already been an empire in that district. Among savages in the human state every family has its separate language: the consociation of tribes for plunder or defence renders many words common to a whole district: at length a common sovereign and metropolis popularizes a common dialect. These nations are expressly stated to have differed widely in language from each other, and therefore to be separate. Of course they had never yet submitted to a common sway. Languages are confluent, not diffluent: the doctrine of an original language is opposed by the observations of all who have travelled among the savage nations, and is contradicted by the universal analogy of experience. Indeed, Mr. Pinkerton's Scythian empire must be banished, with Baillie's astronomical Siberians, among the reveries of irrational philosophy.

The second section investigates the meaning of the term Scythian. The word is very likely contracted from East-Goth: but it was certainly used by the ancients in the same indefinite manner as the Chinese use the word Tartar, or as we use the word *Indian*. We talk of Indians in Canada, of Indians in Peru, of West Indians in Jamaica. Thus Scythia is applied by the ancients to the whole *terra incognita* behind the Alps, the Carpathian mountains, the Euxine, Caucasus, and the Caspian. Scythians, according to Herodotus, are defeated by the king of Egypt in Palestine; Scythians are chased by Darius from the banks of the Dnieper: but who shall vouch for their being allied in language

Digitized by Google

Within the Scythia of the antients may be traced each of the radical dialects of northern Europe. (1) Gaelic; for a tribe of Galatai, the Galatians of Saint Paul, came thence and settled in Asia minor: (2) Welsh, for the Kimmerioi, or Cimbri, once gave their name to a peninsula of the Euxine: (3) Gothic; for the Massagetai, Mæsogoths, Visigoths, or West Goths, dwelt on the Araxes in the time of Cyrus, and made war against him: (4) Slavonic; for the language of the Medes was Slavonic, as Forster proves to Michaelis, and the * Sauremadi, North Medes, or Sarmatic tribes, are placed by antient authors in Scythia. Scythian is plainly a vague name, which often includes Getæ, or Goths, oftener perhaps than any other of the four principal nations, or stem-tribes of the north.

The third section attempts to prove that the Celts were not driven to the farthest limits of Gaul 500 years before Christ. What does this author mean by Celts? According to Pelloutier, and the old antiquaries, all the northern nations of Europe were Celts: as well those who spoke the Gaelic, as those who spoke the Welsh, and those who spoke the Gothic tongues. Percy, in his Northern Antiquities, separated Pelloutier's Celts into Celts and Goths; including the Gaelic and Welsh tribes under the former denomination. Schloetzer, with more precision, separated Percy's Celts into Gales and Kymri, and strictly follows up the advice of Leibnitz, to class savage nations by their languages, which alter more slowly than their dwelling-places. Of France and England we know nothing satisfactory before Julius Cæsar; but it is evident that, in his time, the Gaelic tribes (who are the only proper Celts) were compressed into the westmost corners of Europe; and as the Belgæ (who are probably a Kymric, or Welsh, tribe) already dwelt contiguously to them, and were hitching westward, to make room for the Goths; it is not unlikely that this distribution had endured three or four hundred years, which is all that Mr. Pinkerton's hypothesis requires. As Mr. Pinkerton maintains that the Belgæ were Goths, he naturally somewhat antedates the westward progress of the Goths; for the Belgæ who dwelt westward of the Germans must have preceded them in the progress from mount Ararat to capes Finistere and the Land's End.

This author says (p. 40) "there were only *four* races of people in Europe known to the antients; these were (1) the Celts; (2) the Iberi; (3) the Sarmatæ; and (4) the Scythians or Goths."

Here is a mis-arrangement: the Sarmatæ, or Northern Medes, being a Slavonian race, dwelt eastward of the Goths, and consequently forsook Asia at a later period; they should occur last.

Here is also a defect of enumeration. The Celts should be subdivided into Gaelic and Cimbric. The Iberi are stated to have settled in the north of Spain. If, therefore, they are not comprehended in either the Gaelic or Cimbric tribes, they must be the progenitors of the people of Aquitain, who use the Biscayan or Basque language. This language is wholly distinct from the Erse or Gaelic, and from the Welsh or Cimbric. The Iberi might then form a *fifth* distinct race, well known to the antients, and specifically described by Cæsar. It is probable that they entered Spain from Africa, are no other than the Bastuli, and are the remnants of a Carthaginian, a Tyrian, a *Hebrew* tribe: they are denominated accordingly.

The fourth section discusses the identity of the Thracians, Illyrians, Greeks, and Italians, with the Scytho-Goths. No part of Mr. Pinkerton's hypothesis is more wild and untenable than the descent of the Greeks from a Gothick stock. Except the word *pur* fire, which Plato notices as barbaric, there is scarcely a Gothic word in the whole Greek language. The main body of Greek and Latin progenitors evidently migrated eastward from the original centre of population; for, in the Shanskreet language, the numerals and many other words agree with those of the Greeks and Latins. The Latin is Greek combined with a Gaelic basis; so that the primeval savages of Italy, who occupied the interior prior to the intrusion of the Greek colonists, must have been Galatai. That Goths, while in their pastoral state, wandered through Thrace, cannot be doubted; that Ovid learnt there a Gothic dialect, and wrote the first Dutch verses, is probable: but no wandering tribes should be denominated

* *Saure* is a Slavonian word for *north*: in Lithuania, *Shaure*.

Digitized by Google

from their transient place of residence. The waves of population have been successively flowing westward through the middle zone of Europe; and the same nations which are first heard of in the Euxine are finally met with along the Channel. Throughout this section of the inquiry, our author has evidently the advantage of Mr. Pinkerton.

In the fifth section, on the contrary, which examines whether the Germans are Scytho-Goths, Mr. Pinkerton has the advantage over our author. This subject is continued in the sixth section, which includes an inquiry whether the Belgæ were Goths: this topic is not exhausted; but Mr. Pinkerton's opinion is sensibly enfeebled. The same investigation is pursued in the seventh section.

Whether the Picts, Piks, or Peucini, who first peopled Scotland, were a Gothic nation, is one of the most curious questions started by Mr. Pinkerton. We apprehend that he has established their Gothic origin, in contradiction to the received notion. The passage from Beda proves, that the Gaelic population of the Highlands came from Ireland after the christian æra. The Caledonians of Agricola were therefore Goths. And as the present provincial dialect of these Piks and Caledonians, in fact, extends southward at least to the Humber; it is highly probable that this is the first Gothic population which entered Britain. Our present language cannot be a corruption of the Anglo-Saxon, or Danish: the whole system of construction and inflection is different. Of the extant continental dialects, the Low-dutch most resembles our own. This, if the Belgæ were Goths, they no doubt imported; but it is on the whole more probable that the Belgæ, as Schlœtzer maintains, were Kymri; because they were subject to the druidical or bardish discipline; because their language was with difficulty learnt by the Goth or German Ariovistus, or Ehrenvest; and because their name Belgish has been modified into the word Welsh. The Caledonians therefore seem to be the proper ancestors of the British nation, to have founded the main body of interior population, and to have furnished the basis of the language established by our worship and our literature.

The subsequent sections relate to topics less connected: it will be the easier to detach an independent passage: our author seems most at home where W antiquities are in question.

"We shall divide our animadversio this point into two heads; the first, re to the two distinct races of Celts, w differing from each other in languag customs; and the second, relative t Belgic population, which he calls Ger

"1st, The Celts.

"This principle, that the Celts we vided into two distinct races, was fi vanced in the dissertation, to accou the striking traces of the Celtic people, Mr. P. could not avoid discovering i ous parts of Europe, even long after h pent up the old Celts in the furthest w Gaul, in the same manner as he after made a distinction between the Celti German Gauls, to extricate himself fro other dilemma.

"He conjectures that these peopl separated into two divisions, the sou or western Celts, or Celts proper, wh places in Gaul; and the Cimbri, Cym Northern Celts, 'the apparent offspri the Celts proper, who, spreading in other region, had assumed a new ap tion.' (Diss. p. 49.)

"He supports this conjecture by posing, first, that the latter Celtic i tions were made from the west into many, and the north; and secondly the Gwyddelian language, or that of th race of Celts, of which traces are stil served in local names in England and W was almost wholly different from the m Cymraeg, or Welsh, and can alone b plained in the Irish, or Gwyddelian.

"The only proof of the first suppo he grounds on the authorities of Posid Strabo, and Plutarch, who, he says, that the Cimbri, or Cimmerii, came the German ocean to the Euxine; and he concludes that they originated fro north-west, from the constant burth his song, that the Celts were confin the furthest north-west. (Diss. p. 48.

"The two first of these authorities ar to a mere conjecture of Posidonius, Strabo does not confirm, but only c not an inept supposition; and as to tarch, he acknowledges the extreme u tainty concerning the origin of the C and among several conjectures, state they were supposed to have come fro Northern ocean. But his authority, proves any thing, proves the great n and power of the Celtæ at that period.

"The argument, in regard to the dissimilarity of the Celtic dialects, n the Southern Celtic, or Gwyddelian the Cymraeg, or Welsh, is founded respectable, but in this instance, fall authority of Llwyd, the Welsh anti who supports it by no historical docu

"According to his opinion, the Ir Gwyddelians, were the original inha

Digitized by Google

of England (Lloegyr), and Wales (Cymru), until they were expelled by the second race of Celts (or Cymry), and driven into Ireland. In favour of this assertion, he says, that many local names, even in Wales, and South Britain, are Gwddelian, and not to be interpreted by the Cymraeg, or Welsh.

"Many persons, wholly unacquainted with the Celtic dialects, have adopted this opinion, broached by a native of Wales, in its full latitude; and some, in support of a system, have even urged that there are but few terms, common in the two languages.

"However disagreeable it may be to derogate from the credit of a respectable antiquary, it is a duty we owe to truth, to prove that the system of Llwyd is essentially wrong. 1st, He instances the names Wysg, Llwch, Conwy, Ban, Trum, Llechlwyd, as only to be explained in the Irish language; an unfortunate selection! But each of these words is common in the Welsh, nay, more common, and of more various acceptations than in the Irish.

"With respect to Wysg, its abstract, or general import, is preserved in Welsh, whereas it appears in the Irish only as the term for water; but in Welsh, it is used as a noun, implying a tendency downwards, or to a level, as a stream or current: as,

"Od oes prydydd wydd di wysg,
O Gymro hen digamrwysg,
Atebed vi
John of Kent.

"If there is a poet, possessed of knowledge without bias,
An old Welshman free from perverseness,
Let him answer me.

"Llwch is equally common in Welch as in Irish. It is one of those generic words preserved in most languages, and proves nothing; it is the English lake, the French lac, the Italian lago, and the Latin lacus. In Welsh, it strictly means an inlet, which, compounded with another word, becomes Llych; Llyn, also, in Welsh, is a term for a collection of water, or lake. These two words joined together, make the Welsh name for the Baltic sea, Llychlyn, that is, the Inlet lake.

"The compound Conwy is changed by Llwyd into Cynwy. In either case the component parts of the word are more common in the Welsh than in the Irish. It is formed of Con, what bolts straight forward, or runs to a point, and Gwy, in composition Wy. The first of these is not in the Irish; but Gwy, a stream, is common in both languages. To make Irish of Con, Llwyd turns it to Cyn, because Cean, as written in that tongue, implies a head: and so it does in Welsh: besides, it has various other acceptations, unknown in Irish, and it is the root of a great multitude of words. The primary acceptations of Cyn, in Welsh, are, substantively, the first, or foremost part; adjectively, first, chief, or foremost; prepositively, before; adverbially, ere, sooner than; also a prefix of general use in compositions.

"The next word is Ban. It is singular that Llwyd should have forgot that it was Welsh; for it was one of the most common words, and of general acceptation. It implies a prominence, a height, what is conspicuous, and is the name of several mountains; ban hydd, the antler of a stag; ban pennill, the head, or division of a stanza; ban cowydd, the distich of a poem. It is also an adjective, conspicuous, high, lofty, as, illas ban, a loud voice. It is the root of a numerous family of words.

"The word Trum, a back, or ridge, is common in the Welsh and the Irish. Trum y mynydd, ridge of the mountain; trum y ty, roof of the house; trum grwn, the elevated part of a ridge of ploughed land; rhych a thrum, furrow and ridge. It is also the root of many derivatives.

"The last example is Llechlwyd, a compound word, literally implying a grey flag; a term equally familiar in Welsh, with grey flag in English.

"Such are the words brought forward by Llwyd as not Welsh. But this singular perversion is the less surprising, as Llwyd, though a man of considerable learning, was of a warm and visionary temper, and a great builder of systems.

"In regard to the second point, that there is little similarity between the Irish and Welsh, we have reason to assert, that out of 25,000 words in the Irish dictionary, 8,000 are decidedly common words in Welsh. Most of the general prefixes and terminations of the different classes of words, which the Irish have, are also used in Welsh, besides various affinities of idioms and construction."

This book tends more to affect Mr. Pinkerton's reputation for fairness of citation than for sagacity of inference, and to make him pass for a dashing, but not for an injudicious, antiquary. It throws little new light on any of the topics agitated; it withholds much old light, groping in mist and stumbling at difficulties, which were long ago removed by Schloetzer, whose Northern History appeared in 1771.

ART. III. *Sketch of the early History of the Cymry, or Ancient Britons, from the Year 700, before Christ, to A. D. 500. By the Rev.* P. ROBERTS, *A. M.* 8vo. pp. 176.

TO Mr. O. Jones, by whose patriotic liberality the publication of so many ancient records of the Welsh has lately been effected, not only the British but

the European public are indebted.—These documents throw light on that interval of Cimbric or Armorican independence, during which all that is most peculiar in the character of modern Europe seems to have been hatched, as in its nest. The observations of Gibbon (vol. iii. page 275) by no means exhaust the philosophy of a period, too little contemplated both by French and English antiquaries.

The author of the sketch before us has consecrated his talents and learning, which are considerable, to the illustration of this obscure but important corner of the earth; and has endeavoured to separate, from the confused mass of Welsh traditions, a probable account of the filiation of British sovereigns, and of the migration of the early settlers. The first remarkable disquisition of the text respects the Gafis of Taliesin. We shall report Mr. Roberts's opinion:

"However idle the Trojan part of this history, (the history of Brutus and his colony) and however ill-connected with the rest of the very history in which it is found, its advocates were thus far justified, that it was to be found in the Welsh history, from whence Geoffrey of Monmouth composed his; and that such a Welsh history still subsists. As the error of the history appears to have originated partly in ignorance, and partly in a mistake, respecting the person called Brutus by the historian, we may safely set aside this part of the narrative, which has so long been an embarrassing difficulty to those who have endeavoured to investigate the real history of the Britons, and proceed to state their history, as deducible from the documents before us.

"According to these the colony of the Cymry, or Britons, which first took possession of this island, came originally from Asia. In a poem of Taliesin, which is called *the appeasing of Lludd*, the following very singular passage occurs:

"Llwyth lliaws, anuaws ei henwerys,
Dygoresgynan Prydain, prif fan ynys,
Gwyr gwlad yr Asia, a gwlad Gafis;
Pobl pwyllad enwir, eu tir ni wys,
Pamen gorwyreis herwydd Maris;
Amlaes ei peisiau, pwy ei hefelys?
A phwyllad dyfyner, ober efnis
Europa.

A numerous race, fierce they are said to have been,
Were thy original colonists, Britain, first of isles,
"Natives of a country in Asia, and
country of Gafis;
Said to have been a skilful people, bu
district is unknown
Which was mother to these children,
like* adventurers on the sea,
Clad in their long dress, who could
them?
Their skill is celebrated, they were the
of Europe.

"In these few lines the poet has the peculiarities of national characte dress, and the origin of the nation, as he was able to trace it. The character nation, as warlike† adventurers on th in the spirit of the times, however opi to the mode, may since have varied, Briton will with pleasure find to hav considered by the poet as marking a superiority inherited by Britain; and that of the present times, that it nev more justly or more gloriously asserte

"As to the particular part of Asi which the first colony came to Brita poet candidly acknowledges that he able to point it out exactly; though deavours to do so in some degree by th Gafis.

"A city, whose name nearly resembl was once the capital of a province in a the present Usbeck Tartary. Gabis pital of Gabaza; but this is too far East of the route of the Cimmerians t of the supposition of its being the pl tended by the poet, further than as i ing some place bordering on the Casp Perhaps the name is to be found in capes, the modern Kaffa; as this w Cimmerian origin, should be written Capes, or *the declivity or valley of the* This seems the more probable from t larity it has to the modern name, and more so, if it appear, that this was th try from which they came.

"Concurring with Taliesin, the Tri the following information:

'The first of the three chieftains tablished the colony of Britain, was *mighty*, who came with the original They came from the Summer Country is called Deffrobani, that is where C blys (Constantinople) is at present.'

'They came in search of a settle be obtained not by war or contest, b and peaceably.' Triad 5.

"There can be no doubt but that meant by the words Summer Coun that Deffrobani was added to mark t cular district. The exposition of th is less certain. As an exposition have been added to the original Triad the first reference was in danger of b intelligible,) according to the traditio

* In these early ages adventures of this kind were not deemed dishonourable.
† Strabo says, that the Cimmerians, when expelled from the Chersonese, becam rovers.

Digitized by Google

age of the writer;—which as an exposition is of use, as it gives a distinct circumstance in the history, and one that is of importance."

Both in the middle and early ages, the Roman ideas probably prevailed at the extremities of their empire. The eastern and the western world, separated from each other by the Euphrates, or the coast of Syria, and distinguished by the names of Asia and Europe, constituted the prominent, popular subdivisions of the earth. Whatever was not Europe was Asia, in the notion of the vulgar geographer; hence Phœnicians, with their long dresses, whether they came from Tyre, from Alexandria, from Carthage, or from Cadiz, would equally be described by a Welsh bard, as coming from Asia; that was the *terra incognita*, of which he had learnt the collective name. In the time of Taliesin, Tyre and Carthage were no more. Had the people he describes come from either of these cities, according to the records preserved, it is probable that he would substitute some extant, real and familiar name, to a name which he would suppose fictitious, because extinct; it would not shock him to place a sea-port in Bohemia, or Tyre in Tirol; but he would take the most analogous and resembling known name, instead of the obscure name of his older authority; in short, he would change Carthage into Cadiz, and place this Gafis in Asia. There are but two great cities, by the destruction of which the Phœnicians can have been driven to settle in Britain: Tyre and Carthage. It is more probable, that the latter should have given origin to the colony, of which so many consistent records conspire to prove the migration, than the former; both because the Tyrians are well known to have distributed themselves chiefly among the Mediterranean sea-ports, and because Britain was ill-known at the time of the prosperity of Tyre. But, before the destruction of Carthage, it was already frequented by ships from the Mediterranean; nor was the distance from Cornwall to the straits, such as to alarm a colony of merchants. This is further corroborated by the geography of the Triads, where we are told that the original settlers came from a summer country, called Deffrobani, which is evidently a corruption of Africani, an assertion that they were Africans; Africans from the Mediterranean, where Constantinople is at present.

The following observations on the language of the Iceni do not appear to us convincing:

"Cunobeline, the next in succession, married Areddawg Foeddawg, daughter of the traitor Afarwy, the too well known Cartismandua of Tacitus. Attached to the Roman interests, he appears to have favoured their views, and to have imitated them. To this connection with the Romans he perhaps owed his knowledge of coining money; and to him the only coin that has a name properly Welsh, owes its appellation; that is the *Ceiniog* or Denarius; which, there is no great risque in saying, was originally called *Cunog*, and softened afterwards into Ceiniog. It is at least the only probable etymology of the name I can find. The word *Tascio*, on the reverse of his coins, seems to be Gælic, or the dialect of the Logrians, and to signify the *Mint* or *Treasury*, as in the Irish the word Taisgish signifies *hoarding*, and Taisgiodan *a store house of arms*, &c. *Armarium*. Lhuyd. As Cunobeline was king of the Iceni, the inference is certainly that their language was the Gælic."

Why may it not be suspected, that the word Iceni is of the Gothic origin, signifying *oak-men*; either in the sense *hearts of oak*, or *dwellers among oaks?* The word *Coning*, or king, and the word *Tascio*, purse or scrip, are as explicable in Gothic as in Welsh; nor is the name Cunobelin unlike *Kuhn-bald*, soon-bold. There are so few traces on the *Saxon shore*, or eastern coast of any British or Celtic population, that strong proofs must be exacted from the antiquary, who would have us believe that Welsh was ever spoken there.

A very interesting illustration of St. Paul's second Epistle to Timothy occurs: it appears that the Claudia of scripture was a relation of Caractacus.

"When this hero went to battle, says the Triad, 'none would stay at home. They followed him freely, and maintained themselves at their own expence. Unsolicited and unsoliciting they crowded to his standard.' Triad 79. Such was the admiration of the character, on which adversity in the extreme could alone throw greater lustre.

"Disastrous as the fate of Caractacus was to Britain at the time, HE whose providence brings good out of evil, made his family, even in their captivity, a blessing to their country. His family, captives in Rome, there learned the great truths newly revealed to mankind; and Bran his father returning to Britain, after seven years captivity, as an hostage for his son, first published them here, Triad 85. A convert to the gospel, he became a reformer of the manners of his countrymen; his name with the epithet *blessed* annexed, is

therefore joined with those of Prydain, and Dyfnwal Moelmud, as one of the three who healed the disorders of the kingdom; Triad 36. Of the descendants of Caractacus none returned, Triad 61. It is therefore to be presumed, that Claudia Rufina was of it, to whose beauty Martial has paid so handsome a compliment, in the well known epigram of which this is the purport:

'If Claudia's of the woad-stained British race
Whence is that lovely form, that heavenly face?
Why does the Roman, and the Grecian dame
Dispute her birth, and urge a jealous claim?
Thus blest, ye Gods, still bless the happy pair,
And make their offspring your peculiar care;
Her love his only, mutual be their will,
And may her sons her latest wish fulfil.'

"That this Claudia was a christian is confirmed by St. Paul's second epistle to Timothy, chap. iv. ver. 21, in the salutation from Pudens, Linus, and Claudia; as Pudens was the husband of Claudia, and Linus most probably their son. The assertion that Bran was a christian is therefore countenanced, not only by this circumstance, but by the unceasing and lively exertions of the primitive christians in the relief, consolation, and instruction of all who were in affliction, as he must have been, where he was a captive and a stranger."

An attempt, but not a very successful one, is made to illustrate the history of Ambrosius, or Merlin. The reign of Arthur is on every account highly generally curious; but until the publ tion of all the romances concerning shall be completed, (and there are doubt several in Welsh) it will be im sible to appreciate the antiquity, consequently the probability of the d rent and often discordant traditions.

Some observations also occur on nineteenth triad, in which it is said, the three blessed guests of Britain (means the missionaries who first verted the British) were Dewi, Pad and Teilo. Here is obvious mentio David, the favourite saint of the W and of Patrick, the favourite saint o Irish; but who is Teilo? Is this th Olave, of whose ancient popularit many churches and streets bear wit St. Tooley, as the English say.

Among the Cimbric antiquarie little national vanity gleams forth, w leads them into credulous and in cious propositions; but with a few ductions for the diverting hallucinat of their provincial patriotism, they pouring into the reservoirs of anti rian science, new, important, and merous discoveries. We rejoice at e accession to the number of labou but we wish that to translate exa and to publish with integrity, every maining document, were considered business essentially prior to the di sion of their historical contents.

ART. IV. *The History of England, from the Peace of* 1783, *to the Treaty conclud Amiens in* 1802; *being a Continuation of* COOTE's *History of England. By the A of the former Part.* 8vo. pp. 446.

"COOTE's History of England, from the Dawn of Record to the Peace of 1783," has not been received by the public with a welcome proportioned to the length of toil, the neatness of redaction, and the equity of estimate displayed. It has here been continued with patient expedition, and undeviating propriety to the conclusion of the treaty at Amiens in 1802. Only this concluding volume belongs within the limits of our horizon of observation,

In a history of England, during our own times, the leading facts are of course familiar. The plan of detailing them is in some degree pre-established. There must be alternations of debates and of narrative. Parliamentary discussions and practical operations must succeed and influence each other, like the strife of gods and men in the Iliad. But as parliament is become rather an organ of public instruction, and r less a seat of national volition than merly, it ought in some degree to room for the political controversi the press, which now chiefly call what there is of independent opini the country. We could have wi therefore, to see distinct chapters c crated to the literature of the le questions in discussion; and shoul commend the annexation of regula tices of the principal topics of p attention, whether political or not. value tranquillity the less, and talents which it evolves; because torians neglect to record and appr their exertion. The art of amusin peace of the civilised, is one of th of preserving it. From the i feasts of the Æthiopians, Jupiter re

Digitized by Google

to meddle in the wars of men; but had he found there Juno girded with the cestus, Greek and Trojan might longer have been at rest.

This volume comprizes a convenient epitome of the whole Pitt administration, which may be divided into two main segments: the portion conducted in opposition to Mr. Burke, which was characterised by a compromising, accommodating cast of politics, and was liked; and the portion conducted in unison with Mr. Burke, which was characterised by an intolerant, malignant cast of politics; and was odious. We shall bestow on it a sort of perpetual commentary.

The coalition with Lord North was probably recommended to Mr. Fox by Burke, in order to destroy a popularity he envied; aware that the more vehement partizans, who preferred Fox to him, would be precisely the repelled portion of their supporters. The popular animosity felt against this coalition was a correct feeling; for it really tended to disband popular principle, to destroy personal confidence, and to render impossible to the people the attainment of any one end by confederacies of their own. Yet the conduct of the coalesced parties was patriotic, and favourable to an increase of the power of the representatives of the people. Mr. Pitt was lifted by the ebb-water of that tide of popular favour which had billowed about Mr. Fox. His first conspicuous act was to disclaim (on the 12th January, 1784) all thoughts of resigning his post, in compliance with the declared wish of the majority of the house of commons. It is, no doubt, the traditional or constitutional prerogative of the crown, to name or elect the ministers of Great-Britain. But, as the patronage of government gives to such ministers a far-felt power over the house of commons, it is highly improbable that any set of placemen should be left in a minority, who are not either incapable or odious. Incapable ministers should be removed for the public safety; odious ministers should be removed, because civility is due to the people when they err, and because a tacit complacency in the subject is essential to the efficacious execution of public measures. The house of commons have, therefore, usefully set up the doctrine, that a minister censured by them is bound in honour to resign; and this doctrine it is expedient for the people to prop them in enforcing. If the right of expulsion vested in the house of commons, the expulsion of a refractory minister, when a commoner, would be a fit mode of enforcing this propriety in political behaviour; but the Rockingham administration, in every thing a suicidal party, had set aside this right to please the friends of Mr. Wilkes. The old remedy of withholding the supplies is clearly inapplicable to a country burdened with a considerable national debt, because it is a measure far less alarming to the crown than to the stockholders. Another remedy would be to refuse passing the mutiny-bill; but this is only applicable in a state of peace. So that the house of commons has still to devise some innocent mode of enforcing its highly desirable negative on the ministerial nominations of the crown. Perhaps the civil list could conveniently be separated into its national and personal grants, and the latter voted annually.

Mr. Pitt's second conspicuous measure was his India-bill. Mr. Fox had devised one which contemplated the dissolution of the company, at the expiry of the charter; and which proposed to vest in commissioners, elected by the house of commons, the eventual patronage of India. The benefit which commercial men must have derived from the opening of the trade to India is incalculable. The possession of patronage, by the house of commons, no doubt tended to alter the leaning of the constitution, to counteract the influence of the crown, and to make parliament a seat of independent volition. Mr. Pitt's bill contemplated the prolongation of the company's monopoly; and the addition, through the board of controul, of the patronage of India to the extant influence of the crown. But it tended to make rival powers of the company and of the governmental establishment, and thus to endanger the eventual dependence of India: whereas, under Mr. Fox's bill, an adhesion to the British house of commons, must have been very strong and very lasting. Distant patronage is of little consequence as an engine of favouritism, because it banishes the person it attaches; but it is of great consequence as a motive of allegiance, because it operates at the ex-

Digitized by Google

tremities of empire: it is therefore, the sort of patronage which the prince may best resign to the state.

The commutation of the duty on tea for a duty on windows, conduced much to the suppression of smuggling, and to the increase of the revenue. It was the plan of Mr. Richardson, late accountant-general at the India-house; but it was brought forward without any mention of him. It seems expedient, however, and liberal, to name the projectors of considerable innovations at the onset, that a proper recompense may be conferred when they succeed. It is not the necessary province of a minister to project; but to select the sound and practicable projects of others.

In 1785, the commercial propositions for an unrestricted intercourse with Ireland, were brought before both parliaments. These propositions did honour to Mr Pitt: they seemed natural and obvious consequences of the maxims respecting trade, taught in Adam Smith's Wealth of Nations; but after being accepted in the British parliament, they were withdrawn in the Irish parliament, apparently out of a weak deference for the clamor of a combination of English manufacturers. It is worthy of remembrance, that during the debate on this topic, Lord North expressed his wish for a complete incorporation of the two kingdoms, rather than a partial settlement.

In 1786, a commercial treaty with France was concluded; it resulted from the same liberal spirit of commercial polity as the Irish propositions. At first it was an equitable treaty; but it was rendered an unfair bargain for France, by the subsequent and somewhat perfidious diminution of duty on the wines of Portugal, which cheated the French of their expected market for wines in Great-Britain. Unfair bargains between nations are seldom permanent: hostilities are often got up for the sake of breaking them. Unless reciprocal sales approach equality, the motive for confiscation in case of rupture is greater on the one side than on the other: and thus the party at first most benefited by the intercourse, is eventually the greatest sufferer by it on the termination. Let justice be done, and one may defy the gathering cloud.

About the same period, a highly meritorious provision was made for the progressive extinction of the national
features of the plan had been d
by Dr. Price, but were adopted wi
acknowledgment. The useful col
tion of New South Wales was u
taken with insufficient preliminar
vey. The Prussians were encou
to invade Holland, for the purp
propping the Stadtholder's tot
authority; but as no constitu
changes were enforced, he becan
the retirement of the Prussian t
weaker than before; and incurre
odium without the fruit of forei
terposition. This interference w
plauded in parliament, even by fi
of liberty, although Great-Britai
ther obtained the Cape nor any
recompense for her indemnity: bu
Pitt was now in the perihelion of h
pularity; the mildest criticism
adversary would have been mistak
envy.

In 1787, Mr. Pitt declared again
repeal of the corporation and tes
Brought up by an ecclesiastic, w
the advantage of a travelled educ
and very ignorant of continental
ture, it was not surprizing that M
should betray in the face of Eu
narrow bigotry, and want the co
to dictate liberality to a bench
shops he had nominated. In a l
tive point of view the innovatio
cited was inconsiderable. Grante
speedy decision, it would have p
ed little effect. Its importance re
from the very large proportion
people, especially of the middle
who became partizans in the cont
sy. There is scarcely a market t
the kingdom where the sectaries
not some hall of worship: in al
places an active circulation of pa
concerning toleration, was kept
their ministers and congregations.
the solicitudes of petty prom
which mightily interest the seco
classes, were aroused; the compu
began to be made in every corpo
in every excise-office, how many p
the dissenters would be able to p
and thus an extravagant degree o
was kindled, both for obtainin
withholding the repeal. As the
ries do not exceed a tenth of the
munity, it is honourable to the s
national culture, that they so nea
vided the general wish. In the ed
classes their cause had a majority.

Digitized by Google

dissenters, however, were too obstreperous: and, having become ashamed of their own urgency, they sought to engraft questions more momentous on their original object. They boldly promulgated, but in a form less philosophical, those principles respecting the establishment of religion, which Adam Smith has defended in the third article of the first chapter of the fifth book of his Wealth of Nations. Lord Bacon declares himself an episcopalian, Hume a presbyterian; but Adam Smith an independent, in his idea of church-government. At the symptoms of a league between philosophy and fanaticism, an established clergy may be allowed to tremble: a cry of the church is in danger, corroborated the decision of Mr. Pitt, and rendered the repetition of his refusal less obnoxious than its original publication. The refusal produced, however, a bad effect. The dissenters were irritated by it in a degree proportioned not to the magnitude of their object, but to the zealotry of their pursuit; and this irritation had not subsided, when the French revolution began to occasion the profuse circulation of enquiries into the principles of governments, and of disquisitions on the rights of men. By every publication which tended to attack the theory of the British constitution, and to sap the allegiance of English subjects, the dissenters, by a natural and necessary consequence of the displeasure excited in them, were more powerfully acted upon than their fellow-citizens. Hence they celebrated, with a forwarder zeal than others, the anniversaries of French liberation; and patronized, with distinguishable liberality, the foundation of popular pamphlet-clubs. In short, what was called the jacobinism of Great-Britain, that is, the confederacies of undervaluers of church and king, for nobility has no enemies in this nation, in a great degree sprang out of Mr. Pitt's discountenance of the dissenters. It is true they cooled, as the multitude heated; and the dissenting teachers gradually abandoned the propagation of opinions to the gallicizing philosophers: but among them had originated a complexion of sentiment not easily distinguished from republican. Nor was this effect confined to Great-Britain. The books concerning toleration, to which the controversy about the test-act gave rise, began indeed with exclusive claims of unmerited preference, but gradually attained a juster temper, and contended for the political equality of all religious sects. The catholics became interested in the controversy, and applied to the parliament of Ireland, for a restoration of their civil rights. The same conscientious cowardice repeated the same unfortunate refusal, and excited in Ireland an analogous, but a more vehement discontent. The horrors of the catholic persecution which ensued, have sullied the national annals, and have endangered the historical comparison of a protestant sovereign with Philip II. and of his minister with the duke of Alva. May their penitence wipe away the remembrance, though it cannot the mischief of their intolerance.

In 1788, a bill called declarative was brought in to strengthen the power of the board of controul, at the expence of the directory in Leadenhall-street. By this time the tendency of Mr. Pitt's bill to separate the company and the board into hostile authorities, would have become very apparent, but for the impeachment of Mr. Hastings, which furnished them with objects of co-operation, and kept alive their common jealousy of the framers of the rejected India bill.

About the close of the same year, the illness of the king rendered a regency-bill necessary. Mr. Pitt claimed, on behalf of the lords and commons, a right to appoint, with arbitrary limitations, the new executive power. How unconstitutional this doctrine was, soon became visible; for the two houses in Ireland appointed an unrestricted regent, and the two houses in England a limited council of regency; so that, if the king's disorder had continued, the two countries would have been virtually separated by law. This doctrine of Mr. Pitt's was consistently welcomed by the republicans of England. Now that the two kingdoms are united, its dangerous tendency, as far as respects separation, has ceased: its republican tendency alone remains.

In 1789, Mr. Pitt applauded, with inactive philanthropy, the benevolent proposal of Mr. Wilberforce to abolish the slave-trade: an adjournment was voted to the year 1796; but the house was dishonourably suffered to forfeit its pledge.

In 1790, an armament took place against the Spaniards, respecting Noot-

ka: arrogant claims were advanced, and softened down on the prospect of French resistance. Another armament took place against the Russians, for reasons as insufficient, and with a retrogradation more humiliating. It was besides a wholly mistaken policy, a capital diplomatic blunder, to thwart the politics of Russia. While the French were busying themselves at home, the projected partition of Turkey would have saved Poland, strengthened Austria, and helped us quietly to Egypt.

About the year 1790, the politics of the French, which already divided into factions the reading world of Great-Britain, became topics of discussion in the British parliament, and produced a declared disunion, first of opinion then of conduct, between Mr. Burke and Mr. Fox. Mr. Burke and the Rockingham party went over to Mr. Pitt: Mr. Fox and the Lansdowne party remained in the opposition.

From the moment of Mr. Burke's accession, the government began to lose its temporizing, accommodating, lenient cast of policy; and to breathe only malignity, intolerance, and persecution. The very temper of the nation seemed to change. Riots at Birmingham and elsewhere razed the houses of the enthusiasts of liberty, and broke the gaz-jars and electric batteries of Priestley.—Proclamations were issued against republican pamphlets, as if the discussion of the most expedient form of government was not precisely the most valuable liberty of the press. Prosecutions for libel were successfully instituted. Aliens were deprived of the benefit of law, and subjected to the arbitrary controul of ministers. An anti-jacobin war was undertaken, in concert with most of the sovereigns of Europe, accompanied with the mischievous renunciation of all established principles of warfare.*

The project of parliamentary reform suggested by the friends of the p was not honoured even with an inc into the allegations of their peti Barracks were erected. The Ha Corpus Act was suspended; and faculties of speech and hearing paralyzed by inquisitorial spies. more popular arguers against mir were arrested, and calumniously dicted for high treason—Tooke, croft, Thelwall, and many othe The pretended proofs of guilt contemptuously thrown back at n ters, by a wondering jury. These cast an amusing light on the consp of the clubs, which appeared t mere societies for political informa where a contrived preference was to pamphlets and speeches of a d cratic and republican tendency. I represented towns these clubs were adapted to turn the tide of popul vour against ministerial candidat They formed convenient centers o plication, when petitions were wa to prop parliamentary motions: continuance would probably have bled the numerous classes to obtai redress of several grievances, as a r of the laws prohibiting the com tions of journeymen, and other si restrictions. The congratulatory dresses to the French seem to flowed from the vanity of consequ but they tended to endanger puri allegiance.

By the preceding severities, the reign had been rendered unpopular this mortifying defeat his unpopul became notorious. Ministers aff to delight in the vulgar aversion loose-tongued on all sides. Earl william was recalled, for betrayi disposition to redress the grievan the catholics. The king was ins (on the 29th of October, 1795) way to the house of lords, with hisses, groans, and peltings of a co

* Mr. Burke had written, and was not disavowed by ministers in coalition with the following passage: "If ever a foreign prince enters into France, he must ente into a country of assassins. The mode of civilised war will not be practised; nor a French, who act on the present system, entitled to expect it. They must look for n dified hostility. All war which is not battle, will be military execution. This will acts of retaliation, and every retaliation a new revenge. The hell-hounds of war sides will be uncoupled, and unmuzzled." This passage was pleaded in the French vention, as an excuse for passing the decree to give no quarter to prisoners: a decree the French officers nobly refused to execute. The writings of Mr. Burke, as was w served (surely by the excellent Mr. Hall, of Cambridge) contain all beauties but th the heart. There is an Irish ferocity about them, a selection of crime and horror, favourite objects of contemplation, which is repulsive to benevolent natures.

Digitized by Google

ing multitude. New treason laws were* proposed by Mr. Pitt and Lord Grenville. Rebellion and horrid havoc broke loose in Ireland, and were with difficulty restrained in Scotland and in England. At length ministers determined to negociate for peace, and the public mind softened.

A meritorious treaty of commerce had been concluded in 1794, with the American states: but the judgment frequently displayed by Mr. Pitt, in questions of commerce and finance, deserted him in 1796, when his subsidies reduced the Bank of England to stop payment. It was proved that excessive advances to the government had occasioned the temporary embarrassment: a loan to repay these advances, and a speedy coinage of specie, would soon have restored the ancient order of payment, particularly after the publication of accounts which demonstrated the solvency of the bank. A preference was unwisely given to that system of forced circulation, which continues to enrich the proprietors of bank-stock, and to alarm and oppress the inferior classes of commerce; and which, in case of invasion or public terror, threatens to render impracticable in the metropolis the payment of the taxes or of the stockholders.

In 1797, Lord Moira and Mr. Fox strenuously recommended in parliament, to ministers, a milder conduct towards the Irish than was unhappily adopted. —Repressive measures were employed which no provocations could have justified: tortures, burnings, capricious desolations, arbitrary executions, precautionary slaughter. Before the resort to such extremities, ministers ought to have made the emancipation of the catholics a condition of their continuance in office. That is a tardy humanity which only sets in, now they have ceased to be the persecutors employed.

After alluding to atrocities which exact the moral indignation of the calmest historian, it is scarcely excusable to waste criticism on the conduct of the foreign war. Yet it deserves perpetual notice that the fanaticism of the anti-jacobins was the principal cause of its misconduct, and that the interests of the nation were in every thing forgotten for the interests of the sect. Time was when the Girondist rulers of France had indirectly offered, through the mouth of Condorcet, the cession of Madagascar and its appurtenances to Britain, as the reward of little more than the bare recognition of a forthcoming constitution, which by subdividing France into separate federal states, would have paralyzed her strength for future offensive warfare. The creed of the anti-jacobins forbad the acknowledgment of authorities originating with the people; and the opportunity was lost.

Time was, after the taking of Valenciennes, while the Prussians were yet hesitating to secede from the coalition of sovereigns, when peace might probably have been renewed, without any other annexation than that of Avignon to the original territory of France. But the spirit of anti-jacobinism was as yet so strongly bent on the restoration of royal unrestraint, that with a sanguinary sanguineness, which the Brunswick manifesto will too long record, the opportunity was lost.

During the negociations of Lille, if a very liberal confidence, bordering on personal despotism, had been bestowed on the noble agent, sufficient to authorise his bold and instantaneous decision there, it is likely that an equitable peace could have been concluded, prior to the victory of the war-faction in the directory of France. But anti-jacobinism had still its prejudices to overcome against a peace with regicides; still some gay hopes to gamble upon, still some inkling to turn up a king. This opportunity again was lost.

The same cavalier indifference, which prevailed about the continuance or cessation of the war, prevailed about its conduct. Dodging invasions, which might provoke and could not maim, were tried at Quiberon and elsewhere, as if merely to profess our royalism, and kill off our guests. Corsica was idly taken under our protection, because it preferred a constitution with half a king to a constitution without one. It was evacuated still more idly. If retained until peace, it might have been allotted to the king of Sardinia, in exchange for his Savoy or Piedmont. This, to men of honour, was always a sufficient motive for the retention. But the even-

* In what proportion the people were divided for and against the spirit of the government, may be inferred from the petitions presented on this occasion: there were 65 petitions says our author, p. 289) with 30,000 signatures *for*, and 94 petitions with 130,000 signatures *against* the bills.

tual value of Corsica became immense: it would cheerfully have been paid for —with Pondicherry, that flaw in the oriental jewel—or with Demerary, the sink of so much spiritedly expended commercial capital—or with Martinique, which had learned the profit of subjection to Great-Britain—or with the Cape, so admirably surveyed for the use of other landlords,—or with Malta, the key that unlocks for its possessor the barrier-gate of Europe—by a sovereign, who was a foreigner while Corsica was not French.

On the continent of Europe, England had but one interest—to prevent the *northern* aggrandizement of France, the extension of the French line of *coast*. Any other form of growth might take place, without detriment to us. It was our obvious policy then to secure, at any price, the alliance of Prussia, which could alone defend and incorporate and preserve the north; and by the gift of Hanover, (born and educated a Briton, the owner would no doubt have gloried in the sacrifice, and the country would as willingly have granted profuse millions of indemnity) to purchase a repetition of the campaign of 1787, which delivered Holland from French ascendancy. The alliances of both Prussia and Austria are not permanently compatible: their interests in Germany are hostile, and on those interests their favourite politics turn. It was expedient, therefore, to renounce all connexion with the Imperial cabinet; or even to incur its enmity, for the sake of the consequent amity of Prussia. What was it to us if the French had dictated a peace at the gates of Vienna; and if they had usurped suddenly the whole of Italy and the Morea and Egypt? Such sprawling accessions to their dominion, would have been more costly to garrison, and far more difficult to guard from subsequent rebellion, than the compact contiguous Delta of the Rhine. Yet the fleets of Britain, and the troops of Russia, could be brought to interrupt the southern progress of the French; while only feeble, after-date, ill-directed, aguish expeditions, were run aground in Holland. But Holland was merely a republic overthrown: in Italy there were two kings and the bishop of bishops to save. Of course the interests of the country were to be betrayed for the interests of the creed.

How fine a force of ships and men was sent to the West-Indies. who saw the earlier embarkations troops, will long remember the g show: the sparkling pomp and magnificence of their attire—thei glittering in novel polish—their ments drilled in punctual grace march on board, amid Rule-Brit performed in anticipated triumph the sonorous skill of an assemb chestra—tall picked soldiers pant adventurous tasks, collected befo land was exhausted by recruiti compelled to seduce aukward lab from productive industry—men ing with youth, glowing with stately with courage; models for ter or a sculptor; worthy to patriarchs of a new Circassia—an what were they employed? To p some sugar-islands from negro rection *for* the French. Jealousy liberty formed the basis of the c anti-jacobinism: it seemed, the the wisest employment of the co strength, to keep under the re slaves, without even the simple ing whether the insurgents we property of the adversary, or our

If half the men buried in Sa mingo had been landed at New O new Talbots would there have p successfully the ensigns of Britai have added to the property of th lish crown, the whole course Missouri.——The royalists of might there have found, under ou a safe asylum, and would have with willing lip, Louisiana as thei try. Embracing, as in a belt, th lonies of which we had already fo the adolescence and conceded the cipation, these new districts wo their turn have received our lan our industry, and our laws. The indeed passed into pure hands; redundance of British populatio capital, would more rapidly hav tered and made to germinate th seeds of prosperity.

In 1797, Mr. Burke died, lo most brilliant ornament, latterly t fortune of his country. The pri of the *ligue* were those which, fr writings of French jesuits, he tran ed into England, and they at on seemed in danger of leading to proscriptions of the incorrigible his opponents. Mr. Pitt's geni dently felt rebuked before him; sumed, after his departure, a mor

Digitized by Google

lish-tempered policy. After the extinction of the Girondist party in France, the war gradually ceased to appear a crusade against liberty: after the negotiation at Lille, it ceased to appear aggressive, and was become really national before its close. The accession of Bonaparte was a moment at which an honourable peace might have been obtained. The early interests of his popularity and power, seemed to require a pacific policy, and would have inspired a concessive spirit. The contemptuous refusal to negotiate with him, of which Lord Grenville was the herald, served to inroot a formidable hostility against this country, in a soul before disposed to value the opinion of Britons. This refusal in our ministers, probably arose from a culpable ignorance of the personal character and disposition of that distinguished general. He had been erroneously called by Mr. Pitt, "the child and champion of jacobinism," although in early life he had betrayed a warm anxiety for the escape of Louis; although his first step to power was a repressive massacre of the jacobins, when under the guidance of the sections of Paris, they revolted against the Directory; although his religiosity was proclaimed by the obsequies of Pius VI.; although his selection for the supreme office, from among the other generals of France, arose from the conviction of Sieyes and the jesuitic party that he would restore the church; and although his elevation was itself accomplished by the dismissal of the representative authorities. In short, Bonaparte was the real chieftain of the church-and-king party of the French, or what Mr. Burke calls "the moral king of France;" and thus he was the natural object of anti-jacobin recognition, though of mistrust to the friends of liberty.

This opportunity having been lost, the best chance for obtaining equitable terms of peace, would have been to intrust official situations to those persons of antient and European reputation for talent, who possessed the confidence of the original adversaries of the war, and who therefore could alone have called forth a more diffusive energy in case of the renewal of hostilities. They only could have negotiated on the highest tenable ground; but the persons employed, had they ventured to be nice, must have resigned to their predecessors. The peace, like the war, suffered from the obstinate intolerance of anti-jacobinism.

In 1799, the very meritorious measure of an union of the parliaments of Great-Britain and Ireland, was accomplished with great practical dexterity by Mr. Pitt. By this grand constitutional innovation, he may be considered as having redeemed his early pledge of parliamentary reform. He has added a hundred members to the British house of commons; he has introduced into our legislation the useful precedent of extinguishing borough-representation by purchase. It will soon be perceived that these changes are realizing, in some degree, the warm expectations, which the friends of parliamentary reform always indulged. The house of commons is become a mightier and a more independent power. To its secret will a greater deference is already shown by the highest branch of the constitution. With the sentiments of the people it sympathizes more than heretofore. Soon no doubt it will break and cast away the rusty chains which superstitious intolerance formerly, and the viler fetters which anti-jacobin intolerance recently imposed on the people of Great-Britain.

This was the last conspicuous act of Mr. Pitt's long administration, which had no very marked character, except while it was overawed by Mr. Burke. It left the country with more positive, with less relative power than at its commencement: with a vast increase of means, and a vast increase of debt. There are no measures, except perhaps the last, of that provident and commanding kind, which bind a statesman to posterity, and forbid the estimate of his utility, before the lapse of centuries. The commercial treaties were such as the age would have made without the agent; they were framed on doctrines already popular; they in nothing anticipated the future principles of statistical philosophy. A spirit of probity, precision, and punctuality, worthy of a banker's clerk, characterized Mr. Pitt's management of the revenue, and his financial intercourse with the monied interest of London. These are scarce qualities among the nobility and gentry, but of the utmost importance in a chancellor of exchequer: indeed it is an office which ought to devolve on the Sir Francis Barings, on the more intelligent merchants of the time, or on the managers

and actuaries of our public companies. Mr. Pitt's respectful attention to all deputations of merchants and tradesmen, does him honor: he always took the pains to make himself master of their grounds of complaint, and usually accommodated his measures, in a great degree, to their representations. This deference for the will of the commercial interest, his somewhat corrupt alliance with the great monopoly companies to the prejudice of unprivileged trade, and the facility with which peerages were scattered among the personal chieftains of the monied aristocracy, have caused that decided popularity upon the Exchange, which still renders the administration of Mr. Pitt an object of sincere regret among the London merchants.

His taxes were numerous. Taxes may be (1) useful: as when they are imposed on those sources of revenue which maintain the idle, and thus compel an increase of productive exertion; such are taxes on the rent or income of houses, lands, fixed and funded property. Taxes may be (2) indifferent: as when they fall on every one in proportion to his ability, and not so sensibly as to inflict privations; such are in a great degree the assessments, yet they somewhat favour the two extreme classes, at the expence of the middle class. Taxes may be (3) noxious: as when they levy on the poor and on the rich an equal sum; such are poll-taxes, and excise-taxes on objects of universal consumption, as beer, tea, soap, candles. Now, it is remarkable, that a very small proportion of Mr. Pitt's taxes belong to the first class, a larger to the second, but the great mass of them to the third of these distributions; so that, as a taxgatherer, the exertion of his skill is unquestionably blame-worthy. It has not been made out by theorists, whether (4) taxes on circulation, such as on stamps, legacies, conveyances, freight, &c. are useful, indifferent or noxious; we therefore avoid noticing them, as objects of applause or reproach. We suspect, however, that they ought to spare the minor, which are the productive, and to attack the major, which are the unproductive forms of circulation. If so; in this case again, Mr. Pitt has egregiously erred.

As an orator, he ranks in the higher, but not in the highest forms of excellence. If one has a foreign guest, who wishes to hear the debates in parli one picks preferably the evenin Mr. Pitt is expected to speak. T in his delivery an imposing maje his verbiage an unrelenting f which is sure to satisfy the specta hearer: he will return to his ow try with an idea that the mini worthy to represent the nation. the foreigner happens to be a crit to think over and analyze what heard, he will probably discover was more delighted by the for by the matter of the harangue phrases were turned with the rou of an author, and accumulated luring volubility. Repetition, w a vice in a writer, is a virtue in a er, who can seldom, like Mirabe press at a blow his opinion. T tor, therefore, ought to restate ferences in altered words, that t timent may have time to make i Mr. Pitt has eminently this po amplification; but he accompl rather by a change of phrase illustration, rather by multiply words than by varying his trop ther by dint of memory than of nation; in the long list of his sp there is scarcely a figure one rec The argumentative part is nev haustive, and seldom pointed; has always the merit of embraci leading topics in just proportion, pressing those grounds especial the comprehension of which the mind at the time is most prepa This is the great secret of pop and success in public speaking– gue with the very data of the h to exact no new efforts of thou reflection from their indolence, a ther to lend expression than i them. It is the sure road to the bation of ordinary minds and co capacities; because it flatters a which instruction would humili Some persons (the foible is comm the speculative world) are too pr tive, too far-sighted in their view schemes, and consider every qu by universal principles and remot tingencies, rather than by its s pressure and immediate operation. Pitt, on he contrary, is somewh near-sighted, (if the metaphor allowed), and is remarkable f locality and momentaneity, and quently for the transientness grounds of advice. Speeches

Digitized by Google

usually seem to win the victory in the newspaper, have already, in the parliamentary register, lost their superiority; and when recorded by the historian have faded into very insufficient defences of his proceedings. Much irrelevant though really active motive was adduced: actual conduct was indeed accounted for; but the idea of perfect conduct should have been evolved and recommended. There is but too much reason to suspect that this narrow mode of arguing is not merely exoteric; but is in fact the faithful and honest transcript of Mr. Pitt's mode of deciding business; for he is commonly found to modify his measures by the criticism of his adversaries, as if their observations were new to him and had not been anticipated.

To have skill in men, to be a judge of merit, is the most important qualification of a prime minister: like the manager of a band of players he should know how to cast every part aright; so as to perform, with the given cotemporary agents, the public business of the nation in the best possible manner.—Either Mr. Pitt wants this skill, or sacrifices, to the pressure of parliamentary solicitation and interest, the pleasure of lifting merit, and the duty of preferring ability. His subordinate appointments have been notoriously injudicious; in short, if his return to office could be borne without impatience, his retirement from it may well be seen without regret.

After conducting his reader to the resignation of Mr. Pitt, our author continues his history to the treaty of peace, of which, in a concluding paragraph, he thus gives his opinion:

"In negociating a pacification, three objects ought to be kept in view,—*honour*, *advantage*, and *security*. That we succeeded in all these desirable points of attainment, none will be so hardy as to affirm. After the frequent boasts of a full determination of acquiring indemnity, the dereliction of the far greater part of our conquests, and the loss of the effect of a brilliant series of naval triumphs, besides a very oppressive augmentation of the national debt, present a scene remarkably and essentially different from the prospect to which we were taught to look forward. The *honour* of a negociation does not consist in being dislodged from the commanding posts which the conductors of the war affected to occupy and to secure, or in being successively driven to the last verge of evasion; nor will such a close of hostility be considered as a material *advantage* by the generality of political speculators; and, in point of *security*, we have less reason to boast of our complete ability of self-defence than we had before the war commenced its mischievous career. Yet the ministers deserve not the severity of censure. They had a difficult task to execute. The unfortunate predicament in which the preceding leaders of the cabinet had involved the nation, rendered peace particularly necessary; and the extraordinary and portentous increase of the power of France, with the high claims of a nation which accused Great-Britain of the guilt of aggression, precluded the hope of favourable or beneficial terms. Viewed with reference to this state of affairs, the treaty of Amiens calls for acquiescence and approbation, rather than disgust, objection, or complaint; and, if it should not be permanent, the fault will be that of the rash statesman whose impolicy promoted by war the extension of Gallic power, not that of the prudent minister whose endeavours were exerted for the restoration of peace. In the mean time, let us not give way to pusillanimity or despondence. Though our security has been diminished, our resources are by no means contemptible. Confining our views to insular defence, we may defy the threatening storm; and, by the terrors of a naval war, we may humble the arrogance of the enemy, and produce a desire of continued peace."

This convenient volume will, no doubt, find many readers, and will in nothing detract from the reputation of the historian of the union with Ireland. To the Lansdowne politics the author appears most habitually to incline.

ART. V. *History of the Reign of George III. to the Termination of the late War.* By ROBERT BISSET, *LL.D.* 8vo. 6 vols.

DR. BISSET appears to have seriously, though moderately, imbibed those precisely inverse notions of the duty of allegiance, which Mr. Burke's paradoxical daring thought fit to advance, in order by one excess to counteract what he considered as another.

Mr. Burke holds out the church as entitled to a preference of attachment, as first, and last, and midst in our minds. He allots the next degree of zeal to majesty, considering it as the key-stone that binds together the well-constructed arch of our constitution. Third in estimation he ranks the house of lords, the chief virtual representative of our aristocracy, the great ground and pillar of security to the landed interest, and that

Digitized by Google

main link by which it is connected with the law and the crown. As for the house of commons, it is hustled by Mr. Burke among the revolutionary societies, as one of their own family. Thus the institutions which respect our posthumous security, are held up as of most immediate importance; those which chiefly concern our federative and diplomatic intercourse with foreign countries, are ranked next in domestic value; the body which gives force to our courts of justice, stability to our laws, and cohesion to our landed opulence, sinks into a subordinate confederacy; and the great assembly of the united representatives of the people, the source of all legislation, the pledge of voluntary obedience, the nursery of our statesmen, the confidant of our grievances, and the depositary of our hopes, is scarcely made an object of attention.

Mr. Burke suggests an oratorical excuse for what he perceived to be absurd; and plainly intimates that his relative commendation had rather been proportioned to his actual sense of the *danger*, than of the *value*, of the institutions discussed. But here a grave and elaborate historian has adopted these freaks of rhetoric, resorted to for a transient purpose, as permanent rules of appreciation, and canons of historical criticism. Still the bias, though real, is not very prominent.

Bating this perverse and dangerous leaning of opinion, Dr. Bisset's History is highly praiseworthy. It narrates with greater detail and completeness than Macfarlane, Belsham, or Adolphus, the transactions of the present reign. The parliamentary matter is not confined to the political, but embraces the statistical legislation and debates. The influence of literature on public proceeding is not overlooked. The foreign campaigns and continental operations receive their due share of investigation and narrative. The style is natural, yet elegant; the information abundant, yet select; the criticism loyal, yet liberal. In short, it appears to us more likely than any of the rival histories to annex itself to Hume and Smollett, as the regular and generally received continuation of the History of England. One source of popularity in history-writing, is habitually to take part with the constituted authorities, and with the national spirit. Rulers when they have erred, a people when they have erred, are still grateful to those who the apologists of their error, explainers of their decision: thi ingratiation is much practised Bisset. He is commonly the rist of event, the preconizer of he rows with the stream; he fa own direction the gale of pub nion; and turns away from the porary scene, like Augustus, request to the spectators to He is the reverse of a disco historian, but is candid even to tious.

A preliminary dissertation sketches the state of party and prior to the war of 1756. T chapter continues this preparato ter in greater detail to the acces George the third. The first extends to the dissolution of t liament in 1767. It deserves noti when the affairs of the India c came before this parliament, in ber 1766, Lord Chatham deni right of the company to have te possessions, as such were not co by their charters, and were for the nature and object of a tradin pany; and he maintained that ment, for its great expence in t tection of that company, was to the territorial revenue of Hin for the purpose of indemnification observations apparently inspir scheme of that India bill, which and Fox produced sixteen year wards.

In the second volume (at p. 4 is a diverting misprint. Junius scribed as accusing Lord Mans *jacobinism*.

The first political symptoms ligious heterodoxy, now so m tended, are thus noticed by Dr.

"Sir Henry Houghton made a m relieve the dissenters from subscript the penal laws, but was warmly op the high-church gentlemen. The di it was said, by omitting to subscr violated the law of the land; and t gressors, not satisfied with being desired the law to be changed in accommodate a change in their opin total exemption from subscription open the way to heresy and infidelit dissenters were a respectable body, a tain regard was due to their opini the present bill, instead of propo mere relief of non-conformists, was for encouraging schism, and ultim stroying the church of England;

Digitized by Google

the dissenters now maintained doctrines totally different from those of former times, and were inimical to the church of England, to the protestant religion, and to true christianity: to encourage such men, therefore, would be equally contradictory to sound policy, and to the interests of the established faith. The supporters of the bill contended, that subscriptions, while they operate against the pious and conscientious, are no restraints on the impious and wicked. The sectarians were charged with having deviated from the theological opinions of their predecessors; but in all ranks of a community advancing in knowledge and civilization, the more understandings were exercised, the greater would be the diversity in the result of different efforts. That some individual dissenters held principles inimical to christianity, might be true; but the charge against them as a body, was totally false: they had been uniformly the friends of civil and religious liberty, had supported the British constitution, the establishment of the house of Brunswic, and all those principles and measures by which our constitutional rights were upheld: they had moreover supported the christian faith against its most ardent impugners; and such men certainly deserved to enjoy something more than mere impunity by connivance. By toleration, christianity had flourished; by intolerance, the number of believers had been lessened: let protestants be united, that we may be the better able to make head against infidels. These considerations induced a great majority in the house of commons to vote for the bill; but in the house of lords the bishops exerted themselves so strenuously against an indulgence which they conceived and represented to be dangerous to the church, that the bill was rejected by no less than a hundred and two to twenty-nine."

A far more desirable measure than those which have hitherto been agitated, would be the repeal of the act of uniformity. It would at once admit the catholics of Ireland, and the unitarians of England, to that participation in the establishment to which the diffusion of their opinions and the weight of their property has long entitled them. A division of the clergy into distinct sects would somewhat lessen the mischievous cohesion of that body corporate, now so subservient, not merely to the mandates of government, but to the personal caprice of the crown. But this cohesion might be further diminished by vesting in the clergy of the diocese the nomination of their own bishop; and by converting the prebendal stalls, which are wholly useless in the hierarchy, into lay preferments, distributable among the decayed authors and artists, to whom national gratitude owes some provision.

There is a short passage in this volume which, with its connected note, we shall also present to our readers, as it obscurely touches a constitutional disease of long standing and felt peril.

"Ever since the debate on the address, great indecision had appeared in the conduct of the minister. He studiously avoided any farther discussion on American politics, and frequently absented himself from the house. From these circumstances it was conjectured, that he did not fully concur in the coercive system; and this hypothesis was by no means inconsistent with either his known disposition or abilities. It was presumed, that a man of such a conciliating temper, and whose first ministerial act had been concession to appease the colonists, could really be no friend to violent and irritating measures; and that a statesman of his undoubted talents could not, from the dictates of his own understanding, devise or recommend such acts. Lord North, it was imagined, could not long be so completely deceived as to fact, and erroneous in argument, as the proposers of the ministerial measures appeared. Besides, it was supposed that his intellect was too enlightened, and his mind too liberal, to possess that contemptible obstinacy of character which is incident to men at the same time weak and vain, who adhere to a plan, not because it is proved to be right, but because they had once favoured its adoption*.

* It has been very often asserted, and by many believed, that lord North originally [illegible], and always continued in his private sentiments, inimical to the American war; although [illegible] as prime minister, in every measure of carrying it on, incurred the chief responsibility. [illegible] opinion, as an historian, I have not documents either to confirm or refute with unqualified certainty. To those who would confine themselves to comparison of the plans [illegible] conduct of government during that awful period, with the talents often displayed by [illegible] lordship, the conjecture may appear probable. But persons who take a candid view of [illegible] respectable and estimable moral qualities of the prime minister, will hesitate in justifying [illegible] his wisdom at the expence of his integrity; they will sooner admit that a man of [illegible], literature, and political knowledge, reasoned falsely and acted unwisely, than that [illegible] of moral rectitude acted in deliberate and lasting opposition to his conscience, thereby [illegible] his country in misfortune. At the same time, I am fully aware that there is a [illegible] hypothesis possible, and by many believed, if not by some known to be true. The [illegible] in question rather changes the situation than degrades the character of lord North,

Digitized by Google

"The theory of an interior cabinet was revived; and it was asserted, that lord North, though ostensibly minister, was really compelled to obey the dictates of a secret junto. Having, however, no satisfactory evidence that such a cabal existed, nor that an able and estimable nobleman submitted to such a disgraceful mancipation, I cannot record conjecture as a historical truth, and must narrate the measures proposed or adopted by lord North as his own, because for them he declared himself responsible."

The third volume opens with the parliamentary session of 1777; when the hostile interference of France in behalf of American independence began to be apprehended. A fine piece of narrative is the final appearance of Lord Chatham in the house of peers, on the duke of Richmond's motion upon the state of the nation.

"His lordship had that session frequently attended the house of peers, less from the relaxation of distemper than from the calls of duty, which the increasing calamities of his country made him consider as every day more imperious. In a bodily state fitted only for the stillness and quiet of a bed of sickness, he encountered the active warfare of the senate, hoping his counsels might at length be admitted by those who were experiencing such evils from former rejection and intractability, and that, in his old age, he might contribute to restore part of the prosperity, greatness, and glory, which he had acquired for his country in the vigour of his life, and which left her when he ceased to guide her affairs. His exertion, in the former part of the session, so much beyond his bodily strength, had increased his distemper; but, informed of the business that was to be agitated, and aware of the doctrines which would be brought forward, he thought it incumbent on himself to render it manifest to the world, that though he agreed with the marquis of Rockingham and his adherents in reprobating the system of ministry, he totally differed from them on the question of American independence. He accordingly betook himself to the senate, of which, for near half a century, he h the brightest luminary. Having ar the house, he refreshed himself in chancellor's room, until he learned t siness was about to begin. The statesman was led into the house c attended by his son-in-law, lord and resting on the arm of his seco Mr. William Pitt. He was richly in a superb suit of black velvet, wi wig, and covered up to the knees in He was pale and emaciated, but the quickness, force, and animation of and the expression of his whole coun shewed that his mind *retained* its perspicacity, brilliancy, and streng lords stood up, and made a lane fo pass through to the bench of the e with the gracefulness of deportment f he was so eminently distinguished, l to them as he proceeded. Having seat, he listened with the most attention to the speech of the duke mond. When his grace had finis Chatham rose; he lamented that, portant a crisis, his bodily infirm interfered so often with his regular a on his duty in parliament. 'I l day (said he) made an effort be powers of my constitution, to co to the house, perhaps the last ti enter its walls, to express my in against the proposition of yieldin vereignty of America. My lord, that the grave has not closed upon I am still alive to lift up my voic the dismemberment of this ancient monarchy. Pressed down as I a load of infirmity, I am little able my country in this most perilous ture; but, my lords, while I have memory, I never will consent to t lustre of this nation by an ignomi render of its rights and fairest p Shall a people so lately the terr world, now fall prostrate before of Bourbon? It is impossible. I confess, well informed of the res this kingdom; but I trust it has cient to maintain its just rights, know them not; and any state, is better than despair. Let us at l

by representing him as merely his majesty's first commissioner of the treasury cellor of the exchequer, instead of the prime political counsellor. Persons of derable respectability, of very high veneration for the character of lord North, with inviolable fidelity adhered to him in every vicissitude of fortune, have g opinion, that he was not really minister, but the official executor of positive c I am aware also, that in this assertion they are said to proceed, not merely inferences, but on specific evidence From the nature of the alleged document well that if they exist, they cannot at present be made public. If the truth count were established, we should, indeed, have to consider his lordship as obeying orders, but not as voluntarily proposing counsels: this, perhaps, mig him as the servant of a master, but would not be sufficient to acquit him as me deliberate assembly. Even in this last view, palliations might be found to apolo indulgent, though it would be more difficult to discover facts and arguments wh satisfy the rigidly just."

Digitized by Google

one effort; and, if we must fall, let us fall like men.'

"The Duke of Richmond declared his grief and horror at the dismemberment of the empire to be as great as that of any man in the house or nation, but how was it to be avoided? he himself was totally ignorant of the means of resisting with success the combination of America with France and Spain. He did not know how to preserve the dependence of America. If any person could prevent such an evil, Lord Chatham was the man; but what were the means that great statesmen would propose? Lord Chatham, agitated by this appeal, made an eager effort at its conclusion to rise; but before he could utter a word, pressing his hand to his heart, he fell down in a convulsive fit. The Duke of Cumberland and Lord Temple, who were nearest to him, caught him in their arms. The house was immediately in commotion, strangers were ordered to depart, and the house was adjourned. Lord Chatham being carried into an adjoining apartment, medical assistance soon arrived. Recovering in some degree, he was conveyed in a litter to his villa at Hayes in Kent, and there he lingered till the 11th of May, when he breathed his last, in the 70th year of his age."

The coalition between North and Fox is discussed and blamed by Dr. Bisset, very consistently with his disposition to preserve the influence of the crown from being overpowered. But the people ought never to forget that all coalitions, not suggested by the sovereign, are necessarily bottomed on the principle of a parliamentary dictation of ministers being preferable to their selection by the personal will of the king. This is a somewhat republican, though not at all a democratic, principle: it does not threaten any change in the form of the constitution; but it tends clearly to transfer a portion of real and efficient power from the crown to the house of commons, from an hereditary to an elective branch of the constitution. The prejudice of friends of liberty ought to be in favour of coalitions: the choice of ministers too ought to rest in the house of commons; for the delegates of the people have more assuredly, in their collective capacity, the wisdom requisite to appoint ministers skilfully, than any one man is likely to have, whom neither native or acquired ability has rendered conspicuous as a judge of men; and they have more assuredly a common interest with the nation, than any particular reigning dynasty, whose continental and domestic interest may both differ occasionally from those of the country.

The fifth volume opens with an account of the revolution of France. It is yet too soon to appeal to experience, for a decision concerning the utility of this formidable change. Many great and permanent benefits were conferred by the legislation of the constituting assembly. A military despotism has terminated, for the present, the hope of a rational and enduring liberty. But it is by no means improbable that the sway of the new Cromwell will be superseded by institutions more popular, and that the national assemblies of France will be found to have conferred the same benefits which the long parliament of England bestowed on this country: benefits far superior to the more valued innovations of any subsequent revolution. The French suffered not from their legalized representation, but from that Parisian faction which superseded representative authority, and introduced the direct sway of a democratic oligarchy; by appealing from the delegates of the people to the people in their individual capacity, in the form of ignorant assemblages or factious clubs. Not to republicanism, but to ochlocracy, they owe their greatest evils.

In this volume the forty-sixth chapter narrates the discussion of the abolition of the slave-trade. Here Dr. Bisset leans to the cold and puny policy adopted by the country. What is now to be expected from it, but that a legislature, which, instead of considering the happiness of its subjects as the binding principle of its policy, has preferred to consult the harsh wishes of an aristocracy of tropical land-owners, will be repaid with an ingratitude not more disgusting than its conduct, and will find its authority disputed by the very men to whom it lent the aid of its power, beyond the limits of its sense of justice.

The writings of Paine, the riots of Birmingham, come under examination. These tumultuous excesses, Dr. Bisset complains, were ascribed by Dr. Priestley to the badness of the cause: *as if the intrinsic merits of any system could be lessened by the folly or madness of its defenders.* There is an incorrectness in stating (p. 408) that Robespierre and his supporters abjured the Supreme Being: the reverse is the case. Other flaws occur in the narrative, which to

Digitized by Google

the history of English affairs are equally unimportant.

In proportion as the narrative approaches our own times, it becomes liable to the suspicion of a partiality not resulting merely from a cast of opinion, which it is always the right of an historian to acknowledge. In the campaign of 1794, which the Duke of York waged, there are symptoms of this kind.

At the beginning of the sixth and last volume it is said, that the Jacobins triumphed over the Girondists. We have always understood that the Girondists triumphed by the means of the Jacobins; and that the Cordeliers triumphed over the Jacobins, and brought the Girondists to the block. The Cordeliers were the regicide portion of the Jacobins.

In detailing the progress of rebellion in Ireland, it is said that the professed objects were reform in Parliament and Catholic emancipation; but that the real objects (p. 203) was separation and independence.

"To promote the changes which they desired, certain persons formed a society to which they gave the name of United Irishmen. This institution, projected and organized by Wolfe Tone, proposed to connect the whole Irish nation together, with the professed purpose of a general melioration of their condition, by a reform of parliament, and an equalization of catholic with protestant privileges, without any exceptions civil or political. The plan of union was formed on unity of object, connection of instruments, and a co-operation of means, that combined secrecy of proceeding with efficacy of counsel and conduct. No meeting was to consist of more than twelve persons; five of these meetings were represented by five members in a committee, vested with the manage of all their affairs: from each of these mittees, which were styled "baronia deputy attended in a superior committee presided over all those of the barony o trict. One or two deputies from ea these superior committees, composed the whole county, and two or three every county committee composed a pr cial committee. The provincial comm chose in their turn five persons to sup tend the whole business of the union: were elected by ballot, and only know the secretaries of the provincial commi who are officially the scrutineers. T though their power was great, their a was invisible, and they were obeyed wi being seen or known. Whether the d of these associates were originally to ef complete separation of Ireland from E has not been ascertained as a fact; but is no doubt that, in the progress of thei cert, they had formed such a project that parliamentary change, and ca emancipation, were only pretexts wit heads and principal agents of this conf cy, in order to unite the greater numb the execution of their designs."

Surely these objects grew out o difficulty, and but for the obstinat tility of Great Britain to just ends, w never have been entertained. Th call of Earl Fitzwilliam is hurried we should have been glad to kno what grounds the Burkites, who p hostility to an interior or double ca and who willingly talk of minis responsibility, can justify their co ing in office after that recall. B Burke's letter to Sir Hercules Lang they were pledged to promote a r of the Catholic grievance: but anxiety about it only revived, when had ceased to be employed in with ing it.

ART VI. *History of the Insurrection of the County of Wexford in* 1798, *includi Account of Transactions preceding that Event: with an Appendix.* By EDWARD *Esq. M. R. I. A.* 8vo. pp. 404.

IT may be doubted whether religious toleration will ever be practically realized in a community, of which the majority is agreed in religious opinion. All ecclesiastical history is a record of some one sect tyrannizing over some other sect: but if a community were subdivided into so many different sects, that the coalition of the rest would always be more powerful than any one, even the most popular; then, and only then, toleration would be always the common interest of them all. Perhaps, therefore, men of authority, who desire to patronize a pure and uninterrupted religious liberty, and to perpetua political equality of religious sects, always to secede from the religi the majority; and thus reduce the expedient degree of weakness dangerous ascendancy of the mo pular sect. Some grounds of obj or variation will always present selves to an inquisitive mind; and should be exalted into importance a the domineering persuasion.

The catholics of Ireland form, apprehension, too numerous a par the interests of tolerance; if the was to become autonomous, and

Digitized by Google

point its political magistracy at home. But whatever we may suspect of the catholics, we know of the protestants; and have witnessed a religious persecution, which it is neither correct nor useful to disguise under the dress of political party.

Of the accomplished author of this work it will be best to speak in his own words. He thus accounts in the introduction for his interference in Irish affairs.

"Very serious disturbances took place in a part of the county of Wexford, in the month of June 1798; but they were soon suppressed by the exertions of the country gentlemen, who formed 'an association for the preservation of the peace.' I constantly attended their meetings, and I believe it will be allowed, that my conduct and endeavours proved as effectual as that of any other to restore public tranquillity.

"In January 1795, while lord Fitz-William was viceroy, I procured a great number of signatures, to a petition to parliament, from the catholics of the county of Wexford, and in the same month I was one of those that presented an address from them to his excellency. When his lordship's recall was announced from the government of Ireland, a meeting of the freeholders and other inhabitants of the county of Wexford was convened on the 23d of March of the same year, when a petition to his majesty was unanimously agreed to, and I was appointed one of the delegates to present it to the king. I had been as far as Dublin to take ship for England, when it was thought advisable to have the petition subscribed by as many persons as possible, and while my brother delegates proceeded to London, I returned to the county of Wexford, and considering that I was the chosen delegate of protestants as well as of catholics, I took the precaution of consulting the principal protestant gentlemen of the county first, to prevent the possibility of misrepresentation, or of denominating my pursuit the business of party; and I was so successful as to procure in the space of one week, 22,251 signatures to the petition; with which I then proceeded to London, and had the honour to present it, along with my brother delegates, to his majesty, at a public levee at St. James's, on the 22d of April 1795; and we met a most gracious reception.

"Different motives of private concern induced me to resolve to quit Ireland, in the year 1797, and to go to reside in America, and this I purposed to do as soon as the regulation of my affairs would permit me. I was mostly in the county of Wexford in the latter end of 1797, and beginning of 1798; but my attendance in Dublin was sometimes necessary upon law business, which I at length flattered myself I had finally got rid of by compromise. In the latter end of April, therefore, I took leave of my friends, as my proposed short stay in Ireland would not allow me the opportunity of seeing them again; as I had determined to go immediately to England, and from thence to America. In this project I was most unhappily disappointed, as a part of the compromise, which was, that my furniture should be taken at a valuation, was not complied with; and I was therefore reluctantly obliged to remain in the country, until I could, as I thought, dispose of them by auction, which I advertised would take place on Monday the 28th of May. I am thus particular, to counteract the malevolent insinuations of my enemies, and as it was this disappointment that occasioned my detention in the county of Wexford until the commencement of the disturbances; by which I lost all my furniture, and all else that could be taken from me, except what I had on my back, and about my person. Had I any possible intimation of the calamities that ensued, I most undoubtedly would have preferred settling my property even at a loss, and securing the value, to waiting to be detained against my will in that unfortunate country; and I would thus have escaped enduring those sufferings and persecutions that afterward fell to my lot.

"My conduct during the insurrection, as far as it is necessary to be known, properly belongs to the history of the times; and so I shall proceed to a relation of my persecution and sufferings.

"Lord Kingsborough and his officers conceived themselves under such obligations to me, that at their entreaty I lived in the same house with them, from the surrender of the town until the 29th of June, when they departed for Waterford. My former intention of going to America, was by no means lessened but augmented, by the scenes of which I had so recently been witness to in my native country. I accordingly persisted in my resolution, and was determined to get out of the country as speedily as possible. The committee that had been appointed by lieutenant general Lake, to act as a kind of council to general Hunter, then in command in Wexford, and to grant passes, now began to practise their malicious arts against me, which they avoided before, being apprehensive, if not well aware, that their schemes would be counteracted and defeated, if attempted to be put in execution, while the officers, who were acquainted with my conduct, remained in Wexford. I received a note from the chairman of this committee, (and it was delivered to me by one of the body, whom I then considered as my friend) desiring I would write to him, stating what I would wish to be done, and that my request would be taken into immediate consideration. This induced me to write to them, intimating the desire, I had so often expressed, of going

to America, adding, that I wished to set off the next day, in order to sail in a ship then in the harbour of Dublin; and this determination I would, in all probability, have since put in execution, but that I considered it might have given freer sanction to the calumnies so industriously raised against me. This consideration has detained me in Ireland, as here I was the better enabled to vindicate my honour, and this, indeed, my persecutors have completely effected, quite in contradiction to their inclinations and wishes. The immediate consideration of the committee was, in consequence of premeditation, to send back the gentleman, who brought me the note and took my answer, to arrest me. This he did at my lodgings, where I was publicly known to be since the insurrection, and two yeomen were there placed as a guard over me. This whole conduct, from several circumstances of which I have since come to the knowledge, was certainly preconcerted. Had I been sent to gaol, it would have been productive of a trial by court-martial, and this was a benefit which they did not wish to allow me, as they were well aware of the sentiments of the officers, whom I would have summoned back to Wexford; besides, some individuals among them were most ungratefully induced to forward the vile proceedings against me, as they were apprehensive I might call on them as witnesses, when their loyalty may have been called in question, were they to do justice to my conduct; and it may also have been manifested, that whatever honour some of them now possess, is owing to their taking my advice in preference to their own; as, if they escaped piking on the one side, they may have been hanged on the other, and with much more justice than several who have forfeited their lives on the occasion. To transport me without further enquiry, was therefore considered more adviseable. Several, who had been tried and sentenced to transportation, were taken on the 3d of July from the gaol, and put on board a sloop which had been twice condemned during the insurrection, and which had sunk within a foot of her deck, and was only pumped out that morning. Afterward a guard was sent to my lodgings, and I was marched down to the custom-house-quay, in the most conspicuous manner, and put on board this horrid hulk, without any trial or further investigation!!!

"In consequence of the opinion of a most eminent physician in Dublin, that it would be more humane to order me to be shot, than to leave me in such a situation, being made known to general Lake, through general (now sir John) Craddock, he sent down orders to enquire more particularly into the state of my case; and general Hunter accordingly sent doctor Jacob to visit me. The result was, that after five weeks confinement, in such a mansion of wretchedness, I was removed to the gaol; but my health had become so impaired, that I much fear it may never be perfectly re-established.

"At last my long-wished-for trial came forward, on Thursday the 27th of July, and although I was advised that I might have availed myself of the defectiveness of the indictment in point of form, and although I might also have protected myself by the amnesty act, if necessary, yet I disdained to adopt such subterfuges, and declared myself ready to meet the whole of the charges against me. Two only, out of the four witnesses, named to me, were brought forward; but their cross-examination completely did away any thing injurious that could be inferred from their direct testimony. One of these was William Carty, the informer, who afterward pleaded guilty to an indictment for murder, was condemned to death, which sentence, in consideration of his services, was commuted for transportation to Botany-bay; and although half what he had sworn was false, and invented to criminate me, yet in the event it turned out so much to my honour, that my counsel thought it not necessary to impeach his credit, which I was well prepared to do, he being the principal evidence for the crown. Although it be obvious to infer, that furnishing me with a list of the witnesses, was a palpable consent to produce no others against me but those named therein, yet, on the disappointment of the failure in the evidence of the two first, other witnesses, not named in the list, with which I was furnished, were produced; and the most material of them was sworn of the jury then trying me; and to him I certainly would have objected, had I not been thrown off my guard by the trick practised for that purpose. I was therefore totally unprepared to rebut or explain any evidence he might offer, as, on receiving the list, I had sent off witnesses whose testimony would have particularly borne upon any thing he could allege. I must however excuse counsellor O'Driscol, the leading counsel for the crown, from having any concern in this vile transaction, as he most honourably declared, that he was astonished I had not been furnished with this man's name, as the purport of his evidence was set forth in his brief, which he held up and pointed to; however, he said duty obliged him to insist upon his being examined, for that although it was the privilege of prisoners accused of high treason in England, that no other witnesses but those named in the lists furnished, should be produced against them, yet the law did not entitle them to such an indulgence in Ireland. Notwithstanding all these disadvantages, I was honourably acquitted. Baron Smith declared in his charge, that I had undergone the most virulent persecution, that my loyalty was unimpeachable, and that if the jury attempted to find me guilty, as some juries had acted contrary to law and justice at those assizes in Wexford, I might take advantage of the amnesty bill, by mov-

ing arrest of judgment, and that I should be instantly discharged, so that they might as well give me at once the acquittal I deserved."

Such usage may be expected to embitter: yet the statements which ensue have an impression of candour, temper, accuracy, and veracity, which cannot fail to obtain implicit confidence. The whole narrative is circumstantial, interesting, and horrible in the highest degree: it agitates and impassions like a novel. We could wish, for the honour of our country, and for the reputation of its government, that it were possible to draw a veil over events and transactions, which are disgraceful to human nature by the number of pitiless individuals they imply, and to social order by the display of an undisciplined uncivilized rabble of savages, which it has so long neglected, or vainly tried, to tame. How deep a wound will such particulars inflict on the paternal heart of a sovereign, who has to regret an opportunity of preventing these outrages. By a too scrupulous delay of the solicited redress, he furnished his enemies with a pretext for embittering discontent into rebellion. Had every danger been realized, which the most frantic fancy could hold out as the possible consequence of catholic emancipation, still the evil would not have approached in magnitude that which has already resulted from the refusal. It would be worthy of the independence and humanity of the church of England, to signify by a deputation of its bishops to Majesty, that it prefers the risk of heresy to the reproach of persecution. On the conduct of the roman catholic clergy, Mr. Hay thus speaks:

"While I am on the subject of the rev. Michael Murphy's death, I must beg leave to express the opinion I have adopted, in conjunction with the most sensible and rational men that I have conversed with on the subject, respecting the priests who were active in the insurrection.—When clergymen so far forget their duty as to take up arms, so contrary to the spirit of the gospel, they become most dangerous men: and the sooner such are cut off by any fatal catastrophe, the better. The duty of a clergyman is to preach peace and charity towards all mankind: when his conduct deviates from this, he acts inconsistent with the profession he has entered into. Why throw off the meek garb of peace for the horrid habiliments of war?—Under no possible circumstances ought a clergyman to be instrumental to the death of any person, except in the most urgent necessity of self-defence:—whenever else he takes up arms, he becomes a traitor to the gospel of Christ; and although treason may, on particular occasions, be considered useful, yet a traitor to any cause never can be regarded, even by those for whom he exerts himself. Besides, the interference of clergymen encouraging any kind of strife, but particularly warfare, must be considered highly culpable, and deserving of a fatal end. Not one of the priests who took up arms in the county of Wexford, escaped a violent and sudden death, clearly indicating a providential fate; and although they were not all, at the time, under suspension or ecclesiastical censure, yet under one so nearly allied to it, as to prevent any of them from having arrived to the situation of a parish priest. It is but common justice that those alone should bear the disgrace of reprobation who actually deserved it, and that the great body of the catholic clergy should be rescued from censure, as they were free from blame. The misconduct of a few individuals should not involve the good character of the many, and it must be recollected that, even among the twelve apostles, there was a traitor. The conduct of the roman catholic clergy of the county of Wexford, however unjustly reviled, was, during the insurrection there, guided by the true dictates and principles of christianity, really exemplary and meritorious. They comforted the afflicted with all the zeal and warmth of christian charity, and in the most trying and critical period, practised every deed that must be considered benevolent, by every liberal and enlightened man, whatever brawlers of loyalty may assert to the contrary; endeavouring, with indiscriminating abuse, to brand their conduct in general with the stain of infamy, They, by every possible means, sought to afford every assistance and protection in their power, to those who stood in need of it; but their influence was greatly diminished by not following the example of the militant priests, who strove to attain an elevation and superiority over their brethren in this way, which they could not otherwise accomplish. If I may be allowed the expression, the conduct of the fighting priests was truly amphibious. For while they cast off the character of priests, and took up that of soldiers, they still wished to maintain an ascendancy, even in their new stations, by reassuming the priest whenever it answered the purpose of superiority, the passion for which was greatly augmented by indulgence in drinking; and notwithstanding all this, they were conspicuous for courage and humanity."

When will all the votaries of christianity cease to confound the son of Mary with the child of Ismael, and to employ, instead of the mild persuasive eloquence of their master, the sword of Mahomet?

Digitized by Google

The co-establishment of all sects is an easy process; and would silently, naturally, and without injuring any individual, result from a mere repeal of the act of uniformity. It is time that, laying aside the spirit of dissensi sects should aspire to melt int catholic church, and begin a v competition of benevolence and a industry of usefulness.

ART. VII. *An Historical Review of the State of Ireland, from the Invasion Country under Henry II. to its Union with Great Britain.* By FRANCIS PL *Esq.* 2 vols. 4to. pp. abt. 2350.

THE antiquities of Ireland have oftener been commented by credulous than by judicious antiquaries: yet the testimonials adduced from chronicle and from language, favour the hypothesis of a Phœnician or Carthaginian colonization, having supplied the main body of the early population. It is said that the red hair, so common in Scotland, results from a mixture of the Iberian and Got[illegible]aces; and that its scarcity among th[illegible]tive Irish is a proof of the superior purity of their descent. Whether the first settlers came directly from the Mediterranean, or mediately from Spain and Portugal, cannot absolutely be ascertained; but as tradition and geography favour the latter opinion, it may rationally be acquiesced in.

The state of Ireland, prior to the mission of Saint Patrick, no doubt resembled that of Cornwall and Britany.—Like these provinces, it nearly escaped the barbarizing intrusion of Roman armies, and preserved something of that antient civilization, which from these provinces overspread the north, and founded the spirit of modern Europe. The first traces of heraldry occur in the chronicles of the Irish.

"The grand epoch of political eminence," says Mr. Plowden, "in the early history of the Irish, is the reign of their great and favourite monarch Ollam-Fodlah, who reigned, according to Keating, about 950 years before the Christian æra. Under him was instituted the great Fes at Teamor or Tarah, which was in fact a triennal convention of the states, or a parliament, the members of which consisted of the Druids and other learned men, who represented the people in that assembly. Thus the monarch and the provincial and other kings, who had the executive power in their hands on one side, and the philosophers and priests, together with the deputies of the people, on the other, formed the whole of this ancient legislature. When this great council was convened, previous to their entering upon business, they sat down to sumptuous entertainments for six days successively. Very minute accounts are given by the Irish annalists of the magnificence and order of these entertainments; from whence we may collect the traces of heraldry that occur in hist deduce that partiality for family disti which to this day forms a striking the Irish national characteristic. to preserve order and regularity in t number and variety of the membe met together on these occasions, w banquet was ready to be served up, th bearers of the princes and other me the convention delivered in their shi targets, which were readily distingui the coats of arms emblazoned upo these were arranged by the grand and principal herald, and hung u walls on the right side of the tab upon entering the apartments each took his seat under his respective s target without the slightest disturban first six days were spent not in diso velling and excess, but particularly to the examination and settlement of torical antiquities and annals of th dom: they were publicly rehearsed vately inspected by a select committe most learned members. When th passed the approbation of the assemb were transcribed into the authentic c of the nation, which was called the or psalter of Tarah. This singular to prevent the introduction of any f misrepresentation into their national would have furnished posterity with t authentic and interesting relations ancient and extraordinary kingdom, the Danes in their frequent ravages a sions of Ireland, during the 9th a centuries, burnt all the books and mo of antiquity that fell in their way. still more to lament the shameful a policy of our ancestors, who, from invasion of Henry Plantagenet dow reign of James the First, took all means of art and force to destroy w writings had by chance or care been ed from the destructive hands of the They imagined, that the perusal works kept alive the spirit of the and kindled them to rebellion, by re them of the power, independency, and of their ancestors. The public min this subject has long been change centuries have gone by, since Si Davis said, that 'had this people bee ed the benefit of the English laws, it go infinitely farther towards securi obedience, than the destruction of

Digitized by Google

books and laws ever published in this kingdom.' We have happily lived to see a legislative union of the two countries, which will, it is trusted, by the natural workings of the British constitution, go further in three years towards the destruction of national prejudice and disaffection, than a mere communication of laws did in three centuries."

The evidence on which these marvellous narratives repose, ought carefully to be collected and published, after the manner of the Myvyrian Archaiology of Wales. It is not unlikely that historical criticism may be able to separate much valuable unreceived truth, when it has bolted to the bran the Milesian tales, the druidical rimes, the monkish legends, the metrical romances, and the prose chronicles of the Irish. On these subjects Mr. Plowden plainly exercises little severity of research, and seems rather to aim at flattering the national vanity of the western islanders, by eagerness of credulity, than at enlarging the bounds of their historic horizon.

But in proportion as this narrative approaches the period at which the connection with England began, it rises in critical value and judicious selection. It is in fact the international history of Great-Britain and Ireland until their union. Henry II. was invited to Ireland by Dermod, a king of Leinster, who, having seduced and detained the wife of a king of Breffny, was on the point of being punished by a confederacy of the native princes. Earl Richard Strongbow was sent to the assistance of Dermod: a bull was obtained from Pope Adrian, granting the island to Henry; and some colonial settlements were made, chiefly in Leinster and Munster, by the Bristowyans, who accompanied Strongbow. The commercial habits of many of these settlers favoured their advantageous establishment; and as a cotemporary progress was made by the military allies of Dermod, the English interest acquired, step by step, a considerable extent of jurisdiction, comprising at length the counties of Dublin, Kildare, Meath, and Uriel, and became very obnoxious to the ancient inhabitants, who were denominated by the intruders, Irish *without the pale*.

The Irish *within the pale*, from their primitive connection with England, and the intermixture with English, fell under a government similar to that of the British nation. The country was divided into districts, and committed to the care of sheriffs. Courts of justice were established, analogous to those at Westminster. And finally, a parliament was convened occasionally by the governor. Sir John Davies thinks these Irish parliaments did not precede the reign of Edward II. Leland is for dating their commencement under Henry II. The oldest parliament-rolls which are extant bear date the 40th year of Edward III. when the statutes of Kilkenny were enacted. These statutes most unnaturally prohibit alliance by marriage between the English and Irish, as well as putting out children to be nursed in Irish families. This is worse than political, worse than religious intolerance: it is a conspiracy against the charities of the heart, and a prohibition of the affections of nature; but it was not likely to oppress many individuals, because those Pyramus-and-Thisbe attachments, between enemies, are not of frequent occurrence. A more diffusive grievance was the extortion of *coygne and livery* from the people; that is, of *man's meat, horse-meat, and money*, from all housekeepers indiscriminately, for the use of the troops. This form of oppression has lately been repeated under the name of *free quarters*. These various injustices are stated by Mr. Plowden to have endured, without intermission, under the reigns of sixteen monarchs, from Henry II. to Henry VIII.

The accession of Henry VII. however, as it restored peace and tranquillity to England, so it enabled the sovereign to plan and execute more effectual measures for the administration of his Irish dominions. It ought, therefore, not to have escaped a more attentive notice at the conclusion of the first part of this history. Two objects appear to have been immediately in the view of the crown: to extend a regular policy over the country, and to render the Irish government subordinate to that of Britain.

To promote the former of these purposes, under the direction of Sir Edward Poynings, the lord-deputy, it was provided by an act of the Irish parliament, that all the statutes lately made in England of a public nature, should be held valid in Ireland. This adoption of English laws by the Irish parliament was not unprecedented, as another instance of it occurs in the reign of

Digitized by Google

Edward IV. From this regulation, which conferred an important benefit, while it tended to prepare an union, it may fairly be presumed that the Irish parliament was then understood to possess an independent legislative authority.

To secure the dependence of the Irish parliament on the British crown, Henry endeavoured to acquire a negative before debate, a veto against their proceedings. For this purpose, he procured from that assembly a regulation, that no parliament should be held in Ireland, until the lord-deputy and his council should certify to the king and his council in England, the causes for which the meeting was to be called, and the bills which were therein to be enacted; and that, unless the king's leave was previously obtained, the transactions of any future parliament should be void in law.

These regulations were frustrated in the reign of Henry VIII. by the power of the Earl of Kildare, who, uniting the office of lord-deputy with great personal power in the country, conducted himself in a manner contrary to the laws, and independently of the wishes of the English. Cardinal Wolsey ordered him to England: he was there committed to the tower. His son, lord Thomas Fitzgerald, who acted in his father's absence as lord-deputy, immediately raised the standard of rebellion. Treacherous and cruel measures were resorted to for its suppression: the Irish nation was irrecoverably disgusted, and when the reformation of religion took place in England, the religious and political passions of the Irish nation were predisposed by animosity to become inflamed against its reception.

Under the catholic sway of Mary, some approximation was made to the policy of Henry VII. It was required not only that the acts in contemplation at the meeting of an Irish parliament, but that those proposed after its assemblage, should be certified to the king and council in England; and that they might not be put to vote, unless sanctioned by this preliminary approval. The friends of Irish independence eluded this regulation, by deliberating whether a proposal for a given bill should be certified to the king and council, which answered the purpose of exciting public attention, and of proclaiming their individual sentiments and arguments.

The protestant reign of Eli produced no less than three reb in Ireland, which may be attr chiefly to the state of religious op

By the union of the English and tish crowns in the person of Jan by the cordial acquiescence of the nation in the title of their new reign, and by the entire subject the Irish chieftains completed by Mountjoy, just before the dece Elizabeth was evulgated, James himself more favourably circumst than his predecessors for communi to Ireland the benefits of English prudence, and the advantages of zation and regular government. surprizing that this prince shou have thought of allowing a catholic lishment in Ireland: that was t tural religion of the people, as cal was of the Scotch and bucerism English.

James effected much in Ireland approximated their tribunals to th lish plan, and extended his laws b the pale. The authority of the B had still continued in force; an it the feudal practice of mulctin tricts for a murder, instead of pun the culprit. The whole countr now divided into thirty-two co each under the superintendence sheriff, and subjected to the juris of itinerant courts, which proved derful defence to the numerous against tyrannical exactions. A important reformation was the settl of landed property. From the frec of rebellions and disorders man feitures had occurred. For putt end to controversies that had arise respect to crown grants, certain missioners were appointed to e defective titles, and the possesso invited to surrender their estat the hands of the governor, in o obtain a new and more legal This process was indeed contrive the coffers of government, and t tate the seizure of unoccupied d but it was accompanied with th tion of *tanistry*, and other tenure vourable to the investment of upon estates, so that it really be Ireland. A vast track of northe tory was thus usurped, and sold city of London, who colonized industrious inhabitants. The c tion of property, in cases of tre always a mischievous policy: r

Digitized by Google

forges accusation, and the innocent are made to suffer together with the guilty; it should pass on as in case of a natural demise.

An excellent dissertation is that which respects the administration of the Earl of Strafford, and the conduct of the Irish catholics towards Charles I. The following anecdote of Cromwell has escaped many English historians:

"The account of this Lord Broghill's devoting himself to the service of Cromwell, taken from his panegyrist rather than biographer (Mem. of the Boyle family, 1737, p. 42.) is submitted to the reader, as a specimen of the affection and loyalty of the Irish Protestants of that day, to the cause of the unfortunate Charles I. 'I have heard a certain great man, who knew the world perfectly well, assert, that a secret was never kept by three persons. His lordship had intrusted his secret to more than three; and the Committee of State, who spared for no money to get proper intelligence, being soon made acquainted with his whole design, determined to proceed against him with the utmost severity. Cromwell was at that time general of the parliament forces, and a member of the committee. It is allowed by his enemies, that this wonderful man knew every person of great abilities in the three kingdoms: he was consequently no stranger to Lord Broghill's merit; and reflecting that this young nobleman might be of great use to him in reducing Ireland, he earnestly entreated the committee, that he might have leave to talk with him, and endeavour to gain him, before they proceeded to extremities. Having with great difficulty obtained this permission, he immediately dispatched a gentleman to the Lord Broghill, who let him know that the general, his master, intended to wait upon him, if he knew at what hour he would be at leisure. The Lord Broghill was infinitely surprised at this message, having never had the least acquaintance, or exchanged a single word with Cromwell. He therefore told the gentleman, that he presumed he was mistaken; and that he was not the person to whom the general had sent him. The gentleman readily replied, that he was sent to the Lord Broghill; and therefore if he was that lord, that he was sent to him. His lordship finding there was no mistake in the delivery of the message, confessed that he was the Lord Broghill: he desired the gentleman to present his humble duty to the general, and to let him know, that he would not give him the trouble to come to him, but that he himself would wait upon his excellency, if he knew at what hour it would be most proper for him to do so; and that in the mean time he would stay at home, to receive his further commands. The gentleman replied, that he would return directly and acquaint his general with what his lordship said. The Lord Broghill, in the mean time, was under a good deal of concern, at what should be the meaning of this message. He never once suspected that his design was discovered; but while he was musing in his chamber upon what had passed, and expecting the return of the gentleman, he saw Cromwell himself, to his great surprise, enter the room. When some mutual civilities had passed between them, and they were left alone, Cromwell told him in few words, that the committee of state were apprized of his design of going over, and applying to Charles Stuart for a commission to raise forces in Ireland; and that they were determined to make an example of him, if he himself had not diverted them from that resolution. The Lord Broghill interrupted him here, and assured him, that the intelligence the committee had received was false: that he was neither in a capacity, nor had any inclination to raise disturbances in Ireland; and concluded with entreating his excellency to have a kinder opinion of him—Cromwell, instead of making any reply, drew some papers out of his pocket, which were the copies of several letters the Lord Broghill had sent to those persons in whom he most confided, and put them into his hands. The Lord Broghill, upon the perusal of these papers, finding it was to no purpose to dissemble any longer, asked his excellency's pardon for what he had said, returned him his humble thanks for his protection against the committee, and intreated his directions how he ought to behave in so delicate a conjuncture. Cromwell told him, that though till this time he had been a stranger to his person, he was not so to his merit and character; that he had heard how gallantly his lordship had already behaved in the Irish wars; and therefore, since he was named lord lieutenant of Ireland, and the reducing that kingdom was now become his province, he had obtained leave of the committee to offer his lordship the command of a general officer, if he would serve in that war; that he should have no oaths or engagements imposed upon him, nor be obliged to draw his sword against any but the Irish rebels. The Lord Broghill was infinitely surprised at so generous and unexpected an offer. He saw himself at liberty by all the rules of honour, to serve against the Irish, whose rebellion and barbarities were equally detested by the royal party and the parliament. He desired, however, the general to give him some time to consider of what had been proposed to him. Cromwell briskly told him, that he must come to some resolution that very instant; that he himself was returning to the committee, who were still sitting, and, if his lordship rejected their offer, had determined to send him immediately to the Tower. The Lord Broghill finding that his liberty and life were in the utmost danger, and charmed with the frankness and generosity of Cromwell's behaviour, gave him his word and honor, that he would faithfully serve

against the Irish rebels. Upon which Cromwell once more assured him, that the conditions he had made with him should be punctually observed; and then ordered him to repair immediately to Bristol, to which place forces should be sent him, with a sufficient number of ships to transport them into Ireland. He added, that he himself would soon follow him; and was as good as his word in every particular."

The displacements of Irish proprietors, in order to make room for officers of Cromwell's army, too glaringly resemble those seizures of royalist and ecclesiastical property lately made in France, not to be viewed with a similar emotion. In poor countries, or poor times, when the revenues of a state are insufficient to recompense the efforts of armies, such measures have always been resorted to. There is, however, one other plan of provision, by which successful force may be bribed into tranquil alliance with the laws of property; namely, to grant according to his rank, a tenth, or twentieth, or hundredth part of the rental of a given parish, district, or hundred, to the individual officer who is to be recompensed. It is more equitable to assess all the proprietors, than to plunder some. In civil wars every one has a right to choose his side: after the battle, the winner must be provided for; but the less of vindictive retrospect to the unfortunate opinions, the better. Why should a passion for hereditary institutions, which originates in a love of order, or a passion for republican institutions, which originates in a love of liberty, be visited as crimes upon the principled enthusiast? Almost all counter-revolutions have originated in the persevering animosity of banished and plundered starvelings.

Neither from royalists nor republicans had the Irish protection, or justice. By the navigation-act passed under Charles II. their commercial privileges were restricted, under the absurd notion, that if one part of the empire thrives, that happens at the expence of every other. Under James II. the Irish made great efforts to defend their hereditary king against the intrusion of the house of Orange. This again occasioned confiscations without end. Surely the court of admiralty decided on opposite and juster principles than parliament; if the crews of privateers were not considered as pirates, which acted under letters of marque issued by James, while he lingered in Ireland.

In the year 1719, a private l Ireland, between Sherlock and gave rise to a controversy whe lay an appeal from the Irish tri the house of lords in Great-Brit was followed by an act of p the sixth of George I. asserti rect terms the right of the En liament to make statutes to people and kingdom of Ireland however, avail little, unless the approbation of the wise, tioned by the consent of the pe 1768, the Irish rejected a altered in England; and obt abridgement of their parliame tings, which formerly lasted life, to the period of eight yea parliaments are not desirable; than six years a demagogue c attach the public to himself, plan of measures. But it is v able to obtain *frequent* infusions inclination, that the bent of may be observed and attend that if one-third of the mem dismissed every two years, having cotemporary election whole, the public business wou ducted more naturally, and a appeal to the people would be concerning the management o lic affairs.

During the war with the No rican colonies, volunteers were throughout Ireland. By de questions of liberty and inde became topics of military curi free trade was obtained in 1 in 1782, the Rockingham admi removed those offensive re which rendered the Irish go subordinate to the British.

From the beginning of the George III. the narrative of M den becomes exceedingly deta exceedingly interesting. It doubt not, be read with lasti general approbation. There countries, which in every per history, and under all the var its opinions, have so uniformly ungenerous treatment as Irela from wondering at its insurrec wonders at its patience: far proving its barbarism, one ad degree of culture which it has k to retain in spite of the trampli anarchy, and the tearing ha military despotism. The usag sica by Genoa is the most a instance: the same system

ing; the same useless commercial
ppoly; the same interference with
e legislation; characterized there
etropolitan managers; but Ireland
o depend on a protestant sove-
ty, and in addition to civil had to
from religious intolerance and per-
on. And of all the periods of inte-
iffering, that probably will be consi-
as the severest, which intervened
en the recal of earl Fitzwilliam,
e dissolution of the anti-jacobin mi-
. We trust that the approaching
ment will be as conspicuous as the
injuries; and that the union so
ly accomplished will be the signal
liffusing civil, and extending reli-
liberty, for multiplying the fur-
of the plough, of the shuttle, and
keel; for invigorating commercial
ation, and for beckoning all the
of merit into conspicuity and re-
ence.

it is certainly incumbent on the
of Portland's party to account for
ot having resigned on Earl Fitz-
n's recal; if they wish to escape
arge of letting to the crown their
mentality, for the execution of de-
y harsh measures, which they all
nile disapproved, we shall extract
allusions to this circumstance.

Ir. Grattan, previous to the motion he
out to make, observed, that it had
serted, that in the conduct of the mi-
of the crown towards that country,
me could attach to the minister of
Britain, or to any of his colleagues.
not pretend to ascertain the real causes
recal of the late chief governor, but
formed, that two causes were alleged;
e removal of certain great officers, he
d, that such removal was matter of
ion on one side, and engagement on
er. He spoke of nothing of what he
nfidentially informed, but asserted
e knew was generally known, and re-
y communicated; he said, that the
; member of the coalition declared,
cepted office principally with a view
rm the abuses in the government of
l; that the system of that government
ecrable, so execrable as to threaten not
reland with the greatest misfortune,
timately the empire; that his Grace
have gone in person if he had not
a second self in Lord Fitzwilliam, his
and dearest friend, whom he persuad-
accept the Irish government, and to
he committed the important office of
ing the manifold abuses in that go-
ent.' That he had obtained, with re-
o that country, extraordinary power;
the information of that extraordinary power, he communicated to his Irish friend; he consulted members of the Irish opposition touching his arrangements of men and measures, and ardently espoused, as an essential arrangement, those principal removals, which were supposed to have occasioned the recal of the depufy; an explanation and limitation of his powers did indeed afterwards take place, but no such limitation or explanation as to defeat either the stipulated measures or the stipulated removals, one only excepted, which never took place. Another question now arose, whether that quarter of the cabinet could without blame recal the viceroy for carrying into execution those specific engagements; whether they could without blame recal their minister of reform, for removing, according to stipulation, some of the supposed ministers of abuse; and to continue the ministers of abuse in the place of the minister of reformation. He therefore concluded, that if the Irish removals were a ground for the viceroy's recal, blame did attach at least to one quarter of the British cabinet.

"The second alleged cause was, the catholic bill. Upon this the principles and declarations of that quarter were decided; the catholic emancipation was not only the concession of that quarter of the cabinet, but its precise engagement. His friends repeatedly declared they never would support any government, that should resist that bill, and it was agreed by that quarter with concurrence; and he was informed from persons in whom he could not but confide, of another; that the instruction was, if the catholics insisted to carry forward their bill, that the government should give it a handsome support. Before he concluded his speech, he thus summed up the acts of earl Fitzwilliam's administration: it had paid attention to the poverty of the people, by plans for relieving the poor from hearth-money, and paid attention to their morals, by a plan increasing the duty on spirits; had paid attention to their health, by proposing to take off the duties on beer and ale; that a plan for education had been intended; that a more equal trade between the two countries had not escaped their attention; that an odious and expensive institution that obtained under colour of protecting the city by a bad police, was abandoned by that government, and a bill prepared for correcting the same; that a responsibility bill had been introduced, and a bill to account for the public money by new checks, and in a constitutional manner, had been introduced by the persons connected with that government; that it was in contemplation to submit for consideration some further regulation for the better accounting for the public money, and for the better collection of the revenue; that those occupations were accompanied by great exertions for the empire; so that administration established the compatibility of the services, do-

Digitized by Google

mestic and imperial, and made a good system of domestic government the foundation of unanimity in support of the empire; that in consequence of such a conduct, a war not very fortunate, had ceased to be unpopular, and levies of an extraordinary proportion were not a ground of complaint. In the midst of all this, the British cabinet dissolved the government, and professed to dissolve it for the preservation of the empire. They converted a nation of support into a nation of remonstrance, and unanimity in favour of government to unanimity against her."

This history is continued with instructive minuteness through the whole of the late rebellion, of which however the civil rather than the military history is given, and to the final accomplishment of the union; an event, says Mr. Plowden, affording the sure means of conciliating the affections, consolidating the energies, and promoting the prosperities of every part of the British empire.

This work is in its execution meritorious; in its tendency useful; in its appearance seasonable. Its chief
the want of proportion: the ea
tory from Henry the second t
being excessively abbreviated;
late transactions excessively ex
If the work professedly contain
the history of Ireland, from th
sion of the house of Hanover to
sent time, it might have been con
into two quartos, and would ha
passed for a completer work.
commend to the author to rev
expand the earlier portion of his
and if the immediate diffusion
book is, as we sincerely believe,
tant to the consolidation of that
spirit, without which the consti
junction will little avail, between
nations; rather to let his octavo
begin with the accession of the S

A copious appendix of stat
and other documents is annexed
again might partly be omitted in
edition for popular circulation.

ART. VIII. *Historical View of the English Government, from the Settlement of t
in Britain to the Revolution of* 1688. *By* JOHN MILLAR, Esq. 4 vol. 8vo.

OF the two first volumes of this work a quarto edition was published in 1787. It was received with that select approbation which surpasses popularity, in the estimate of a writer of judgment and intellect. The distinguished author is now no more: his surviving friends, with a becoming solicitude for the public instruction, have republished the Historical View of the English Government, which extended to the accession of the house of Stuart; and have annexed the finished Continuation, which extends to the Revolution, and which occupies the third volume; and also some unfinished chapters and fragments, which were to have included a critical estimate of the present times. These chapters and fragments fill the fourth volume of this edition. The whole work, and this is high praise, is worthy of the author of an Enquiry into the Origin of Ranks.

Several continental writers have acquired diffusive reputation by treating on the philosophy of history: among the French, Voltaire, by his Essay on the Manners and Spirit of Nations since Charlemagne: among the Germans, Herder, by his Philosophy of History, and Adelung, by his History of Culture. It cannot be too often repeated, that

permanent revolutions are the
general causes; and that the e
individual ability vanish with
vidual, whenever he is not the
a sect, the instrument of a pa
chieftain of a confederacy, or t
sentative of a multitude. A g
is the tongue or the hand of
party. Laws and institutions
result of predisposing causes,
personal caprice; else they n
dure: so that, in the general
things, that which is natural
comes to pass: the crimes of fa
the martyrdoms of enthusiasm,
less alike: the quiet perseverin
it" of the numerous classes, e
conquers all the resistance of
faction, or of established powe

Among the philosophers of
professor Millar merits a high
the highest, rank. The saga
which he detects and indicates
remote periods, those predisp
cumstances, which produced
ral flow of event, is wholly u
His generalizations, or theore
rences, are numerous and very i
His knowledge of human na
seem confined to man in the ab
his indifference to individual

Digitized by Google

phic as to be mortifying; yet his
ons evince deep penetration, and
assions a discriminating subtlety.
the intention of the author to
ivided his commentary on the
ubsequent to the accession of the
f Stuart into two parts: the first
nending the history of those con-
ween prerogative and privilege,
y the Revolution in 1688 were
ed in a manner so consonant
spirit of the nation, and so
ory to the happiness of the peo-
second containing the rise and
of the influence of the crown,
nce which, though in some mea-
cked by the general diffusion of
ge, and the advancement of the
s to become the more dangerous
onstitution, as its slow and in-
advances are less apt to excite
. This second part only is im-
a loss the more to be lamented
friend to literature and liberty;
uld no doubt have contained
le suggestions for the remedy of
ce which is, in our own times,
l distemper, the baleful com-
e gnawing cancer of the coun-

work is prefixed, an eloquent
to Mr. Fox: it may be con-
the parting advice of disin-
visdom, and will encourage
of the philosopher to rely on
man for the indication of the
e remedy for the disorders of
ution of the country.
hose portions of the work,
e already attained, in the pub-
ion, a classical rank, it would
s to select specimens: we pass
fore, to some characteristic
on the execution of Charles

ial and execution of Charles was
ntended for the purpose of intro-
epublican form of government;
ing as we hold such a revolution
o expedient, or the contrary, we
to condemn, or approve of that

ming the general question, whe-
rnment of this nature was, at
, accommodated to the circum-
he English nation, it may be dif-
orm a decisive opinion. Many
have asserted, that a republican
is peculiarly adapted to a small
cannot be maintained in a large
. This doctrine seems to have
a view of the ancient republics,

in which the whole people composed the legislative assembly; and is evidently inapplicable to those modern systems of democracy, in which the legislative power is committed to national representatives. Nothing is more common than for philosophers to be imposed upon by the different acceptation of words. The nations of antiquity having no notion of a representative government, countries of large extent were subjected universally to an arbitrary and slovenly despotism; and it was only in a few small states that it was thought practicable for the mass of the people to retain, in their own hands, the supreme powers of public administration. The expedient, employed first in modern times, of substituting representatives, in place of the whole people, to exercise the supreme powers in the state, has removed the difficulty of communicating a popular constitution to countries of a great extent; as it may prevent the legislative assembly from being too numerous, either for maintaining good order in its deliberations, or for superintending the conduct of the chief executive officers.

"If, by a republic, is meant a government in which there is no king, or hereditary chief magistrate, it should seem, that this political system is peculiarly adapted to the two extremes, of a very small and a very great nation. In a very small state, no other form of government can subsist. Suppose a territory, containing no more than 30,000 inhabitants, and these paying taxes, one with another, at the rate of thirty shillings yearly; this would produce a public revenue, at the disposal of the crown, amounting annually to 45,000l. a sum totally insufficient for supporting the dignity and authority of the crown, and for bestowing on the king an influence superior to that which might be possessed by casual combinations of a few of his richest subjects.

"Suppose, on the other hand, a territory so extensive and populous as to contain thirty millions of inhabitants, paying taxes in the same proportion; this, at the free disposal of a king, would bestow upon him an annual revenue, so enormous as to create a degree of patronage and influence which no regulations could effectually restrain, and would render every attempt to limit the powers of the crown in a great measure vain and insignificant. In such a state, therefore, it seems extremely difficult to maintain the natural rights of mankind otherwise than by abolishing monarchy altogether. Thus, in a very small state, a democratical government is necessary, because the king would have too little authority; in a very great one, because he would have too much. In a state of moderate size, lying in a certain medium between the two extremes, it should seem, that monarchy may be established with advantage, and that the crown may be expected to possess a sufficient share of authority for its own preservation, without

Digitized by Google

endangering the people from the encroachments of prerogative. How far England was in these circumstances at the period in question, I shall not pretend to determine."

The character of Cromwell is discussed with interesting detail, and his reign examined with curious severity; but it will be more instructive to hear our author on the topic of the revolution settlement.

"Of all the great revolutions recorded in the history of ancient or of modern times, that which happened in England, in the year 1688, appears to have been productive of the least disorder, and to have been conducted in a manner the most rational, and consistent with the leading principles of civil society. When a sovereign has violated the fundamental laws of the constitution, and shewn a deliberate purpose of persevering in acts of tyranny and oppression, there cannot be a doubt but that the people are entitled to resist his encroachments, and to adopt such precautions as are found requisite for the preservation of their liberty. To deny this, would be to maintain that government is intended for the benefit of those who govern, not of the whole community; and, that the general happiness of the human race ought to be sacrificed to the private interest, or caprice, of a few individuals. It cannot, however, be supposed, that such resistance will ever be effected without some disturbance, and without a deviation from those forms and rules which are observed in the ordinary course of administration. When the machine is out of order, it must be taken to pieces; and in the repairing and cleaning of the wheels and springs, there must be some interruption and derangement of its movements. When a general reformation of government has become indispensible, it must be conducted according to the exigency of times and circumstances; and few situations will occur, in which it is practicable without many temporary inconveniences, or even without violence and bloodshed. It is the part of prudence and of justice, in those cases, to adopt such measures as are likely to produce the end in view with the least possible hardship; so that, although violent and irregular, they may be justified by the great law of necessity.

"In consequence of a very general and pressing invitation from the English nobility and gentry, the prince of Orange, about the end of the year 1688, landed, with an armed force, in England; and immediately published a declaration, that the sole purpose of his undertaking, was to obtain the dismission of the roman catholics from those offices of trust which they held contrary to law, and the calling of a free parliament for the redress of grievances. Though the nation was in some measure apprised of this event, yet, intimidated by the unu
ation, they remained, for a short t
solute and in suspense; but soon
universal approbation of the ente
manifest from the conduct of the
all quarters, who resorted to the p
formed an association to support
sures. The king found himself d
those upon whose fidelity he had
son to rely; even by his own fa
prince and princess of Denmark,
great part of that army which he
vided to enforce his authority.

"In this alarming conjuncture
have been expected that James, t
himself from the difficulties in wh
involved, would have embraced o
of two different plans. By en
the present danger with firmness
lution, by collecting the forces
still faithful to him, and by endea
scatter dissension among his ene
notwithstanding their union in de
free parliament, were far from co
their political opinions, he mig
have been successful, in defending
at least, in protracting the war, t
obtain assistance from France.
liatory measures, on the other
giving way to the complaints of
by assembling a new parliament
mitting to certain restraints upon
gative, he might have endeavo
the nation in security, trusting t
ture opportunity of retracting
those concessions. If either of
however liable to censure, had be
it is likely that the consequences
lic would have been fatal. B
James was thrown into such c
as to be incapable of persisting i
resolution. Yielding to the im
fear and despondency, he quit
the field of action, and withdr
present, into a foreign countr
imprudent step, the remains of
came quite disheartened, and we
in a condition to oppose the new

"The prince of Orange, ha
enemy to cope with, proceeded
the task he had undertaken, by
the people themselves, the red
own grievances, and by employi
which he possessed, for no o
than that of securing to them
of settling their own governm
the absence of the king, the ord
of the constitution could not be
most rational and proper exp
adopted to supply the defici
prince invited all those who ha
bers of any of the three last pa
hold a meeting for the purpo
their advice in the present conj
their direction, he called a conv
posed of the usual members of
peers, and of the representatives
ties and boroughs, elected in th

Digitized by Google

n a regular parliament. This meet-
embling at a time when the whole
was in a ferment, and when the peo-
ring arms in their hands, were capa-
making an effectual opposition, its
nations, which passed, not only
censure, but with strong marks of
pprobation and satisfaction, must be
rd as the voice of the community at
elivered with as much formality, and
ner as unexceptionable as the nature
would permit. In this convention
articles of the revolution-settle-
e adjusted; though to remove, as
sible, every appearance of objection,
afterwards confirmed by the sanc-
regular parliament.

t the king, who had shewn such a
ed resolution to overturn the reli-
government of the kingdom, and
son, then an infant, who, it was
would be educated in the same
, and until he should arrive at the
nhood, would be under the direc-
s father, and of his father's coun-
at those two persons, whatever
the reverence paid to their title,
excluded from the throne, was, in
t state of the nation, rendered in-
necessary. In the convention,
his point was not settled without
itation and controversy. The
parties who, since the reign of
First, in a great measure divided
m, had shewn themselves almost
posed to resist the arbitrary mea-
nes for introducing the popish re-
t though a great part of the tories
he terror of popery, joined in the
to the prince of Orange, that he
t them with a foreign army, to
redress of grievances; no sooner
elivered from their immediate ap-
, than they seemed to repent of
ss, relapsed into their old politi-
s, and resumed their former doc-
assive obedience. They at least
e doctrines so far as to maintain,
ple had no right, upon any abuse
power, or upon any pretence
punish the sovereign, or de-
the sovereignty; and that even
e king to have resigned or aban-
oyal dignity, the throne could
at account, be rendered vacant,
mediately be filled by the prince
whom, upon the death of his
crown must be instantly trans-
cording to this view, it was con-
, in the present emergency, the
on should be committed to a
her in the name of James, if he
nsidered merely as absent; or in
his son, if the father had actu-
ed the sovereignty.

higs, though they entertained
notions of government, were
fall out with their present con-

federates, and endeavoured by a temporising system, to avoid unnecessary disputes upon abstract political questions, and to render the new settlement, as much as possible, unanimous and permanent.

"It is a matter of curiosity to observe the public debates on this important occasion; in which the natural spirit and feelings of men, made up for the narrowness of their philosophical principles; and in which a feigned and ridiculous pretence was employed to justify a measure which they did not scruple to execute. They supposed that, by leaving the kingdom, James had abdicated the government; instead of boldly asserting that, by his gross misbehaviour, he had forfeited his right to the crown. That James made his escape rather than comply with the desires of his people, or assemble a parliament to deliberate upon the redress of grievances, was the real state of the fact.—But that he meant by this to yield up, or relinquish his authority, there certainly was no ground to imagine. His flight was the effect of his obstinacy and his fear; and was calculated to procure the protection of a foreign power, by whose aid he entertained the prospect of being soon reinstated in his dominion. We cannot help pitying the most enlightened friends of liberty, when we see them reduced, on that occasion, to the necessity of softening the retreat of James, and his attempt to overturn the government, by regarding them as a virtual renunciation of his trust, or voluntary abdication of his crown; instead of holding them up in their true colours, of crimes, deserving the highest punishment, and for which the welfare of society required, that he should at least be deprived of his office.

"In Scotland, where a majority of the people were presbyterians, and felt an utter abhorrence, not only of popery, but of that episcopal hierarchy to which they had been forcibly subjected, and where the reformation, as I formerly took notice, had diffused among all ranks, a more literary and inquiring spirit than was known in England; the convention, which was likewise called by the prince of Orange for the same purpose as in the latter country, discovered, or at least uttered, without any subterfuge, more manly and liberal sentiments. 'The estates of the kingdom found and declared, that James VII. had invaded the fundamental laws of this kingdom, and altered it from a legal and limited monarchy, to an arbitrary despotic power; and had governed the same to the subversion of the protestant religion, and violation of the laws and liberties of the nation, inverting all the ends of government; whereby he had forfeited the crown, and the throne was become vacant.'

"But though the language employed by the leaders in the English convention, was accommodated to the narrow prejudices of the times, their measures were dictated by sound and liberal policy. Setting aside the

Digitized by Google

king, and the prince of Wales, in consequence of the declaration already made, the right of succession to the crown devolved upon the princess of Orange, the king's eldest daughter, who had been educated in the protestant religion, and was thought to be under no disqualification from holding the reins of government. There was no intention of converting the constitution into an elective monarchy, or of deviating further from the lineal course of inheritance than the present exigence required. The same circumstances, however, which demanded the advancement of the princess of Orange to the throne, made it also necessary that the regal authority should be communicated to her husband. It would have been absurd to banish an arbitrary and despotical prince, to break the line of descent, by which the crown was commonly transmitted, and, for promoting the great ends of society, to run the hazards always attendant on the correcting former abuses, without making, at the same time, a suitable provision for maintaining the new settlement. But the state of Britain, and of Europe, rendered this a difficult matter. From the efforts of the popish party at home, from the power of Lewis XIV. and the machinations of the whole Roman catholic interest abroad; not to mention the prepossessions of the populace in favour of that hereditary succession to the crown which old usage had rendered venerable, there was every reason to fear a second restoration, with consequences more fatal than those which had attended the former. Against those impending calamities, nothing less than the abilities, and the authority of the prince of Orange, the head of the protestant interest in Europe, could be deemed a sufficient guard; and it was happy for the liberties of mankind, that the matrimonial connection of Mary with a person so eminent, and so circumstanced, had, by suggesting his participation of her throne, provided a barrier so natural, and so effectual.

"From these considerations, the prince and princess of Orange were declared, by the convention, to be king and queen of England; but the administration of the government, was committed solely to the prince. After determining this great point, the convention, in imitation of the mode of procedure at the restoration, was, by a bill passing through the two houses, and obtaining the royal assent, converted into a parliament; and that assembly proceeded immediately to a redress of grievances."

The fourth volume contains
of the government of Ireland;
mate of the political consequenc
revolution; a discussion of th
quences to civil liberty arising f
advancement of commerce and n
tures; a disquisition on the se
of the different branches of kn
and on the progress and influen
liberal arts, and of fine literatur

These chapters do not com
much original matter: they ar
selected from favourite writers,
Adam Smith; and seem to con
arranged pebbles of the future
but to await the glue, or cement
was to consolidate and to give
geneous tinge to the delineation
abound with incorrectnesses, pro
the press, especially where prop
or quotations from the foreign la
occur. A quarto impression of t
tional matter will, no doubt, be
ken, in order to accommodate the
sers of the former edition: we t
care will be taken to request so
of letters to overlook the proofs
consecrate a biographical monu
the remembrance of talents, wh
given esteem to liberty and lust
country. The dissertation on th
of ranks might be included in
lection.

This department of speculatio
from exhausted: it is to be wis
every leading train of historic
had thus its theoretical comm
The moral of history is often m
sible to the reader than to the
The office of the philosopher m
diently be separated from that
historian. The investigation of
be more impartial, if no theore
ferences are kept in view; and
tical inferences will be more e
if derived from an equally atten
vey of the whole mass of event
rivetted to particular periods
cumstances by those occasiona
cations of research, which the
of local and incidental inve
often imposes on the professed
cler.

Art. IX. *The History of the Wars which arose out of the French Revolu
which is prefixed, a Review of the Causes of that Event.* By Alexander St
4to. 2 vols. pp. about 1300.

THE first duty of an historian is information, the second fidelity, the third beauty. He has no pretensions at all, who has not something

Digitized by Google

tell us of the event he narrates, than had already reached us through the channeled courses of intelligence. He who perversely employs his superior knowledge, who comments the chronicle of ages, like Voltaire, in order to extract from it, for the statesman, rules of conduct, in which experience offers him no sufficient countenance, injures the community in which he is trusted; although, by provoking fresh experiments, he eventually rectifies the general sentiment. He who wants the graces and amenities of diction, rather injures himself than his readers; he prevents the circulation, but he does not corrupt the moral of his tale: he has still expounded the voice of the event, and taught the lessons of experience.

The author of the history before us has not, we think, displayed all the information which the subject admitted. In domestic sources of intelligence he is indeed rich; and beside the printed documents so abundantly supplied by our newspapers, registers and pamphlets, he has availed himself of much oral information, from naval and military men present at the engagements narrated. Wherever the fortunes of the English arms are concerned, that sort of pains seems to have been taken, which ought to be the foundation of a primary narrative, on which public criticism has here and there to hang its amendments. In French sources of intelligence, there is no very marked oversight; but no very meritorious abundance of research. In Italian and German consultation, there is a sensible deficiency: *Posselt's Tagebuch*, or Journal of the War, for instance, which contains very interesting particulars, especially of the campaigns in Germany, and which had every claim to attentive and perpetual reference, is not among the authorities cited.

Of the fidelity and impartiality of the relation, we form, on the whole, a favourable opinion. The author shows indeed, at the beginning of the war, some leaning toward the cause of the French; but it was at that time the cause of liberty really, and of human happiness apparently; so that to have any other bias would, in justice, be a ground of reproach.

The style has most beauty where it is least burnish: an attempt at the sententious condensation of Tacitus is made in the preface and introduction; but the clearness and interest of the narrative gain in proportion, as the historian by profession disappears. We shall extract, from the preface, the author's outline of his argument:

"At no period either in ancient or in modern times have the revered names of religion, liberty, and social order, been so frequently invoked or so audaciously prostituted; and it is to be feared, that the civil rights of individuals, as well as that system of public morals called the law of nations, have received a deep and incurable wound.

"But, on the other hand, it is a series of singular, magnificent, and disastrous events, like that just alluded to, which affords suitable imagery for narrative, and constitutes at once the miseries of society and the materials for history. He who is destined to detail recent transactions, if actuated by the spirit of truth and independence, will have to recapitulate such a multitude of enormities, that the reigns of Nero and Domitian must appear less intolerable from comparison. The murder of prisoners in open day; the public detention and assassination of ambassadors; the uncontroled reign of that panic terror which appalled the innocent, and not unfrequently spared the guilty; the triumph of men of blood over the public enemy as well as the most virtuous of their fellow citizens; one faction swallowing up another, while the instrument of destruction was stretched forth, and the tomb yawned, for the victors; a frantic populace dividing the palpitating members of their victims, and a king coolly murdering those subjects who had yielded to the faith of a solemn treaty; the torture, at once the mark of a barbarous age and the opprobrium of a civilized one, publicly inflicted; while, as if to form a climax and realise the metaphor of the ancient poets, the dogs of war were literally unchained, and the canine race employed to hunt down the human species;—such is the galaxy of crimes presented during this night of wonders.

"Yet, notwithstanding these hideous pictures, Europe has displayed many uncommon instances of heroism, and some scenes have occurred in a neighbouring country, which surpass all that is to be found during the boasted reigns of Marcus Aurelius and the Antonines. Never did any nation exhibit such magnanimity, when threatened with subjugation, slavery, and dismemberment, on the part of the combined monarchs of the continent. Never did so many orators, philosophers, men of letters, and statesmen, evince such a perilous and deadly enmity to anarchy, injustice, and bloodshed; or prefer with so much readiness the uplifted axe of the executioner to the scorn of their contemporaries and the reproaches of posterity.—Even the softer sex, assuming a masculine courage, maintained their principles on the scaffold, and perished without a sigh before the statue of outraged liberty.

"The art of war too, during this memor-

Digitized by Google

able period, has been carried to a greater degree of perfection than in any former age; and the young tacticians of the new school have overcome generals grown hoary under arms. The machinery of battles has been calculated on a more gigantic scale; fleets have not only fought with greater fierceness, but exhibited evolutions hitherto unknown or unpractised; a single army sometimes extended its wings from the frontiers of France to the heart of Italy, while at other periods, one immense line of soldiers has occupied the intervening countries from the banks of the Rhine to the shores of the Adriatic."

The introduction is too far fetched. Its first section contains an historical survey of the conquests and jurisprudence of the Romans, which are certainly not among the predisposing causes of the revolution of France. The origin of the feudal system deserved indeed enquiry; because its overthrow constitutes the most characteristic feature of the legislative innovations of the Parisians. The history and progress of the anti-christian sect merited perhaps a more minute investigation, as it formed the fanatical substratum, the bond of opinion, which had most influence in confederating the disinterested zeal of the French.

The first book begins with the declaration of war, and extends to the retreat of the Prussians. More attention should have been paid by an English historian of these transactions, to the share and the narrative of General Money.

The second book extends from the capture of Worms, to the political embarrassment of Dumourier.

The third book includes the execution of Louis XVI. and the subsequent operations, to the failure of the Duke of York before Dunkirk. A just censure on the conduct of the admiralty, is temperately passed in these words:

"Thus ended the fatal attempt upon Dunkirk, in the course of which the English army assuredly did not receive that assistance and co-operation by sea, which it was in the power of a great maritime nation to have afforded; while the enemy by their numbers, their audacity, and their zeal, demonstrated that although the ruling party was capable of the most enormous crimes, it at the same time knew how to inspire enthusiasm, and ensure victory. So far were the French from being dazzled with the late success, and the subsequent capture of Furnes and Menin, that Houchard was immediately arrested, and soon after put to death, because he had not completed his triumph by the capture of the army destined to besiege Dunkirk. On the other hand, care was taken to reward such officers as had distinguished themselves; and Jourdan, who had attacked the right and centre of the camp at Hondschoote, as well as Hoche, who had charged the left wing, were both promoted; a decree passed at the same time, declaring, "that the army of the North had deserved well of the country;" and the representatives on mission were enjoined to transmit a detailed account of the heroic exploits of the defenders of the republic."

The fourth book is occupied partly with the operations of the combined fleets in the Mediterranean, and partly with the campaign on the Rhine, of which Hoche and Pichegru changed the fortune.

The fifth book narrates the immense, the mortifying, the irreversable successes of France in 1794 and 1795. The reconquest of Austrian Flanders, the overrunning of Holland, the acquisitions along the Rhine, the seisure of the gates of Italy, successively occur, like the messengers of woe, in the fifth act of a tragedy, with long catalogues of certain disasters, and the expectation of approaching and greater devastation. The darkness of the picture is somewhat relieved by maritime triumph.

Of the second volume, the first book comprehends the treaties of peace with Tuscany, Prussia, Spain, Hanover, Hesse, and the insurgents of La Vendée. The conquests, or rather acquisitions of the English at Ceylon and the Cape, and their naval campaigns in the West Indies and in the Mediterranean, are also included. Bonaparte's brilliant success in Italy; Moreau's respectable management in Germany; and the unwise evacuation of Corsica, were worthy to have formed a separate subdivision.

The second book traces the progress of the war, from the treaty of Leoben to the capture of Minorca. Bonaparte's seisure of Malta, is a fragment which it will yet be interesting to extract, as the fortunes of the island continue to engage a zealotry of hostile attention, more than commensurate with its statistical value.

"This little island, which was defended by its gallant knights for more than two hundred years against the whole power of the Mussulman empire, and had expelled the Sultaun Solyman with immense slaughter about the middle of the sixteenth century, was strongly fortified on all sides, but Valetta constituted its chief defence. That city is built on a peninsula; its walls are for the

Digitized by Google

most part surrounded by the waves, and it is built on the declivity of a hill called Scebera. The front which looks towards the sea, and is protected by the castle of St. Elmo, has always been considered as inexpugnable; that flank facing the principal harbour is defended by Ricasoli and the castle of St. Angelo, while the forts Manoel and Tigné guard it on the side of Mursa Murcet. Bastions, cavaliers, covered-ways, the Bourg, Burmola, the Cotoner, in short, all the means of defence that the genius of Vulpurga could point out, had been employed.

"As every thing was considered as subordinate to the protection of Valetta, the old city, nearly in the centre of the island, was only intended to hold out during a few hours; neither could the entrenchment called Nasciar, constructed along the chain of hills which traverses Malta, long resist a powerful enemy; but ample precautions were taken to prevent a disembarcation. Batteries and towers had been erected for this purpose on every point, the chief of which are demonstrated St. Paul and Marsa Sirocco, built so as to command two of the ports, and produce a cross-fire of red-hot bullets. In addition to this, the rocks were cut at intervals into the form of immense mortars, and being loaded with grape-shot, are so calculated as to overwhelm the invaders with inevitable destruction. In short, according to the system of defence laid down for Malta, it might be considered as impregnable if maintained with skill and courage.

"The progress of the revolution had been highly disadvantageous to the order of St. John: but an emperor, smitten with the love of chivalry, had lately evinced a partiality to its institutions; and the head of the Greek church, although considered as a schismatic by this orthodox confraternity, promised to restore the consequence of knights, whose splendor had been eclipsed in consequence of the lack of zeal on the part of the christian princes of the north in a former age, and the French revolutionists during the present. —The Count Ferdinand de Hompesch, descended from an ancient and illustrious family, and the first grand-master who had ever been a German, presided at this moment as the sovereign. The chevaliers were in number three hundred and thirty-two; but as fifty were incapable of service on account of their age, two hundred and eighty-two only were able to carry arms. The troops and militia, consisting of seventeen thousand two hundred and eighty-two men, were capable of affording a formidable resistance, but they were not actuated by similar motives. Great dissentions had unfortunately taken place between the order and its subjects; the latter were accordingly disaffected; many of the French knights were also dazzled with the glory lately acquired by their country; and the arrival of the conqueror of Italy, supported by a numerous army and powerful fleet, was calculated to make a great impression on all the other tongues.

"However, the grand master, on the first appearance of an armament which still continued to keep all Europe in suspense, had assembled the militia, ordered the troops kept in reserve to march into the forts, and all the necessary preparations to be made for the defence of the island. The great council, consisting of twenty grand commanders, priors, baillies, treasurers, an admiral, a bishop, and a grand chancellor, were assembled; the Prince Camille de Rohan, as seneschal, mustered the armed inhabitants; the bailli de Loras, as marshal, undertook the defence of Valetta; the old city was regulated, according to established custom, by a Maltese governor; all the commanders repaired to their respective posts, and the galleys then cruising were enjoined to return immediately.

"In the mean time, Bonaparte only wanted a pretext to seize on the island: he began therefore by demanding leave for his fleet to enter the port; on this the grand master and council informed the Consul of France, that it was contrary to the laws of the order that all the squadron should enter, but that every necessary refreshment should be distributed among the soldiers and seamen. No sooner was this answer made public than the commander Bosredon Rasijeat, after reading a letter from Dolomieu, another chevalier, then on board of the Orient, informed his chief 'that he begged leave to resign his employment, as he had only sworn to wage war against the Turks, and was not disposed to carry arms against his countrymen.'

"By break of day next morning all the boats of the fleet were seen rowing to the shore, and a letter was presented to the grand master from the representative of France, threatening to obtain by force what had been so inhospitably denied; but at the same time promising to respect the religion, customs, and property, of the Maltese. The debarcation, however, was not effected until seven o'clock at night, when the soldiers were landed at the roadsted of la Madelaine, the only place in the island where the rocks were neither mined nor cut into mortars; ample means of defence, however, presented themselves, and the progress of the enemy might have been instantly arrested. Inclination alone was wanting. After firing a single cannon, the knight who commanded the tower of St. George deserted with his garrison to the enemy. The battery at the point of St. Julian was also abandoned, and the regiment of militia of Birkarhara, posted there, took refuge under the cannon of fort Manoel.

"While terror and distrust seized on all in consequence of these unexpected events, a report was suddenly spread and believed, that all the French, Spanish, and most of the Italian knights, had entered into a conspiracy

Digitized by Google

with the enemy, who by this time had advanced to the entrenchments of Nasciar, and seized on all the artillery, now abandoned by the fugitives. A picquet of cavalry, sent by the grand master to the old city, was, nearly at the same time, refused entrance by the governor, who, as well as the regiment stationed there, stated that they were determined not to quarrel with the French.

"Notwithstanding this general defection, the grand seneschal established his headquarters at Floriana, the bailli de Clugny assumed the command of Fort Ricasoli, the bailli Tomasi remained firm at his post, and the fire of the forts St. Elmo and Tigné produced great execution; while a sally was made with a galley and two galliots, which cannonaded the French shallops, still employed in carrying fresh troops, and sunk two of them.

"But the dawn of the succeeding morning discovered that the enemy had encircled the city, stopped the supplies of provisions and ammunition, and were erecting redoubts to batter the place. On this the confusion soon became general; nine hundred of the regular troops refused to attack a post occupied by the enemy; whole companies of militia expressed a determination not to be shut up within the fortifications, and it was found necessary to relieve all the posts commanded by the French chevaliers.

"At length the nobles, the advocates, and the burghers, who had retired from different parts of the island into the city, on the approach of evening surrounded the palace of the grand master, and stated, that as there could no longer be any doubt of treachery, they had drawn up a declaration and presented it to the Dutch consul, intimating their resolution of surrendering to the French; it was added, that they had requested him to transmit the capitulation to Bonaparte, either with or without the consent of the order. Several of the knights were at the same time massacred, a bloody head was carried about on a pike, and it was with great difficulty that the chevaliers of the priories of Castille and Bavaria could prevent the minister of Russia from being killed during the tumult. The doors of the council chamber were soon after burst open, the bodies of the murdered chevaliers presented to the members, and the sovereign himself threatened with death.

"During this dreadful period of suspense, Ransijcat, who had been released from prison, Formosa, the consul of Holland, Doublet, the under-secretary of state, the bailli Frisari, and the chevalier Amati, minister from Spain, were sent by the insurgents to the French camp, where they obtained an armistice during twenty-four hours, and the terms of capitulation were immediately debated upon and agreed; but neither the grand master, nor the council, nor the congregation of state, affixed their signatures.

"At length the French entered the city, and seized on all the posts; while R and Doublet presided over the munic and regulated the internal police."

The third book begins with th ture of Naples, and ends with t Seringapatam. We know not w these oriental transactions belon the proper subject of our author. conquest of Mysore, would equall taken place from motives of local tion and opportunity, whether Britain had engaged or not in th of the French revolution; and reasonably be doubted, whether t tinction of a French interest in H tan, will not too speedily endan allegiance of the whole mass of o ental possessions. The conquest nada was the loss of North Ar that of Pondicherry and Ceylo Mysore, may convince our Ind vernment, that it no longer ne European protector. Under th chievous subdivision of authori tween the company and the b controul, one of the parties will discontented. The commercial of London, will probably favour liance of the state with the weake er, and occasion a wish for sep under the pretence, or for the obtaining that unrestricted inter which, if granted by the courage statesmen, would have operate connecting cement, and a thi bond of union.

The eighth chapter of this bo rates that unfortunate expedition land, the causes of whose failure covered with a veil; which, for struction of those who may hav new a similar attempt, it would sirable to draw aside.

The fourth book opens with cession of Bonaparte; and the nate, the uncivil, the unwise, th countable refusal of Lord Gre treat with him. It includes th of Egypt, which are continued fifth and concluding book. Th and final chapter, records the tions which terminated in the t Amiens.

The results of this long an wasting war, are thus, with co precision, summed up by the ju of the author:

"The exertions of Britain durin volutionary war, are unequalled pe

Digitized by Google

nals of any nation. Two hundred sail -of-battle ships, a military force of an half a million of men, near twenty s sterling paid in loans and subsidies, ic debt, before deemed intolerable, d to a frightful magnitude, and an im- annual taxation doubled: such have e efforts of a people who had acquired y the wholesome spirit of their an- stitutions, a generous love of liberty, toleration in respect to religion, the on of manufactures, and an unre- commerce.

nation ever suffered equal privations ater manfulness. The stockholder is capital diminished more than one peasant saw the price of his loaf ipled, without a murmur; while the cheerfully yielded to the fiscal regu- nown by the detested names of the essment and the income-tax. But ed men were shocked at the raise- ted by those who reclined their heads s of down, while their fellow sub- frequently arrested on suspicion, for months without trial, or tried rime. It was considered as an in- outrage, that the punishment re- convicted felons should be applied icted traitors; and history has to thout a blush, that solitary impri- for the first time since the revolu- practised in one country by the ex- , and torture inflicted in another t permission, of Englishmen.

g the course of this conflict, Bri- victorious in every sea, and success- y naval battle; the capture of near f-war, of which upwards of eighty of the line, fully attests this me- let, and exhibits nobler trophies ever won before by any other na- was any quarter of the globe ex- her conquests. In America, she obago, part of St. Domingo, the Martinico, St. Lucia, and Guada- the French; Trinidad from the Demerary, Issequibo, Surinam, Berbice, and St. Eustatia, from the the East Indies, Pondicherry, Ceylon, Amboyna, and Banda, er to her arms or influence. In ree, the Cape of Good Hope, Egypt, by turns confessed the e conqueror; while in Europe, Minorca, Corsica, and Malta, either by capitulation, or were subju- ree.

ely any state in want of treasure ce, but was either supplied with , or protected by the fleets and ar- is nation; and no less than two three kings, one queen, with a of petty but independent princes, ionally ranked among her subsi-

"In addition to this, and by a rare instance of good fortune hitherto unexampled in any history, although the manufactures of England drooped, and many of her artisans were forced by dire necessity to wield those arms they had before fabricated, yet her commerce flourished and even increased during the war.

"This tide of prosperity, however, has been productive of but little permanent advantage; for after the expenditure of at least one hundred and fifty thousand lives and some hundreds of millions of money, the island of Ceylon in the Indian, and that of Trinidad in the Atlantic, ocean, are all that remain of her numerous conquests: nor ought it to be forgotten, that one of her allies has been stripped of his dominions on the continent; another has been driven into exile; and that the rest have consented to the most humiliating sacrifices to obtain safety and peace.

"Ever prepared to avenge insulted honour, or redress national wrongs, it is to be hoped, that Britain will continue to combat by means of the same arms which have so frequently ensured success; and that with the extended trident of Neptune she will, as before, beat down the boasted spear of Minerva.

"But, with these exceptions alone, it is her interest to sacrifice at the altar of peace; to ply the loom and the shuttle; to cultivate the surface of the earth for the purposes of agriculture; to raise the minerals from its bowels for the service of social life; to unbend the sail of commerce to the gale; to cover the ocean with her fleets; and never to engage in any but a just, necessary, and popular war, the aim of which is defined, and the object attainable."

The appendix contains the state-papers which were most necessary to elucidate the narrative: the requisite maps are inserted in their proper places. The whole work will be perused with interest and approbation. No ordinary diligence, no inferior talents, could have so speedily collected, so fitly arranged, so justly estimated, so strikingly compressed, this immense mass of transaction. To the contemporary it will be a favourite book of reference, when he wishes to recall before his memory the leading incidents of that war of the gods, which shook the pillars of surrounding society. To posterity it will prove, that there were Englishmen who saw, while it lasted, the madness of their country's interference, and who opposed in vain the wild counsels of the anti-jacobin furies.

Digitized by Google

ART. X. *Political and Military Memoirs of Europe, from the Renewal of the the Continent in* 1798, *to the Peace of Amiens in* 1802. *By* T. E. RITCHIE. 8vo.

SOMETIMES a war is undertaken, in the event of which great interests of mankind are at stake. Such was the war of Darius, the Mede, against the Greeks, which under Xerxes, his successor, was terminated so gloriously for the cause of liberty. In that war probably the Ionian cities, which were the regular subjects of Darius, took a sincere interest in the success of the Greeks. They might not avow it; they may not have betrayed the cause of their sovereign: but they are likely to have felt that every asylum of liberty and independence would be lost to their generation, if the Persians prevailed in the contest. Such again was the war of Gustavus Adolphus; a war as important to religious autonomy, as that of the Greeks to civil. Darius might have defended his invasion on the grounds of the anti-jacobins. The opponents of Gustavus Adolphus might have defended their cause, on the grounds of the English court during the American war. The Persian historians had, no doubt, such grounds to urge formerly; and the imperial historians of Germany latterly: but the European verdict, the judgment of the disinterested states, both in the ancient and in the modern world, has condemned the adherents of Darius, and the opponents of Gustavus Adolphus. The consequence is, that, with the flow of ages, the fame of these adherents and of these opponents is constantly diminishing. They are considered either as ignorant of the true interests of the people, or as knowingly hostile to them; their failings are advertized, their talents are questioned, in order to associate permanent praise with eventual utility, and to render true glory inseparable from virtue.

The late revolution war of the French, or the antijacobin war of the confederated kings, was a struggle of this kind when it began: and the leaning of the neutral and disinterested nations to the French cause has continued so decisive, that scarcely any historians are to be met with, and those anonymous, who throw the interest on the side allies. Nor are the natural pr of country sufficient to restr Posselts and the Stephens fr avowal of an analogous sympat are not therefore about to bla Ritchie for a turn of opinion so Gallican; we think it, on the c during this struggle for liberty, able in a man of letters to the e interests of his reputation; yet w wish that, from the moment o gotiation at Lille, every thi British had been carefully avoide that period the war on the par British ministers was only a against French aggrandizemen alliance with Russia in 1798, is with considerable coarseness of sure (p. 37), a sort of mentio only tends to prepare between tions, well adapted for habitua ship, an absurd spirit of an mosity.

In the second volume the u of Bonaparte is narrated with placence highly dangerous to terests of liberty: we are no voking, on such occasions, the of Arena; but we would wish of history to speak daggers generals, who, by the instru of an ignorant force, suppress the infant feebleness of free, w and improving institutions. ference of Bonaparte was avo spotic, and despotic for the ends: he declared himself an a the instrument of a party co for the suppression of liberal i *Sieyes, Barruel, and the ot directors of the jesuitic interes the opportunity of elevation kept the implied condition of dancy, by faithfully restorin and personal monarchy. It been mortifying to the lead antijacobins of this country, n been consulted about the el that man; because it shows were considered only as the i of a continental faction, w

* Barras and Moulins, who were sound catholics, had smoothed the w revolution. It was soon followed by the recall of the whole church and king man of letters, who co-operated in the English Antijacobin Review, now official publication for Bonaparte, on similar principles.

Digitized by Google

l they were using against France. have been lending the treasures rces of this country, not to resist aggrandizement, but to subdue to the holy see. They have hed.

conclusion of this interesting contains a criticism on the peace ens, very characteristic of the patriotism.

he conditions of the definitive treaty e acquired more, than four years of l warfare could have given him. treme liberality explains the reason, diplomatic correspondence has not d. France could not be abashed by blicity to the progressive steps of a on, which terminated so beneficially ut the exposure of them might not a matter of equal indifference to contracting party. The court of rished to get rid of the war at any l the first consul, remarking this ardour, was too sagacious not to his own advantage. It is not disclaim any idea that the peace aded under an impression of the power of France: the supposition disproved by facts, and by them the vigour and resources of Bri- as great, her situation as proud minent as ever; if her means of the contest were adequate to tion which might have been re- w happens it that concession is Britain alone?—that there appears interchange, no reciprocation on the republic? Surely, so vast a t have procured peace at any time; imperious necessity existed on the s country, was it not humiliating, t disgraceful to accept of terms plied it? If the relative attitude of tates precluded further beneficial he *uti possidetis* became the rule tion, and that alone, or commen- unciations, can be acknowledged dence of equal claims. But an e of nearly three hundred milli- endent of the losses sustained by commerce, and other evils inci- tate of hostility; a sum which has increase of annual taxes greater al value of the foreign merchan- ted into Britain during the year, hort of that of her export trade, anded a more equable compen- the cession of Ceylon and Trini- professed object of the war against as the expulsion of Frenchmen for ever: but by the treaty of Pondicherry and all her former in the east are restored, nay to the republic, which thus ac- means of reviving dangerous in- th the native powers, and forming at her ease establishments that will soon expand to an extent fatal to the interests of this country. As a military and commercial station, the Cape of Good Hope was of the first importance: yet this settlement is restored without a struggle. In fine, all the colonies of France in the possession of Britain are given up, after being improved and enriched by the capital and industry of the English merchant, and they are given up without any requital,—except the grant of peace.

"The sanction of terms so degrading, of terms which the vanquished only could be supposed to receive, was a disagreeable duty to the British legislature: it was directly hostile to their proceedings during the last eight years. When their political opponents, on so many former occasions, suggested moderation instead of that contemptuous pride which inflated the incapacity of the war-ministers; when they proposed the acknowledgment of the French republic, and a compromise as to territory by the renunciation of some of her colonies, and the retention of others; Mr. Pitt exclaimed, that he trusted there was not a man to sign such a treaty, and not a courier to carry it. Yet, by a strange fatality, one of his warmest partisans was selected to conclude a peace on less favourable conditions, and officially pronounce its eulogy. At the same time the ex-minister, with incredible effrontery, openly joined in the transaction, but shewed no compunction, and felt no abasement from self-contradiction. In the course of his oration, during the solemn discussion of the treaty in the house of commons, he laughed; and in this playful humour, which incited a corresponding sensation among his friends, were the dearest interests of the nation decided. The Britons, who fell on the plains of Flanders and the sand-hills of Holland, could never have surmised, that their funerals rites would be celebrated with merriment. But as if the history of Mr. Pitt ought to be recorded in Hudibrastic verse only, the man, who can boast of having, by the impolicy of his measures, reared a power whose stupendous strength must soon crush the thrones of the European potentates, is to have a statue erected to immortalise his deserts. Let it be engraven on its pedestal, that the British annals, since the time that a Stuart occupied the throne, afford not an instance of imbecility in the cabinet and the field, or an ignominious result, equal to those in the war against the independence of the French nation, and the liberties of mankind."

This history is written with an ardour of eloquence which well adapts it for popularity of circulation. It is not distinguished by the consultation of numerous, or foreign, or recondite authorities; but by the natural choice of those objects for prominence, which

Digitized by Google

made at the time most impression on the generality of observers. The style is spirited and unaffected; but in the use of auxiliaries there are occasional symptoms of a northern education. It is agreeable that events so recent, and so frequently alluded to, should traced on the memory; and that of reference should be provi which the order and dates of t cessive incidents should be easily

ART. XI. *The History of France from the Year* 1790 *to the Peace conc Amiens in* 1802. *By* JOHN ADOLPHUS, *Esq.* 8vo. 2 vols. pp. 1311.

TO commence this article with any general remarks on the duties of an historian, or on the qualifications of Mr. Adolphus for the laborious and responsible task he has undertaken, were alike superfluous. As to the first, they have long since been agreed on; diligence in exploring every repository wherein information may be obtained, and plain honesty in the communication of it: an historian should take for his motto, "Truth and the whole Truth." As to the second, namely, the qualifications of Mr. Adolphus, he has already delivered his credentials, if we may use the phrase: his History of the Reign of George the Third has the rare merit of estimating living characters with freedom and impartiality, and of recording contemporary facts unmutilated and undisguised. "Opinions vary, fade, and are forgotten; applause and blame are transferred from public characters, according to the mutability of general opinion, but the narrative of facts will ever claim attention; and the historian who has bestowed the greatest portion of diligence and judgment on this part of his subject, will be most permanently esteemed." Much has been said on the difficulty of composing an history of our own time; it is obvious, that the principal difficulty is that of restraining within due bounds those prejudices and partialities, which all of us feel with respect to particular measures and particular characters. The materials for history are not likely to be *more* abundant or authentic at a remote period; no future writer could have had *better* sources of information on the events of their respective histories than Thucydides, Xenophon, and Cæsar, each of whom could exclaim concerning them—quæque ipse ... vidi, & quorum pars magna fui. As Mr. Adolphus had succeeded in acquitting himself with respectability as the historian of the passing events of his own country, we augured favourably of his success when the recent occurrences of a fore tion became the subject of his now enjoys all the advantages o temporary historian, and is in measure relieved from those re which delicacy and an amiable ness towards living characters impose. We shall examine his with freedom and impartiality.

These volumes embrace a sh eventful period: they begin w state of the public mind in Fran ing the summer of the year 179 habits of obedience which had lo racterized the nation, were uni relaxed, the laws no longer reve the duties of sovereignty no m garded. The contagious spirit volt had been communicated troops, and the garrison of Nanc ly supported by the jacobin Paris, now demanded in so lo peremptory a tone some arrears it was asserted were due to the the national assembly, foresee dangerous consequences which ensue were not some vigorous fective measures immediately a passed a decree on the 16th of ordering the soldiers to return duty, and the inhabitants of N their obedience to the laws, und of being treated as rebels.

Mr. Adolphus begins his histo an account of the *affair** at Nan to our great surprise we found had dismissed it in four pages! an event of such intrinsic imp one which implicated the huma an officer who acted so conside part in the revolution, the Mar Bouillé, and who, in order to v his character, published in his a detailed account of the affair, should have been thus cursorily at, is perfectly unaccountable. the brief and insufficient relatio Mr. Adolphus has given, is not accurate; he says, that after th tation of the deputies from Nan

* This has generally been called the *massacre* at Nancy.—REV.

Digitized by Google

uis de Bouillé was directed to march
st the insurgents, that a consider-
force was rapidly collected, and
ie appeared at the gates of Nancy
e the mutineers were informed that
d commenced his march. "His
nce produced a momentary awe:
volted soldiers, on his summons,
red up Messrs. Malseigne and de
; but before the gates could be
n open, with fatal levity they re-
d their arms, and pointed a cannon
st the troops which had advanced
n thirty paces of the gates."
a reference to the Marquis's own
nt of this affair, we find that M.
Ialseigne was the officer who was
ged with the execution of the de-
of the national assembly, and the
quis merely with a commission to
r him every assistance, and employ
if the insurgents persisted in re-
n. Soon after the passing of this
e, De Bouillé, who had long been
nandant of Metz and of the pro-
s des Evêchés, received an order
the king to take under his com-
the troops of Lorraine, Alsace,
che-Compté, and Champagne; these
d to the garrison of Metz, formed
my consisting of an hundred and
attalions, and a hundred and four
drons. There was reason to sus-
however, that a majority of these
s had not preserved their fidelity
eir sovereign. The insurrection at
y in the mean time became more
ing; the garrison was composed
ir battalions of the king's regiment,
nted one of the best in France;
o battalions of Swiss; and the re-
t of mestre de camp, which were
ry. To these were joined five or
housand men from the town and
bourhood, who had opened the
als, whence they had taken five
and musquets, had seized on the
er magazines, and loaded eighteen
s of cannon. The soldiers had
lered the military chest; exacted
y of the constituted authorities,
r pain of hanging the municipal
rs and commissioners for the de-
nent, in case of refusal; and had
lly imprisoned several of their
rs, and among others the general
r that commanded them.
ch was the situation in which M.
Ialseigne found Nancy; it is not to
ondered at, therefore, that the de-
of the assembly should be treated
with derision, and that the officer who proclaimed it was glad to escape from an attempt made to seize him, to Luneville, where there was a body of carbineers, consisting of eight squadrons, who had hitherto conformed to military duty.

The garrison at Nancy, enraged at the escape of Malseigne, proceeded in martial order to Luneville, for the purpose of compelling the carbineers to deliver him into their hands. This outrage on the person of a brother officer, who had been expressly appointed by the national assembly to proclaim and enforce its decree, first prompted the Marquis to assemble some troops and march against Nancy. The carbineers refused to deliver up Malseigne, and a slight engagement ensued between the two parties; the very next day, however, these fickle cowards arrested their general, and sent him under an escort to Nancy, where the soldiers of the garrison threw him into prison. Information of this latter circumstance decided the Marquis to attempt a rescue, though under considerable apprehension of disobedience among his own troops, which consisted, moreover, only of three thousand infantry and fourteen hundred cavalry, while the town of Nancy contained no less than ten thousand men in arms. Preferring, on the score of prudence as well as of humanity, persuasion to hostility, on the morning of the 30th of August the Marquis introduced a proclamation into the town, commanding the people to conform to the decrees of the assembly, and deliver up the most factious of their chiefs; four and twenty hours were allowed them to prepare an answer. After some ineffectual negotiations between the parties, the Marquis begun his march: he had proceeded within half a league of the town, when he was met by a deputation, to whose proposals he gave the same answer as before, allowing an hour for decision: this hour expired; and at four o'clock in the afternoon his advanced guard approached the gates of the town, which were defended by troops and armed inhabitants with several pieces of cannon. Within a few paces from one of these gates, another deputation advanced from the town, who assured the Marquis that his orders should be instantly obeyed, that the regiments were already leaving the town, and repairing to the place he had appointed, and that the two general

Digitized by Google

officers would immediately be delivered up. Accordingly, the head of the column, into which the king's regiment was formed, filed off from the town, and the Marquis was soon joined by the two generals, Malseigne and De Noue. In consequence of this pacific arrangement, the Marquis suspended the march of his troops, and waited only for the departure of the garrison, that he might take possession of it himself; it often happens, however, that the irritation of a populace is not to be controuled; such unhappily was the case at present.—Several soldiers, who had not followed their colours, together with a party of the people, began a quarrel with De Bouillé's advanced guard, and were preparing to fire on them with several pieces of heavy ordnance, loaden with grape-shot, which they had placed in the entrance of the gate. A young officer of the king's regiment, named Dessiles, prevented them for some time; he placed himself before the mouth of a cannon, and when torn from thence, he leaped upon a four and twenty pounder, and seating himself upon the touch-hole, was in that position massacred.* The dreadful slaughter which followed is too well known to require being detailed here. We have dwelt on this affair, in justification of the Marquis, from whose memoirs of the revolution our account is abbreviated, because we think that Mr. Adolphus has slurred it over in a very hasty and unsatisfactory manner.

In the account of the king's flight to Varennes, it is said that "M. de Bouillé, who had escaped from France, wrote to the assembly, avowing himself the only instigator of the journey." Mr. Adolphus does not seem to have been aware, that so far from being the author of the king's flight, de Bouillé, when the project was first communicated to him, instantly saw, with that ready penetration and sagacity which seldom deserted him, the very doubtful success of the measure, and the inevitable ruin both to the sovereign and the monarchy which a failure would produce: it was decided on against his approbation, but the decision being made, he obeyed his orders, and was the sole conductor of it. The Marquis made his own escape; and on his arrival at Luxembourgh wrote a to the national assembly, which have misled Mr. Adolphus, acc himself as being the person wh suaded the king into the measu adopted. The object of this lette the highest honor to the Marqui was intended," says he, "for no purpose than to turn upon mysel torrent of popular fury which I might prove fatal to the king a royal family." *See Bouillé's Memo*

Proceeding in the history to the summer of 1792, and the events 10th of August, and the 2d, 3d 4th of September, it is necessary t the characters of parties and of duals. So difficult is it to form estimate of these from the prej sources of hired journalists and int emigrants, that where our opini the merits of an individual has no cided with that of Mr. Adolph are far from inferring the inaccur his estimate. Our reading on the of the revolution has been casua in comparison with his confined Adolphus, who is a cautious and trious historian, has nevertheless sionally summed up his evidence out a careful examination of wit We were a little shocked to fin favouring the suspicion of Ro agency in the massacre of Septe we had always looked upon Rol an honest and respectable charact Mr. Adolphus surely is not perfectl sistent with himself on this subje one page he represents this ministe "inoffensive old man, endowed w tle talent and not much malice, ch not rancorous, plain in manners a bits, brief in speech, fond of rep vice, and fancying himself a mo virtue." Bye and bye it is state "he made no vigorous represe against these massacres, because joiced at the extermination of pri nobles;" that he afterwards den the massacres of September is ce no positive proof that he was n cerned in them; but as the mur Roland himself was believed t formed part of the projet of the S tember, (see vol. 1, p. 266) he be exposed to the suspicion of be

* In a note to Mr. Adolphus's inadequate narrative of this affair, he tells us, that survived "to enjoy the immediate admiration of his country, and to attest after exile her ingratitude!" Our account of this noble instance of heroism is taken from the Marquis de Bouillé's Memoirs.—Rev.

Digitized by Google

l in it. The character of Madame d is drawn with great severity, e cannot but observe in general, epublicanism is a crime which Mr. hus cannot regard with any toler- omplacency. The king's friends ll honourable men:' *we* remember he Marquis de Bouillé acknow- himself to have detested the con- on at the time when he swore to t it; and on his own confession see p. 291 of his very interesting irs) that he took a solemn oath Almighty God, in compliment king, and with a premeditated ion not to keep it one moment r than his majesty! Conscious of sincerity to which, in our opinion, ttached no common guilt, it is but al that he should regard every one spy and suspector of his conduct. haunted by suspicion, is the wise alutary punishment inflicted by OD OF TRUTH on such as meditate ightest profanation of his sacred Afterwards, in consequence per- f a natural and well-founded sus- of the sincerity of the king, and king's friends, many voted for olition of royalty, who but for a nt conduct on their part might y have been induced to have a different vote. But to have for the abolition of royalty is h; and we find the learned and table Bishop of Blois, so well for his concurrence with those men in the sitting of the *Etats Gé-* who united themselves with the *Etats* in opposition to the design of ng separate chambers for the two or orders; so well known for his y in the first national assembly, former of clerical abuses; so well for his eloquent speeches and mo- n favour of the emancipation of n slaves; so well known for his ful pamphlet entitled "a Preser- against Schism;" and so well for his *encyclie*, his circular letter bishops of France, requiring their the convocation of a national l. for the purpose of restoring the , according to the decrees of the l of Trent, the synod of Borromeo, ne liberties and independence of llican church; we find this gen- n represented as "vying in ribal- d blasphemy" with Lindet, Coupé, rs, &c. on the 7th of November at a sitting of the national con- vention, headed by Gobet, constitutional Bishop of Paris, where they rejected their clerical functions; and at which very sitting Gregoire, in a declaration full of zeal, asserted his christianity and scrupulous adherence to the faith of his forefathers! (See Mem. of the Founders of the F. R. art. *Gregoirs*, vol. 1.) But it is time we should give our readers a specimen of the style in which this work is composed. After a concise but clear and connected account of the campaign in 1794, Mr. Adolphus turns his attention to the internal state of the republic.

"From these scenes of carnage, where the horrors of death are diminished by the 'pride, pomp, and circumstance of glorious war,' the attention is called to contemplate transactions not less sanguinary, though infinitely more disgusting, exhibited in the internal government of France. Terror, avowed as a system, stalked over the land, dealing on every side the blow of fate; and extinguishing love, mutual confidence, honour, and pity. The various devices for proving treason, or treasonable inclinations, gave vigour to a host of spies, informers, and persecutors, some of whom were in the pay of government; some hoped to conciliate favour, and others thought, by denouncing their nearest relations or most intimate friends, to avoid those persecutions, of which a moment might make them the victims.—No man could consider himself sure of an hour's life, yet no man was permitted to prepare himself for death; and he who dared to express or inculcate a hope of a better existence beyond the grave, incurred imminent danger of being sacrificed as an incorrigible fanatic.

"Yet no motive of safety, or hope of advantage, stimulated the rulers of France to so profuse a waste of human blood: no formal opposition to their ascendancy existed in the convention, nor could insurrection venture to lift her head in any of the depart-
8th Jan. ments. At an early period of the year Charette was expelled from the isle of Noirmoutier, and the last hopes of the royalists seemed to have expired: but the termination of fear did not terminate the vengeance of government; every inhabited place of La Vendée, and every district presumed accessary to the insurrection, was a monument of blood and insatiate revenge. The deputies sent on mission to these parts were purposely selected from the most barbarous, ferocious, and brutal of the people: they carried to exaggeration the fashionable manners of the cordeliers, adding to the disgusting deportment, obscene diction, and unrelenting cruelty, required by the prevailing disposition in Paris, all the violences which an unbridled indulgence in the worst and most detestable passions could prompt, or

Digitized by Google

the most diabolical imaginations could invent. Carrier was the delegated tyrant of La Vendée, and he raised to his name monuments of horrible celebrity, before which the barbarians of all times and nations but his own seem comparatively innocent. He publicly excited the people to pillage and murder the rich; he publicly reproached the judges for permitting scruples of any kind to prevent the condemnation of criminals; he mingled with his cruelty and extortion a brutal jocularity, not less afflictive to the mind than pain was to the body of the sufferer; he dismissed petitioners who pleaded for their friends or relatives, with reproaches, threats, and even blows; the consequence of these barbarities was universal dread, general desolation, and in individuals the mental agony often occasioned delirium and death. An instance is even recorded where the executioner was so affected with the innocence and graces of six young ladies perishing on the same day under his hands, that he was seized with a profound melancholy, which terminated his existence in a week. Yet the directors of these barbarities were not merely unmoved, but satisfied with themselves. Carrier boasted of his cruelties; his dispatches to the convention were filled with accounts of destroying five hundred in a day, of burying four thousand and fifty in a single pit, and the convention applauded these ferocious narratives, enjoying as excellent wit the description of the guillotine under the name of the national razor, and the little window, and the noyade, by the title of the bath, and of drinking in the great bowl.

"But even these excesses were not equal to those by which the commanders of troops of the revolutionary army spread terror and devastation far and wide. Their savage atrocities combined the extremes of rapacity, cruelty, and lust: by them whole generations were swept away in brutal sport; the hoary grandsire, with the youthful props of his years, and his second hope the offspring of his children, lay in one general heap; women even in pregnancy, and children at the breast, were devoted to similar destruction. Priests, women, and children, were marked out for peculiar barbarities: priests were the first victims of the noyade, being put on board boats and ships under pretence of transportation; but when they were drowned, Carrier amused the legislature with a joke in his own style, that they were transported *vertically*; the unfortunate men, ignorant that they were destined to this unexpected death, cried out to their executioners for help, but their struggles and exclamations only occasioned mirth in these monsters, and if any were perceived making such exertions as promised to save their lives, they were dispatched with swords, poles, or pikes."

The second volume opens wit
count of the effect produced on
ternal state of France, by the d
tion of Robespierre: the jacob
was soon dissolved, but individ
retained great influence, and on
of terror was only abolished
room for a new one. In the ye
the arms of the republic trium
every quarter: Tuscany, Spain,
the Landgrave of Hesse, and the
of Hanover, are driven into pe
Holland into a fatal alliance
second insurrection of La V
quelled by the artifices and the
Hoche; the disgraceful expe
Quiberon fails, and Charette an
are executed; the national co
proceeds to frame a new cons
the infamous decree, however,
ing two thirds of the new coun
the convention, is strongly op
the people; preparations are
resistance; insurrection ensues;
non of the convention sweep th
and quell the insurgents: the
are of course completed, and
vention is dissolved.

"The general abstract of the a
convention, and the effects of its
is thus detailed by Prud'homme.*
tings continued thirty-seven month
days, during which time 11,210
enacted, and 360 conspiracies and
rections denounced: 18,613 per
put to death by the guillotine.
war at Lyons cost 31,200 men; th
seilles 729. At Toulon 14,325
stroyed; and in the re-actions in
after the fall of Robespierre, 750
perished. The war in La Vendé
puted to have caused the destr
000,000 men, and more than 20,
lings. Impressed with images of t
persons committed suicide; and
men died in consequence of prem
veries: 20,000 are computed to h
famine, and 1550 were driven t
In the colonies 124,000 white me
and children, and 60,000 people
were massacred; 2 towns, and 32
tions were burnt. The loss of m
war is estimated, though probably
real truth, at 800,000; while 123
had emigrated in the course of t
tion, were now for ever excluded
country."

The narrative of the interna
the republic is now suspende
the historian relates the brill
depopulating campaigns in

* Histoire des Erreurs, &c. vol. vi. p. 512; and Tableau Général.

Digitized by Google

y. These numerous and splen-
quests, whatever gratification
orded to the national vanity of
ch, were attended with little in-
dvantage; the plunder of other
s enriched not their own, whilst
y thousand hands were taken
riculture and manufactures to
he ranks, at once of victory and

story of Bonaparte's campaign
was written at the time by a
fficer. We remember an anec-
e related, which, *in honour of the*
enate, we shall repeat: "A few
re General Massena had taken
n of Verona, that place was
m of Lewis Stanislaus, brother
t king of France, and his little
emigrants, to whom the Vene-
l kindly afforded protection.
nerosity, however, soon gave
heir fears; and the senate of
ith a shameful policy, had al-
ermined to transfer to the vic-
onaparte all the regard it had
displayed towards the majesty
of Verona. The *podestat* ac-
received orders to declare to
ve prince, that it was neces-
him to leave its territories,
when France had formerly
roper to complain of this re-
he senate had answered, that
ng a noble Venetian, in that
d a legal title to inhabit the
of the state; but the repub-
ns had not at that time crossed
ains. By way of reply to this
f the *podestat*, the *pretender* is
e demanded that the golden
aining the list of the nobles,
sent to him, in order to erase
of his family, and he at the
required the sword which his
Henry IV. had presented to
c. The magistrate, without
t to the misfortunes and past
f the *pretender*, replied, that
on his demand, would make
to grant the exclusion of his
as to the sword, *it should be*
tored, provided he would pay the
e millions of livres still due by this
; "an answer," observes the
ndignantly, "indecent on the
e government of which he
rgan, and only worthy of a
pawnbroker." To return to Mr. Adolphus. In the account which is given of the most foul, infamous, and diabolical invasion of Switzerland; which account, from the list of references, is unquestionably drawn from the most authentic sources, it will scarcely be credited, that the name of that immortal patriot, ALOYS REDING, is not once mentioned, no not once! Has Mr. Adolphus never heard of such a man? does not he recollect some such name in the Histoire de la Destruction, &c. par Henri Zschokke? what an extraordinary and unaccountable omission then! The French would not have had so easy a conquest over the Swiss, had half that boasted happiness and harmony subsisted among them, of which we have heard so much: their history abounds with instances of intestine discord, arising from civil jealousies and religious intolerance. The Helvetic confederacy, incoherent in its parts, had long been threatened with dissolution; "different kinds of intestine disturbance," says Mr. Zschokke, whose narrative is written in a very temperate and careful manner,* "different kinds of intestine disturbance," says he, "the remonstrances of the governed, the blind haughtiness of the governors, the mutual rivalship between the cantons, all united in the work of destruction.—France, seeing with pleasure the dissentions which tore the confederates, did not delay to profit by them; she fomented the discord, fed the hatred and the hopes of parties, excited the cantons against each other, and thus made way for the revolution in Helvetia which was soon to break out."

Berne, Zurich, and Basil took an early alarm, and Zurich, the first canton of the Helvetic league, invited them to a conference for the purpose of mutual co-operation and protection; Schwitz acceded to the confederacy, and sent to the canton of Berne, in quality of its deputy, the ancient landamman, Charles Reding, with the view of preserving, by conciliatory means, the tranquillity of that canton, and of the whole Helvetic body.

Berne, "on which the salvation of Switzerland depended," says Mr. Adolphus, although it appears that Schwitz, under Aloys Reding, made the stoutest and most heroic resistance; Berne was

lation of it has been lately published, from which we have taken the liberty of paragraph marked with inverted commas.—REV.

Digitized by Google

governed by a proud and unbending aristocracy, who had excited disaffection among the Vaudois by the invasion of those franchises which they had enjoyed from time immemorial. The Vaudois demanded their ancient privileges; Berne irritated them by her refusal: violence produced violence; France fomented the discord, assumed the right of mediation by virtue of ancient treaties, and declared by the mouth of Mengaud, her chargé d'affaires with the Helvetic body, that she would render Berne responsible for the life and safety of certain persons, whom the government had imprisoned for the freedom with which they had pleaded the cause of liberty and equality. Berne, in order to ward off the immediate blow, *now* found it necessary to adopt conciliatory measures towards the Vaudois, and accordingly sent two deputies of the diet, Wiss of Zurich, and Reding of Schwitz, to the Pays de Vaud, with instructions to restore order, even at the expence of the greatest sacrifices, provided however that they were asked in a legal and proper manner. The haughty spirit of an individual, who is the object of extravagant and repeated encomium by Mr. Adolphus, the avoyer Steiguer, who was at the head of the Bernese government, frustrated this salutary measure: the deputies arrived at Lausanne, the capital of the Pays de Vaud, and were on the very point of executing their commission with success, when Berne, *on which the salvation of Switzerland depended*, learning that there were still in the Pays de Vaud many communities which remained faithful to its government, resolved to make use of them in conquering the country. To perseverance in this fatal, and we do not hesitate to call it, this treacherous measure, she was urged by the unyielding Steiguer, who suffered his hatred to the new organization of France to get the better of that political prudence, for which he had before been so justly celebrated. Insurrection encreased, and general Menard entered the Pays de Vaud on the 25th of January 1798, at the head of his column. The haughty governors of Berne now trembled, and from their fears were extorted concessions at which their pride had revolted: but it was too late; at length, reduced to despair, Berne invoked the succour of all its allies, but they were too busied in their own concerns, and the cantons of Zurich and Schwitz alone sent each a battalion, the latter of which was commanded by the great patriot Aloys Reding; who, in the course of the struggle, became the soul of the allied army, but whose name Mr. Adolphus has not thought worthy of being admitted into his pages.

As the history comes nearer to the present time, we have scarcely any thing before us but scenes of battle. From the campaigns of Italy the reader is carried to those of Germany, of Holland, and of Egypt; and the wretched relief which alone is in the power of the historian to offer him, is a view of the divisions in the directory, and of the alternate ascendancy of different factions in Paris. These divisions, however, which kept the Parisians in such constant personal alarm, are in a moment hushed by the bold and dexterous revolution at St. Cloud; and certainly nothing refutes the slander of the capriciousness of fortune more decisively, than her constancy towards Bonaparte on this occasion: that a general should have basely abandoned his army in distress, without orders from his government that he should return to his country, and not merely escape punishment for his defection, but be raised to the supremacy of power, was a most extraordinary and incalculable circumstance. The history of this revolution, and the facilities which were offered for its accomplishment by the state of the nation, at this critical time, are explained with perspicuity and spirit.

Bonaparte had not been long seated on his consular throne, before he quitted the metropolis, in order by his presence to give the campaign in Italy a decisive and favourable issue. On this occasion it was, that he performed an achievement which rivals, if it does not eclipse the famed exploit of Hannibal: with his army of reserve, encumbered with heavy artillery, he crossed the Great St. Bernard.

The battle of Marengo, the success of which Mr. Adolphus has justly attributed to the unfortunate Dessait, decided the campaign. Within a few months a congress was held at Luneville, where preliminary articles of peace were arranged, which were afterwards definitively ratified by the Imperial diet.

France now foreseeing that England would soon be her only active enemy, endeavoured to countervail the ascend-

Digitized by Google

anty of our naval power, by exciting the northern powers to a confederacy against us, in consequence of our detention and search of neutral vessels.—*The battle of Copenhagen, however, destroyed the hopes of our enemies, and Lord St. Helens was deputed embassador to Petersburgh, for the final arrangement of all disputes between the contending nations. After several naval successes on our part, means were pursued for reconciling Great Britain and France, and a correspondence on this subject was maintained through the medium of M. Otto. Peace, however, was not to be attained, until the success of an expedition sent from England to attempt the expulsion of the French from their unjust possession of Egypt, should be decided. With the account of this campaign in Egypt, so glorious to the British arms, the history of Mr. Adolphus terminates.

Although we think it altogether a respectable work, it does not seem to flow from that philosophic mind which, not satisfied with the barren detail of events, loves to explore their causes, and pursue their consequences. Mr. Adolphus rarely indulges himself in reflections of this sort, and he very often degenerates into a mere journalist: military operations are generally related with precision and distinctness, and they occupy a great portion of these volumes. The omission of all state papers is unpardonable: instead of being referred to Debrett's Collection, or Rivington's Register, we ought to have had Louis's letter to his foreign ambassadors before our eyes, the treaty of Pilnitz should have been inserted, and if Lord Hood's proclamation to, and treaty with the Toulonese had been given at length, we should probably have not felt such emotions of unmingled triumph, as the narrative of our historian is calculated to inspire. (See our review of Rose's History of the Naval War, in the former vol. of our Review.) Some interesting events in the revolution are too hastily passed over: the queen's trial and execution are hurried over in less than four pages, and those of the king are related in a very meagre manner. When we read a history, we consider the references at the bottom of the page as mere vouchers for the fidelity of the historian: here they must often be consulted for that information which ought to have been extracted from them. An index to the work is a desideratum.

In a short introduction to these volumes, Mr. Adolphus adverts to the various causes, many too remote and fantastic, as he properly observes, to merit attention, which have been suggested by different writers as bringing about the French revolution. He conceives that its origin, character, and progress may, with the smallest probability of error, be ascribed to a faction long nourished in the academies and cities of France, and other continental dominions, connected with numerous societies through all parts of Europe, meditating a total change in manners, laws, and the course of public worship, and projecting an entirely new distribution of power among nations, with a general overthrow of all established authorities. For the existence of such a sect, we are gravely referred to the reveries, the *ægri insomnia*, of Barruel and Robison. Many causes unquestionably concurred to produce this mighty event; but instead of enumerating among them the intrigues of sophists and illuminati, we are rather disposed to state the intolerable and accumulating weight of taxes, the disor-

*Since the publication of Mr. Adolphus's History, a convention has been agreed on relative to this subject, between his Britannic Majesty and the King of Sweden, signed by their respective plenipotentiaries at London, July 25, 1808. This convention, which is a very important one, is comprehended in four articles: The *first* states, that in the event of one of the contracting parties being neutral during a war in which the other may be belligerent, the vessels of the neutral party shall not carry to the enemy of the belligerent party money, naval stores, or any instruments of war, or ships of war and guard-ships, *nor any manufactured articles immediately serving for the equipment of the same.* The *second* article states, that the cruisers of the belligerent power shall exercise the right of bringing in the ships of the neutral power, going to the ports of an enemy, laden with cargoes of provisions, or with stores of pitch, tar, hemp, and generally all unmanufactured articles whatever, serving for the equipment of ships of all descriptions, and likewise all unmanufactured articles serving for the equipment of merchant vessels, (herrings, iron in bars, steel, rose copper, brass and brass wire, deal, planks, not being oak, and spars however excepted;) and if the cargoes so reported in the bottoms of the neutral power are the produce of the territories of the said neutral power, and going on account of the subject thereof, shall have the right of preemption. These are the two most material articles.—REV.

Digitized by Google

dered state of the finances, and consequent depreciation of public credit, together with the insolence, profligacy, and corruption of a beggarly and contemptible nobility, as the immediate causes of the revolution. These causes are enlarged on in an excellent introductory chapter to the memoirs of the Count de Puisaye, written by himself, a work which we are surprised has not yet been translated into English.

M de Puisaye, who is an excellent authority on this subject, speaking of the state of France before the revolution, says, that whilst luxury, with its wonted rapidity, made such alarming progress, and whilst the necessities of kings were encreased by the cupidity of courtiers, the court became a public auction, where every thing was bid for with money, and nobility itself was exposed to sale; sometimes the price was openly fixed, sometimes, (we are translating the count's words,) for decency's sake, certain offices were attached to it, which seldom however required the performance of any duties, and each of these offices had its own *tarif*; to some was attached nobility, purely personal, to others hereditary nobility: this latter was only conferred after the office had been retained a certain number of years, or after it had descended through several generations; there were some adapted to every purse, and every taste, according to the wealth or the vanity of the candidates: they who had acquired, well or ill was immaterial, a certain sum of money, hurried to that aspiring pageant which was dignified with the title of the administration of finance; there they received an exchange—a piece of parchment, and quitted the class of the people, in order to be enrolled among the nobility, generally indeed disdained by the one, and despised by the other.

Having once proceeded thus far, money became a substitute for every thing, and the consequence and pretensions of a man were to be measured by the length of his purse. This vast increase of new nobles was a deadly blow to the state; but as the effect which was expected from the humiliation of the nobility was immediate, and the evils which would thence result, if perceived at all, considered as remote, the present was preferred to the future, and it was thought sufficient to appease the rising discontents by distinction of opinion; hence a multitude of the most insignificant and puerile distinctions, such as the ennobli, nobles gentilshommes, noblesse d'épée, noblesse de charges, de robe, &c. But the most important difference, continues the count, was that between ancient and modern titles: the wealthy no longer contented themselves with a rank which all these distinctions had contributed to discredit, they must have antiquity, and antiquity also was to be sold!—Ancestry might be purchased: families reduced to poverty, disposed of their titles for money, they had only to change their baptismal name. Genealogies were bargained for like land; fictitious titles defied the scrutiny of the most skilful examiners; or should all these resources fail them, the court distributed its *dispensations*, and those families which yesterday were new, became ancient to-morrow PAR ORDRE.

The remark has at all times been made, that when empires are on the decline, vanity seeks to hide its weakness under pompous appellations, the miserable substitutes of real excellencies: it has received an ample satisfaction here! Titles of noble dignity were lavished with so ridiculous a prodigality, that a man might fit himself with a title, as he would with a coat; and it may be asserted, without much fear of contradiction, that the system of equality, that social malady which confounds all ranks, first made its trial in France on the order of nobility. The introduction of commerce into France, was also the epoch of a memorable revolution in the condition of that class, who bear the name of the people. Instruction succeeded to ignorance: *this* took refuge in that order, from whom commerce was interdicted, and *that* became the lot of others who pursued it. The real advantages which the two first orders had enjoyed, now glided imperceptibly into the hands of a third, whilst the former reserved for themselves advantages, brilliant and useful indeed, but adventitious. The necessities of luxury were continually withdrawing from one side and supplying the other; the one employed itself in consuming, and the other in acquiring.

To seek for remote and mysterious causes, when plain and immediate ones are sufficient to account for an event, is not very philosophical. We do not mean to deny *in toto* the influence of the writings of *individual* speculative philosophers, in bringing about the revolu-

Digitized by Google

tion: but to have recourse to *clubs* and *societies* of infidels and anarchists, in order to account for it, does appear unnecessary; and if Mr. Adolphus, and those who think with him on this subject, had read the able work of Mounier,* we are inclined to believe that he and they would themselves be surprised at their own credulity.

ART. XII. *The Political and Confidential Correspondence of Lewis XVI. with Observations on each Letter.* By HELEN MARIA WILLIAMS. 8vo. 3 vols. pp. about 320 in each volume.

THESE three volumes are unusually gratifying. The private confidential correspondence of any man of talent has a value. That of a man connected with the leading characters of his age, and the pivot of events, to which his commentary relates, is still more curious. When to both these sources of interest are superadded the sympathies of the heart, an extraordinary solicitude must be felt in behalf of a writer, whom his suavity of nature and his pre-eminence in misfortune, no less than the established superstitions of rank, contribute to endear to our affections.

From a note in the third volume (p. 168) it appears that the French editor of this correspondence had been commissioned by the minister Roland to examine the papers of Lewis XVI. (which were deposited at his office after being seized at the Tuileries, on the tenth of August) and to fit the more interesting portion of them for publication. The papers themselves offer, for the most part, a convincing internal evidence of their authenticity; and betray few marks of being garbled or inflected. Yet the letters, previous to the revolution, appear written with less talent than those during the revolution; and so many of them display the refinements and artifices of composition, that one cannot help suspecting a private secretary of Lewis to have drawn up the greater part of these letters; although, from motives of politeness or propriety, they were perhaps transcribed by the king's own hand.

In the first volume are chiefly confined letters previous to the revolutionary period, which display much the personal and natural character of the monarch. In the second volume are those which relate to the more stormy periods of his public and political life; these letters have not so unaffected, unaspired, undictated an appearance as the earlier. They display a sagacity and penetration, which the personal conduct of the writer was far from realising. They mention living individuals, whom there may be many motives for helping up or down in reputation: and are therefore not unlikely to have been partially interpolated. They resemble in character of style and opinion the annals of Bertrand de Moleville. These circumstances somewhat tend to invalidate (as the theologians would phrase it,) not their authenticity but their genuineness, not their emanating from the hand but from the head of Lewis. In the third volume occur many essays, maxims, and other original compositions, the amusements of the monarch's leisure: these again are surely inferior to the demi-official letters of the second volume.

A letter, characteristic of the king's humanity, is the seventeenth: it is accompanied, as is each groupe of letters, with a commentary by the translator.

"TO M. BERTHIER, INTENDANT OF PARIS.

"*Paris, October* 28, 1781.

"You have presented to my council of state a plan dictated by the purest philanthropy; and I approve highly the means you suggest of extirpating mendicity from my states. To render the poor useful without increasing their misfortunes, to establish places of retreat with humane regulations, and under wise direction, where the love of labour shall be encouraged, where active youth shall be occupied, and infirm old age comforted, such are the motives, and such the aim, of your project. The *corvée* is abolished: but the highways require continual and expensive repairs: might not your hospitals of mendicants furnish workmen to mend and construct roads? I see whole armies of pioneers formed in those asylums, scouring the country, and stationed on the high-ways, where they will provide against accidents, and the ravages of the seasons, and maintain a free circulation throughout all France. You seem to me, however, not to have paid sufficient attention to the means the least burdensome to the people, of furnishing what

* De l'influence attribuée aux philosophes, aux francs-maçons & aux illuminés sur la révolution de France.

Digitized by Google

is necessary for the support of your establishments in favor of mendicity. The people are already too much oppressed by taxes: must their burdens be so increased as to render unavailing the benefit of the abolition of the *corvée*? Let us make choice of the mode the least expensive, the most agreeable to the people, and by which the ends you propose can be accomplished, of disburdening those who pay taxes, rendering the poor useful, and keeping the roads in good repair. Your abilities, sir, will no doubt furnish you with new means; and be assured I shall second them in my council.

LEWIS.

"OBSERVATIONS ON THE XVIIIth LETTER.

"While the king applauds M. Berthier for his projects of rooting out mendicity from the state, he observes to him with great justice, that this benefit ought not to be conferred at the expence of the public. Under the old *régime*, it was only by making beggars contribute to the common stock by their labours, that this scourge could be removed from society: but, whether the mode of making them work on the high-roads was the best mean of effecting this good intention, is very doubtful. Beggars are seldom industrious; and the earnings of their labour could scarcely have rewarded the time of their overseers. The revolution has provided in another mode for this once numerous portion of the people, the condition of the poorer classes being so ameliorated as to render mendicity scarcely any longer the object of legislative attention. This letter serves, however, to prove how great an interest the king felt in the fate of the lowest orders of his subjects, and that his mind was continually occupied in purposes of doing good.

"M. Berthier's philanthropy, though praised by the king, was far differently understood by those who were the objects of his solicitude. He was one among the few persons who were sacrificed to the fury of the populace in the very first days of the revolution. The crime imputed to him was that of monopolising corn destined for the capital, which act has never been disproved: but his death was attended by circumstances of barbarity which would disgrace the least civilised nation."

A letter, characteristic of a mind reverting from infidelity to credulity is the forty-first, which shortly succeeded his arrestation on the elopement to Montmedi.

"TO THE ARCHBISHOP OF ARLES.

"*June* 29, 1791.

"To console the most unfortunate of kings, you recall, my lord archbishop, the example of David, compelled to flee before his son Absalom. Forsaken monarch, unfortunate father! it is not vengeance that David calls to his aid; it is not the thunderbolt of irritated heaven that he invokes; in the king of kings he places all his confidence. He prays for an ungrateful son; he pardons the monster by whom he is pursued, and who seems to thirst for his blood. This act of paternal affection is sublime; and I glory in having a conformity of sentiments and ideas with David. Persecuted by ungrateful children, who calumniate a tender father, I have only thought of their interests and their happiness. At the feet of religion I depose the injuries heaped upon the monarch: may the people be happy! and I am satisfied. I enjoy a soothing satisfaction, while, in my hours of solitude, I can bless Providence, and submit myself to its decrees: it is then that all injuries, all injustice, all wrongs are forgotten. Am I not too happy, my lord archbishop? and can divine justice be satisfied? I have been punished for having preferred that insolent philosophy, which had seduced, and plunged me into an abyss of misery: for that, I neglected the ancient worship of my forefathers, so dear to St. Lewis, from whom I am proud of descending. You, my lord archbishop, whose religious virtues inspire admiration, and who prefer them to those of which philosophers are proud, but which, viewed through the prism of religion, bear so near a resemblance to vices, offer for your unfortunate king the vows of a heart inflamed by divine love—of a holy bishop whom I may compare to Ambrose—with this difference, that Theodosius humbled himself before him for having cruelly chastised a rebellious people, and I solicit the aid of your prayers, to bring back a people who will never have to reproach me with having caused either their blood or tears to flow.

"LEWIS."

The marginal observations of Louis XVI. on that memoir of Turgot's, which, in fact, founded the revolution, and is at this time still inflecting toward itself the new as it did the old authorities, would be very curious were it certainly original; but it has the appearance of being the marginal refutation of some posterior ministry, laid before the king in order to detach him from projects of reform, to which he had previously lent an ear. We shall, however, extract it.

"*Marginal Observations of* Lewis *the* XVIth, *on a Note of M. Turgot, relative to Administration.*——— 1776.

"To ascertain if it be proper to establish municipalities,' says M. Turgot, 'if it be expedient to bring to perfection, or change, those already existing, and what form of constitution to give to those that it may be deemed necessary to create, it is not sufficient that we turn back to the origin of those municipal administrations.——The custom of deciding what is to be done from the researches

Digitized by Google

and example of what our ancestors have done in times which we ourselves allow to have been those of ignorance and barbarism, has too much prevailed in affairs of moment.—— This method tends to excite in princes a disgust of their most important functions, by persuading them, that, in order to discharge their duties with usefulness and glory, it is requisite to possess extensive information.'

"Remarks of Lewis XVI.

"No great sagacity is necessary to judge that the present note is calculated to establish a new form of government in France, and to depreciate its ancient institutions, which the author supposes to be the produce of ages of ignorance and barbarism; as if the reigns of my last three predecessors could be considered, by just and reasonable minds, among those of barbarous ages; or as if my kingdom were not indebted to those three reigns for the tone and rank it holds in Europe. Europe will not readily be persuaded that those three reigns were those of barbarism and ignorance; she will more easily believe that she owes in part to those three reigns the civilization she now enjoys.

"You will be able, Sire,' continues M. Turgot, 'to govern, like God, by general laws, if the integral parts of your empire were regularly organised, and connected with each other.'

"Remark of Lewis XVI.

"Most probably, on the contrary, if the organization of my provinces were alike, it would be a reason for not being obeyed, or for being ill obeyed; since it would be much more difficult to set at once in motion a whole mass, than to move it, as my ancestors have done, by intendants and state-provincial assemblies.

"The cause of the evil,' says M. Turgot, 'is that your nation, Sire, has no constitution.'

"Remark of Lewis XVI.

"This is the great grievance of M. Turgot: the lovers of novelty must have a France more than English.

"Some of your provinces have, however, a constitution, assemblies,' says M. Turgot, 'a sort of public voice: such are the provincial assemblies; but, being composed of orders whose pretensions are very different, and whose interests are opposite to each other, and to those of the nation, the states are far from effecting all the good that might be wished for the provinces, in the administration of which they partake. Your majesty may give to the other provinces, who have no sort of constitution, a better organized constitution than that of which the provincial assemblies are proud. A plan should be adopted, that might link individuals to their families, families to their village, villages and towns to their district, districts to the provinces, and provinces to the state.'

"Remark of Lewis XVI.

"It still appears that M. Turgot is the enemy of the variety of orders which compose the provincial assemblies, and of the hierarchy of those assemblies, which preserves in France the faculties and honours of different individuals, and forms the hierarchy of my subjects, without which monarchy can no where exist. M. Turgot proposes an hierarchy of powers, which is chimerical, unless an hierarchy of birth forms its basis, as is the case in all monarchies, antient and modern, and in almost all republics.

"The right of citizenship cannot be lawfully granted,' says M. Turgot, 'nor a voice in the parish-assemblies, except to those who possess landed property.'

"Remark of Lewis XVI.

"This is the means of creating mal-contents in the parish, among the class of non-proprietors; and if the former are permitted to hold assemblies, it is a germ of discord.

"I would propose to your majesty,' says M. Turgot, 'only to grant a vote to each proprietor of six hundred livres a year. He who possesses only one hundred livres a year would be the sixth part of a citizen.'

"Remark of Lewis XVI.

"To cut into two or four parts the rights of a man in a political assembly, in proportion to the size of his fortune, is an idea so new, and that has also something in it so eccentric and so strange, that the dignity of the state could not admit of its being proposed.

"The provincial assembly,' says M. Turgot, 'should be composed of deputies of municipal assemblies, to determine for each of their own districts the sums they have to pay.'

"Remark of Lewis XVI.

"This operation is transacted by means of intendants commissioned by the king, and in the provincial assemblies by the three orders. The composition of three orders has too essential a connexion with the privileges of the French, and the mission of intendants is too closely connected with the royal authority, to suffer their being metamorphosed into deputies of the people; which would be the total subversion of the established order. The administration, in general, of the provincial assemblies, with some exceptions, and that of the intendants, setting aside a few abuses, are what is best in my kingdom. It is not in that quarter that lies the principal defect of the state.

"The great municipality, Sire, the general municipality of the kingdom, would complete the municipalities of the first order: it would be the centre around which would twine, through the hands of your majesty, all the threads corresponding to the most distant and the smallest points of your kingdom. The general municipality should be composed of deputies from each provincial assembly; each deputy should be permitted to have an adjoint. Your majesty would declare, by your minister of finance, to the whole of the provinces, the sums which you would want to defray the expences of the state.

Digitized by Google

"Remark of Lewis XVI.

"That would be perhaps the way to obtain nothing. Our parliaments are accustomed to grant all that is required of them at the expence of the people: but they are also in the habit of refusing every thing, and of suffering themselves to be exiled, when they are to establish any tax to their own personal prejudice. To assemble the men of property in my kingdom for the purpose of levying taxes, is taking the very means of rendering them averse to the tax demanded. The Abbé Terray has fully proved that there is no certainty of raising a tax, except when it is levied by order of him who does not pay, or who pays the least part of it. The idea of forming perpetual states-general is subversive of the monarchy, which is only absolute because its authority is not divided. The moment they are assembled, there exists no longer any thing intermediate between the king and the nation, except an army; and it is grievous to confide to the military the defence of the authority of the state, against the French people assembled. The system of M. Turgot is a fine dream; it is a particular species of Utopian government, coming from a man whose views are good; but who would overthrow the actual state of things. The ideas of M. Turgot are extremely dangerous; and resistance must be made to their novelty.

"All this,' says M. Turgot, 'may be done this year, or the beginning of the next: but it is not until the first days of October, after the last harvests, that the municipal elective assemblies could be held.'

"Remark of Lewis XVI.

"Here then is a new France speedily regenerated, and assembled: but, in the mean time, old France, that is, the great of the kingdom, the parliaments, the provincial assemblies, the échevins, the prévôts des marchands, the capitouls, would hold their sittings also, and perhaps put themselves in insurrection, desiring to know by the commission of what crimes they had merited being deposed.

"After a few years, your majesty would have a new people, and the first of people.

"Remark of Lewis XVI.

"It is certain there would then be established in France assemblies extremely new; for the right of property, with that of birth, and quality, the antient forms of the monarchy, would be abolished, to substitute in their places the assemblies of a new people.

"Instead,' says M. Turgot, 'of the corruption, the meanness, the intrigues, and rapacity, which generally prevail, your majesty would meet at every step with virtue, disinterestedness, honour, and zeal,'

"Remark of Lewis XVI.

"I am ignorant whether France, administered by persons chosen by the people, and by the most wealthy, would be more virtuous than it is, administered by the right of birth, and the choice of kings. I find, in the succession of administrators named by my ancestors, and in the chief families of the robe, and even of finance, in my kingdom, Frenchmen whose names would reflect honour on any nation. The passage from the state of things abolished, to that which is now proposed by M. Turgot, merits attention; since we see plainly what is, but only see in theory what is not; and dangerous enterprises ought not to be undertaken, unless we know their tendency.—Feb. 15th, 1788.

"Observation.

"At the time this memorial was written, Lewis the XVIth. was strongly imbibed with the philosophical and revolutionary ideas of M. Turgot. Twelve years had now elapsed since the dismissal of that minister, when the monarch, finding that those opinions had spread among the people, turned back to the cause of the evil, which he appears to have found in the porte-feuille in which were deposited M. Turgot's regenerating notes and observations.

"It is on the present memorial, containing certainly the genuine principles of the revolution which took place in the following year, that the monarch fixed his particular attention. The remarks on the dispositions of this note are judicious: but M. Turgot's ideas had taken too deep root in the mind of the nation, to be now eradicated. The germs of the revolution, fostered by a genial ray from the western hemisphere, had already sprung up; and the king might make comments, if he pleased, on their mischievous properties: but it was too late to arrest, with a feeble hand, the progress of their mighty vegetation."

The translations of these letters are executed with the ease, the elegance, the idiomatic ambidexterity of a patriot of both countries. They will be appealed to by future grammarians, to decide controversies of language, and to assist in ascertaining the shades of meaning which separate synonymous parallelisms. They constitute in their present form a book remarkably well adapted to assist young persons in the acquirement of French. All the letters are given first in the original language, and next in a skilful and close version.

The commentaries are in general pervaded by an humane and equitable spirit favourable to liberty, to morality, and to rational religion. The insincerity of Lewis is indeed arraigned; but it is there. The Girondist party is indeed applauded; but it has exalted claims to admiration. Some historical criticisms are interspersed of solid value; such as the observations on the sixty-fourth letter; yet we could have wished for the

Digitized by Google

intermixture of a little more of that personal and specific information concerning many individuals alluded to, which the translatress has probably had peculiar opportunities of attaining.

The present here made to the English public is the more valuable, as we understand that the French edition is not yet published; and possibly may be thought by the low jealousy of the new monarch of France unfit for publication in his realms. An authority reduced to put its seal on the doors of printing-offices, may be worthy of the barbaric force by which it was elevated: but it must check the foundation of schools, and the circulation of intelligence in France: it must condemn an adolescence, elsewhere consecrated to learning, there to be squandered in the debauched idleness of camps and barracks, if it would retain in its grasp the crosier of bigotry and the sceptre of tyranny.

ART. XIII. *A Statistical View of France, compiled from authentic Documents. By the Chevalier* DE TINSEAU. 8vo. pp. 178.

THIS work, with the exception of a few pages of remarks, consisting wholly of tables, is no proper object of literary criticism. It is, however, a most important political document, and on this account demands a short analysis of its contents.

The tables contained in this volume were drawn up in the 10th year of the French republic, (1801) by order of the government, and under the direction of the minister of justice, Abrial, assisted by Chanlaire and Herbin. Although the total amount of the French population is considerably greater than it has usually been reckoned, yet there seems no reason to call in question the accuracy of this enumeration, more especially as the present population of several of the large manufacturing towns, is stated considerably lower than what was known to be the actual amount before the revolution.

The first document is a compleat table of all the departments, subdivided into districts and cantons, with an account of the population of the cantons and chief towns, their territorial extent, and the number of communes belonging to each canton. There are 102 departments, divided into 3317 communes, occupying an extent of 636,343 kilometres, (about 193,933 square miles) and containing a population of 33,104,343 souls, exclusive of the six departments of Piedmont, whose population is 1,946,800 souls, on a territory of 21,906 kilometres. The population of old France amounts to 27,989,924 souls, on 161,810 square miles of territory; the acquisitions from Germany, including the Austrian Netherlands, amount to 18,678 square miles, with a population of 4,387,000 inhabitants; those from Switzerland and Italy (exclusive of Piedmont) amount to 5103 square miles, with a population of 727,419 inhabitants; hence the total population of the French empire, not including the dependent and tributary states of Holland, Switzerland, Tuscany, and the Cisalpine republic, amounts to 35,051,143 souls.

The second table contains a list of the 500 principal cities and towns in France, arranged according to the number of their inhabitants; of these, 29 contain from 1500 to less than 4000 each; 116 contain from 4000 to 5000; 106 contain from 5000 to 6000; 58 contain from 6000 to 7000; 34 contain from 7000 to 8000; 27 contain from 8000 to 9000; 15 contain from 9000 to 10,000; 45 contain from 10,000 to 15,000; 24 contain from 15,000 to 20,000; 22 contain from 20,000 to 30,000; 12 contain from 30,000 to 50,000; 8 contain from 50,000 to 100,000; and 4 contain above 100,000. The population of the whole 500 towns amounts to 5,405,119 souls; of which Paris contains 546,856; Bourdeaux 112,844; Marseilles 111,130; and Lyons 109,500.

The third table exhibits the internal revenue, collected in the 102 departments, under the heads of—1. land-tax, 2. personal taxes, and upon furniture, &c. 3. house and window tax, 4. patents, or licenses to exercise particular trades, 5. additional centimes; besides which the expences of public instruction, provincial administration, and judicial courts, are charged on each department. The total amount of all these are,—1. land-tax 210,000,000 francs, 2. personal, &c. 32,000,000, 3. houses and windows 17,600,000, 4. patents 21,845,425, 5. additional 38,720,000, 6. administration 13,205,686, 7. judiciary 14,909,385, 8.

Digitized by Google

public instruction 3,158,500; in all, 351,438,997 francs, or somewhat less than 11 francs for each individual.

Such are the resources and native strength of that formidable power, which the unprincipled aggression of the confederated kings has exalted upon the ruins of the European continent.

ART. XIV. *History of the Revolutions of Russia, to the Accession of Catherine the First: including a concise Review of the Manners and Customs of the 16th and 17th Centuries. By* HENRY CARD, *A. B. Pemb. Coll. Oxon.* 8vo. pp. 710.

ONE of the most valuable sources of Russian historiography, is *Schloetzer's Probe Russischer Annalen*. Mr. Tooke, in his excellent History of Russia, has consulted, with becoming attention, the admirable labours of this profound, this omniscient antiquary; who, in all the branches of arctic paleosophy, has displayed a research, a sagacity, and an adapted erudition, which will long be toiled after, with vain emulation, by the panting antiquaries of these puny times. From a writer on the revolutions of Russia, one is disposed to expect, and even to claim a careful perusal of at least all the leading authorities. It is not enough to tell us, (at page 6) that "the several writers who relate, in the sixteenth century, the history of Russia in the Latin language, are far superior in their compositions to any other foreigners of a subsequent date;" when the first antiquary, which the world ever produced, has subsequently consecrated so much labour to the express investigation of Russian affairs. Yet Mr. Card seems ignorant of the very existence of Schloetzer, and neither refers to his memoirs in the commentaries of the Petropolitan academy, to his specimen of Russian annals, nor to the sketches scattered in his northern history.

Assemani, the Syrian, fancied he had found in Theophanes, that is in the year 774, the first traces of the Russian name; but a severer criticism construes the epithet ρυσια, to mean *ruddled*, or *painted red*, and not *Russian*. It is therefore in the Bertinian annals, and to the year 839, that the first trace must be referred. The Russians speak a Slavonian dialect, and must consequently be allied in language, as Forster has shewn in his letter to Michaelis, with the Medes of antiquity; from some of whose tribes they no doubt descend. In 862, they submitted to the sway of Rurik, a Norman, who made Novgorod his chief residence, or seat of empire. In the Vandal tribes, who peopled Carinthia, Bohemia, Bavaria, and Moravia, the peasantry have still Slavonian names, but the nobility Gothic names; so that an early internal hereditary ascendancy was every where acquired by the Goths, over the contiguous Slavonians; either because they were the more civilized of the two tribes, or from a physical admiration of their fairer complexion and appearance. Such causes would sufficiently account for the elevation of Rurik; but our author assures us, (page 8) that "he was selected by the republicans of Novgorod, to purge their city from the impurities of discord." How has Mr. Card found out, that there ever was a republic at Novgorod? Does he rely, in this age of historical criticism, on the authorities which taught Milton that Rurik descended from Augustus, and flourished in 573? And that the imperial cup was the skull of Stoslaus, inscribed *seeking other mens' he lost his own*. It may be allowed to Soumarokoff, in a tragedy, to make Vadim a hero of liberty; but the historian should not describe savages like citizens of Geneva or Paris.

The dynasty, which sprang from Rurik, continued to reign until 1598. In 882, they acquired Kiow, and transferred thither the seat of power. In 955, Olga, the daughter-in-law of Rurik, went to Constantinople, and was there baptised. Her husband and son continued faithful to Perun, the national idol; but in 988, Volodimer, or Vladimir, a grandson, submitted to baptism. With the religion of the Constantinopolitan Greeks, their monks, their arts, their sciences, penetrated into Russia; and already, in 1056, was born Nestor, the first Russian annalist, who wrote at the end of the eleventh century, and died in the Pechzerian convent at Kiow. He supplies what of tradition is known concerning the earliest history; and from his time onward, other monkish chronicles furnish the rest.

Sylvester, the abbot of Perejaslavil, who died in 1123, was the continuator of Nestor's chronicle; to him succeeded Simeon, bishop of Susdal, who wrote in 1206, and many other ecclesiastics.

Digitized by Google

Some corroborations or corrections of their intelligence, may be gleaned from the chronicles (stepennye knigi), pedigrees (Rodoslovnje knigi), and red books (Rozradnye knigi); but the earliest document preserved in the archives of the empire, dates from czar Andreas, who died in 1158.

It is one part of the usual task of an historian, to record and to appreciate the fountains of his intelligence; but from the references attached to the chapters of this work, one would almost suppose the greater part of these notorious particulars to have escaped our author's knowledge. The Latin historians of the sixteenth century, Leclerc and Leveque, Frenchmen, and Bayer, are his favourite vouchers, and from them he often quotes at second hand. Instead of complimenting the Russian nation with an original enquiry into its annals, which might contribute to inspire at Petersburgh and Moscow a solicitude about English opinion, we have a declamatory substitution of vague allusions, to novel or definite intelligence. Every thing is narrated, as by Gibbon, in abstractions. It is always the intrepidity, or the piety, or the cruelty, or the patience of the sovereign, and never he himself, which produces a given effect. As in a French epic poem, allegorical personages seem the only agents; thus all precision of assertion, all personality of information, is inconveniently eluded. Yet the style itself is highly polished, splendid, and impressive; like the tragedy of Zingis, it abounds indeed with hard names and noisy lines. We have to hear

"How 'gainst the Nirons the bold Naimans
"stood,
"And red Taxartes foam'd with Omrah's
blood."

But if any dexterity of diction could prepare the public for receiving, with interest, an account of heroes and tribes, as yet so unknown to celebrity here, it is precisely a form of narrative, which has associated their mention with periods so spangled with sounding epithets, and rounded with polysyllabic terminations.

We shall quote the account of the introduction of christianity:

"The first ray of evangelical light seemed to beam on the Russians under the reign of Oskold, the prince of Kief; in one of those sudden excursions of piratical adventure which perhaps had before alarmed the timorous Greeks, the enterprizing Oskold marked out their magnificent city of Constantinople, as the grand object of his predatory ambition; this daring attempt was made with two hundred boats, or Monoxyla as they are called by the Emperor Constantine Porphyrogenitus. If the whole force of their country had been exerted, their navy perhaps might have amounted to two thousand vessels. Without opposition they passed the Thracian Bosphorus. Emboldened rather than satiated by this extraordinary success, they attempted and succeeded in occupying the port of Constantinople, under the reign of the Emperor Michael III. who had some time left his capital with the vain hope of chastising the insolence of the Saracens. On the first news of these unwelcome and dangerous visitors, he returned with his army to revive the fainting courage of his capital. The reader, who keeps in his remembrance a geographical view of Constantinople, and the situation of the Russians, can well imagine the numerous difficulties which the Emperor had to encounter in effecting a landing at the palace stairs, from whence his superstition, that indisputable offspring of fear, directed his agitated steps to a church of the Virgin Mary; where the devout Emperor, with his no less devout patriarch, passed the whole night in prayers; instead of meditating the relief of his people by a well determined spirit of zeal and patriotism.

"By the injunctions of the patriarch, the garment of the Virgin Mary, a most precious relic, was drawn from the sanctuary and dipped into the sea; and their weak hearts fondly persuaded themselves, that by this act of futile devotion, the thunder-bolt of divine vengeance would have been hurled against these bloody and fierce barbarians. A seasonable tempest, however, released them from their present fears, by compelling the Russians to a precipitate retreat, which was most piously attributed, by their blind credulity, to the propitious influence of the mother of God. Oskold, the chief of this expedition, after enjoying the glory of humbling the Greek pride, demanded a peace, which was readily granted by their abject fears, and perhaps from a secret persuasion, that in a second critical juncture, the succours of their divine protectress might come too tardy. After the terms of the treaty had been adjusted, Oskold expressed a wish to receive the sacred waters of baptism. And, under his auspices, a Greek bishop, with the name of Metropolitan, might for the first time have administered the sacrament in the church of Kief: but the salutary vegetation of the gospel was blighted by the ungenial touch of these barbarians; since, after the death of Oskold, this short glimpse of holy light was soon involved in a cloud of ignorance, so thick and heavy as to obscure almost all traces of their christian conversion.

"Nor did this loathsome darkness disappear, until the Russian throne was mounted by the princess Olga. A woman (perhaps of the meanest extraction) who could punish

Digitized by Google

the death of her husband Igar, and obtaining a regal sway over a fiery and turbulent people, who then could scarcely submit with patience to the government of their legal princes must have been pre-eminently gifted with those masculine qualifications, which imprint the duty of obedience on minds the least tinctured with the virtues of civilization. Though gross idolatry overspread her country, yet the precepts and example of the missionaries transplanted by Oskold had made an impression on her heart too deep to be easily effaced; accordingly, moved by the wish of embracing christianity in the most august manner, or by the less spiritual desire of extending the circulation of her trade, she sailed from Kief to Constantinople in the time of public and private tranquillity.

"The royal historian, the Emperor Constantine Porphyrogenitus, welcomed her arrival with all the honours appropriate to the majesty of her rank; and with all the forms and ceremonies which could flatter her female vanity, and display the transient greatness of his luxury and splendour. From the numerous and costly presents which at once perhaps excited her astonishment and gratified her avarice, we may select, as no mean specimens of imperial generosity, and as most adapted to a lady's wants, some vases of rare value, and a quantity of those fine stuffs which were then only fabricated in the east. The emperor himself conducted her to the baptismal fount, where she received the venerated name of the empress Helena. The Russian chronicles would teach us to believe, that her beauty so captivated Constantine, that he offered to share his throne with her; but if the emperor himself had not informed us that his wife was yet alive, we should want no better evidence to refute this tale, and to show us that he would have indignantly rejected the union, than the perusal of his instructions to his son Romanus, in which he exposes the ill policy of listening to the overtures of foreign alliances.

"On her return to Kief and Novgorod, she pertinaciously adhered to her new religion; but this great princess, great does she deserve to be called, (for in this babarous age, she constructed towns and villages, formed bridges and roads for the benefit of trade, and established institutions of general utility,) sensibly experienced the weakness of her power, and the obstinacy of human nature in her unremitting endeavours to wean her nation and son from their attachment to the gods of their fathers.

"Proud and sanguinary, and strangers to all those pursuits which give birth to acts of humanity and justice, her people scorned and were ill calculated to tread in the smooth paths of humanity and peace. Whilst to all the frequent pious exhortations of his mother, the harsh inflexibility of Sviatoslaf insultingly demanded, whether she wished him to become an object of contempt and derision to his companions. From the temper of this interrogatory, it requires no prodigious depth of sagacity to have foreseen, that the christian religion would soon shrink into insignificance and obscurity on the death of Olga. And indeed so rapid was its decline, that the churches erected by the fervent zeal of this princess, could scarcely preserve it from total extinction.

"We have now contemplated the rise and progress of christianity, and deduced the visible causes of its decay. From this period, a more pleasing exercise commences; to observe the gradual extirpation of paganism, and to mark the final establishment of the christian religion.

"The military renown, the increasing wealth, the unrelaxing firmness, the extensive authority of Vladimir, now began to command the fears and invite the attention of the neighbouring potentates. By gifts they courted his esteem; by embassies they solicited his conversion to their respective religions. Nearly at the same time, it is said, were presented to him, deputies from the Pope, or rather of some catholic prince, from the people of great Bulgaria, and from the Jews established among the Kozares. But all their prospects of success were darkened by the mission and lively eloquence of a Greek Metropolitan. This loquacious prelate, whom the chronicles dignify with the appellation of a philosopher, though he failed in making an absolute proselyte of his illustrious auditor; was, however, dismissed with his friendship and gifts: an enviable happiness which the rest, perhaps, had sighed for in vain. Indeed, so strong was the impression made on the heart and understanding of Vladimir, by the discourse of this theological advocate, that he dispatched six or ten Russians, of pre-eminent wisdom among their countrymen, to inspect minutely the religious principles and rites of their different countries.

"They first directed their course to the Bulgarians, (eastward of Russia) and zealous champions of the warlike prophet of Mecca; but they soon changed their abode, little moved by their extravagant veneration for the chimerical doctrines of their apocryphal Koran. They afterwards visited the Latin churches of Germany, whose want of external ornament they beheld with the unfavourable emotions of pity and contempt. But on their arrival at Constantinople, they gazed with inexpressible admiration and delight, on the magnificent dome of St. Sophia; and their attention was equally arrested by the pompous and alluring embellishments which adorned their altars; by the impressive pictures of their saints and martyrs; by the rich vestments of their priests; by their idolatrous worship of images and relics; and by the pleasing order of their ostentatious ceremonies. A religion, therefore, which embraced such a succession of splendid rites, was soon considered, by their uncultivated intellects to contain the very essence of christianity.

Digitized by Google

"With minds heated and enraptured by these gaudy, though, perhaps, not unmeaning spectacles, they hastened their return to Vladimir. To his anxious inquiries, on the events of their mission, they dispatched, with a disdainful impatience, their account of the Latin ceremonial; whilst they expatiated with a visible satisfaction, and with all the glowing colours of enthusiasm, on the various beauties of the imperial city of Constantinople. We thought ourselves transported into Heaven, exclaimed they to their attentive monarch; nor were they slow to believe, that a choir of angels came down each day from the skies, to join in the sacred song of the Greeks. Thus completely did the lustre of the Greeks eclipse all hopes of their conversion to the Latin church. When the curiosity of the prince was sufficiently satisfied by their description, they implored his permission to be initiated into the pleasures of religious adoration at Constantinople.

"No sooner had the boyars of his counsel perceived the propitious effects of this recital on the mind of Vladimir, than they instantly cried out, such was their abject credulity, or such was their fawning obsequiousness, that the religion, which could be honoured by the praises of the sage deputies, and embraced by the pious Olga, must be worthy of implicit belief.

"But though Vladimir listened to the voice of reason, or rather to the dictates of his own inclinations, yet his conversion was retarded from the want of Greek priests. To demand them of the emperor was a species of homage, at the very idea of which his lofty soul revolted; the barbarian therefore designed to sow, with his sword, that baptism and instruction which, to have possessed in a proper manner, he would have judged no less wounding to his dignity than disgraceful to his valour. This wild and eccentric plan was pursued with a persevering industry, and executed with a systematic spirit.

"Promptitude and obedience must be interwoven in close contexture, to accomplish all expeditions of peril. These incentives to success were not neglected by Vladimir. An immense army, composed from the flower of his empire, soon passed the Taurican Chersonese, and unfurled their banners under the lofty battlements of the ancient Theodosia, the modern Kaffa. Before this place he is said to have addressed the Almighty Power, in a speech worthy of himself, and his country, and his times. 'Oh God! enable me to overcome this city, that from thence I may transport priests and christians into my dominions, whose piety and learning may instruct us in the true exercise of religious worship.'

"He then attacked the city, unaided by any of the implements of assault, which so essentially contribute to expedite the labours of a siege. But his slow progress, and the number of his gallant men, which he devoted to death from his proud and wanton capriciousness, might have excited, in a less ignorant mind, some apprehensions, that his present conduct was considered as a direct violation of those moral and christian duties which he so anxiously wished to discharge.

"After pressing the siege for six months, with an ineffectual vigour, the pagan began to suspect, that he had adopted an expedient by no means favourable to his present conversion; and, with the shame of relinquishing his enterprize, he now entertained the most serious fears, that he must also renounce the pious object which provoked him to it, if a perfidious citizen, or, as some more rationally declare, a priest had not preferred the virtues of spiritual to temporal obedience: a letter fixed to an arrow, shot from the top of the ramparts, delayed his march and rewarded his valour. Behind their camp, they learned from this aërial information, was a fountain, which alone enabled the besieged to taste, from its subterranean pipes, the refreshing comforts of pure water. The rejoiced Vladimir was not long in discovering and destroying this necessary support of a long resistance. The difficulties of the enterprize then vanished; the complaints of thirst were heard, felt, and soon remedied, by a general surrender. In possession of Theodosia, he saw himself master of the whole Chersonese.

"By this victory his power was enlarged and his fancy gratified: but this inestimable gift of baptism formed not the sole object of his ambition: he aspired to mix his blood with the blood of the Cæsars, by a marriage with the princess Anne, sister to the reigning emperors Basil and Constantine. His pretensions were enforced by the promise of conversion, and by the insolent threat, that Constantinople might soon expect the same fate as Theodosia, should his reasonable demands be dismissed with contempt. After some affectation of delay, they consented to the first proposal; since all maxims of state were annihilated; all prepossessions lost; all regard to purity of descent set aside, to confirm their safety. At the same time, therefore, and in the city of Cherson, the rites of baptism and marriage were solemnized by the christian Pontiff. The city he restored to his brothers-in-law; whilst abbots, priests, images, relics, holy books, and sacred vessels, were transported into Russia as rewards of this conquest and alliance.

"On his return to Kief, every indignity which could be devised by the imagination of Vladimir, was offered to those idols which he had so long adored; under the sagacious view of diminishing their estimation, and consequently of obtaining a more ready acquiescence to his devout example. Peroun, the god of thunder, and the most august of their divinities, at his despotic command, was tied to the tail of a horse, and dragged through the streets of Kief; whilst twelve vigorous soldiers, during this woeful procession, battered, with clubs, the golden head and sil-

Digitized by Google

ver ears of the mishapen image, until it was furiously thrown into the waters of the Borysthenes.

"Immediately after this public act of expiatory vengeance, an edict of Vladimir, proclaimed to his subjects, that all those who refused the rites of baptism would be considered and treated as enemies of Jesus Christ and of their prince. On the moment this order was published, many thousands of Russians, instantly flocked to the rivers, with obedient joy, to receive the sacrament of baptism. No persecutions nor admonitions were necessary to strengthen this decree; since they all tacitly submitted to the truth and goodness of a doctrine, which had been adopted by him and his boyars.

"Such was the final establishment of christianity, which soon levelled with the ground the gross and incongruous edifice of pagan superstition."

The narrative is continued to the death of Peter, called by Voltaire, Peter the Great. Voltaire willingly praised the sovereigns who turned adventurers, well aware he should thereby pave the way for adventurers to turn sovereigns; but if he had chosen to satirize Peter as a madman, posterity would quite as readily have ratified the verdict. Has a sovereign nothing better to do than to put himself apprentice to a ship-carpenter in Holland? Is there no simpler, easier, surer way of teaching the art of ship-building to his subjects? Was it wise to shift his metropolis to Petersburgh, and thus to condense populousness where agriculture, commerce, and every sort of productive industry are necessarily paralytic, during more than half the year, from climate? He ordered the introduction of Danish legislation, which, before Bernstorff, was the most despotic in Europe; but he wanted to get under a nobility, which ventured to resist his caprices, instead of distributing civilization to the people, through the medium of his nobles. By attempting to skip this step in the natural process, he deferred, a full half century, the possible march of Russian improvement. His military excellence was inconsiderable; his reforms in the ecclesiastical order approach expediency; yet the active patronage of what literature existed in the Russian church, would probably have conduced more to the progress of intellect, than a jealousy of the priesthood, and an extinction of the patriarchate — The people, as yet, were alike unprepared to spare their beards, or their priests. As to the speeches put into Peter's mouth by Levesque, and transcribed or condensed (there is one at page 558) by our author, they are not in costume, they are plainly manufactured, beside the Argand lamps of the Parisian book-makers; and have no more claim to authenticity, than Herodotus's debate of the Persian conspirators, on the best form of government. Could Peter have prated about arts, and Greece, and glory, surely he would not have waged an obstinate war of twenty-one years, for deserts, against Sweden; surely he would not have been the executioner of his wife and of his son; nor have attempted that overthrow of hereditary succession to the throne, which is the only apology for the monarchic institution itself.

Let us suppose Peter, in every thing, to have lived the reverse of his real life, it will be obvious, that Russia would have been more indebted to him; the extraordinary is not the excellent. If instead of a personal simplicity, bordering on nastiness, he had been luxurious and pompous in his apparel, the imitative nobility would have sent to Lyons for silks, and velvets, and embroidery; and in order to meet the increased expenditure, would have endeavoured to increase on their estates the growth of hemp, the reserve of tallow and hides, and the smelting of iron. To personal would have succeeded apartmental decoration; and the business of the carpenter, the plaisterer, the upholsterer, would have been taught to the apprenticed vassals of all the nobles, and the arts of life have been domesticated in every village. Had he increased the pomp of worship, and the numbers of the clergy, and carefully patronized the literate among them, an order of school-masters would have been distributed over his empire, who could alone persuade his stupid subjects to the toil of alphabetic learning, by persuading them that prayers should be read aloud. Had he purchased, by the cession of Lapland and Finland, and of the very site of Petersburg itself, a twenty-one years peace of the Swedes, the population of his empire would meanwhile have doubled, the pioneers of desolation would have been making roads, and the architects of ruin have built cities. The scantling, not felled for pikes, would have become saleable timber; for moveable camps there would have been stationary villages; for murders, marriages. Had his metropolis been stationed near the mouth of the Don, a fertile soil, a climate which ripens two crops within the year,

an intercourse with the long polished and luxurious Mediterranean nations, would have attracted a colony tutored in all the arts of industry, trade, and civilization, and would have matured in his single reign a higher growth of prosperity, than has taken place in a century on the banks of the Neva. The rivers of the Euxine branch far inland, and would have diffused the productions of interchange. And what to low ambition and the pride of kings is perhaps of more consequence, the strength of empire being accumulated in the south, would far more speedily have blunted the horns of the crescent, and have restored Turkey to christian sway.

Mr. Card has certainly furnished to the public a convenient and florid epitome of Russian history, which displays perhaps more talent than research, more brilliancy than judgment, more eloquence than industry; but which still merits praise for extensive information, for instructive remark, and for splendid composition.

ART. XV. *The History of the Invasion of Switzerland by the French, and the Destruction of the Democratical Republics of Schwitz, Uri, and Unterwalden. By* HENRY ZSCHOKKE, *National Prefect of the Canton of Basil. Translated from the French of J. B. Briatte, Secretary of Legation to the Helvetic Republic at Paris; with a Preface and Supplement by the Translator.* 8vo. pp. 365.

OF this very interesting narrative we have already given an account in our former volume, p. 339; it only remains therefore for us to add, that the English version now before us is characterized by its elegance and fidelity, and is enriched by a short supplementary notice of the further proceedings in Switzerland, till the election of the heroic Aloys Reding to the office of landamman of Schwitz, in March 1803.

"The publication of this work in England," observes the translator, "at the present period was thought peculiarly calculated to promote that spirit of resistance to unprincipled ambition, and the schemes of universal domination, which is alone to be relied upon in the arduous contest in which the nation is now engaged. The history of the memorable struggle here recorded will show what a people very inconsiderable in point of wealth and number was able to do in checking the progress of a host of invaders, by the mere force of native courage, and enthusiastic love of liberty and their country. It will show, that, stimulated by these motives, a band of peasants could be brought to charge with the bayonet, and entirely to defeat, battalions rendered formidable by their victories to the most warlike troops in Europe. It will also afford much valuable instruction for avoiding the faults which frustrated the defensive plans of the most powerful part of the confederacy, and placed the final stake in the hands of a few half-armed herdsmen. Moreover, it cannot fail to impress every generous mind with an indignant sense of the insolence of a lawless conqueror, and the degradation incurred by a vanquished and subjugated people."

ART. XVI. *The History of the Maroons, from their Origin to the Establishment of their Chief Tribe at Sierra Leone: including the Expedition to Cuba for the Purpose of procuring Spanish Chasseurs. By* R. C. DALLAS, *Esq.* 8vo. 2 vols.

MR. BRYANT EDWARDS, the celebrated historian of the West Indies, published in 1796 a cursory narrative of the Maroon war, which this author has undertaken to treat at large, in an epistolary form, but with much of the pomp and circumstance of regular history. The work is dedicated to a privy-councillor of Jamaica, William Dawes Quarrell, to whom the author represents himself as principally indebted (p. v) for the original and peculiar information contained in these letters; an information the more to be relied on, as he was the commissioner sent to Cuba for the Spanish chasseurs.

Mr. Dallas differs somewhat from Mr. Edwards, respecting the origin of the hostilities, which he thus comments:

"The whole cause of the Maroon revolt has been attributed to their resentment for the flogging of two of their people. It appeared afterwards, that these were persons of no consideration among them, and that but for the occasion afforded them of a pretence for complaining, they would themselves have hanged them without ceremony. The two men had been found guilty of theft, and punished before the slaves in the common workhouse, by a runaway negro who had formerly been taken by them; an act certainly impolitic. As the culprits went through the town and plantations they were laughed at, hissed, and hooted by the slaves; the more discontented part of the Maroons

Digitized by Google

seized upon the transaction as a reasonable ground for manifesting the temper they were in, and proceeded accordingly to dismiss captain Craskell. The intelligence given to the lieutenant-governor respecting the intended junction of the Maroons of Accompong Town, and of the preparatory measures taken by those of Trelawney Town, was more the result of alarm than of inquiry; no such measures were taken, nor did the Accompongs ever testify any intention of joining the others, as will be seen in the sequel. The Trelawney Maroons had long manifested their discontent against the Accompongs, for not yielding to them the original treaty made with Cudjoe, which they claimed the right of keeping. About this time it was again sent for, to be shown if necessary, and was given by the Accompongs, but never returned to them.

"On the day that the magistrates of St. James's wrote to the lieutenant-governor, they also sent a message to the Maroons, proposing that four of their justices should meet four chosen Maroons on the next day to settle all differences. To this an insolent answer was returned in the following words: 'The Maroons wishes nothing else from the country but battle; and they desires not to see Mr. Craskell up here at all. So they are waiting every moment for the above on Monday.' This was signed colonel Montague, *and all the rest*; and in a postscript was added, 'Mr. David Schaw will see you on Sunday morning for an answer. They will wait till Monday nine o'clock; and if they don't come up they will come down themselves.' This curious epistle, it was afterwards well known, was dictated by a few drunken Maroons, to a poor ignorant white man, without the concurrence of old Montague, who was then sick and absent; nor was it known to one-tenth part of the people: and I must not omit to say, that the principal men among the Maroons have ever denied that they voluntarily entered into a rebellion against the authority of the government, declaring they were forced into hostilities on a principle of self-preservation, being persuaded, from the subsequent conduct of the white people, that their destruction was determined. Be this as it may, a turbulent spirit had been evinced among them, to subdue which firmness was necessary. While therefore some headstrong Maroons were using a soldier of captain Craskell's ill, and compelling him to write to his commander, that it was too late to do any thing good, and that they wanted nothing, having got plenty of powder and ball, the Trelawney militia moved up to Green-Vale, a penn at the foot of the mountains leading to the Maroon Town, about three miles distant, and of most difficult access. Mr. Thorp, the custos of the parish, and several other gentlemen, accompanied the corps. As they approached the hill, they observed a single man winding along the acclivities with astonishing agility, and brandishing a lance to show that he had no other arms. This was a Maroon captain of the name of Smith, a young fellow of exquisite symmetry, whose limbs united all that was requisite both for strength and activity: the superiority of his gait, as he descended the side of the mountain, and the wild grace with which he flourished the lance over his head, excited the highest admiration. He approached the custos, and delivered a letter to him, in which he was requested to proceed to the town, accompanied by Mr. Gallimore, Mr. Knowles, Mr. Galloway, and Mr. Stewart. The invitation was accepted, and these five gentlemen went forward to Trelawney Town, where they found general Reid, Mr. Mowat, and major James, their late superintendant.

"The Maroons had prepared for this meeting, and received their visitors under arms, not however in the manner of a regular army, but with an apparent ferocity, wild manœuvres, and evolutions little suited to a deliberate and free discussion; nor indeed could the scene be viewed without a degree of alarm. Some of the Maroons had been qualifying themselves, as they often did on great occasions, with a sufficiency of rum, with which they had been abundantly supplied by intimidated persons in the neighbourhood willing to secure their favour.

"After much clamour, it was settled that one of their captains, named John Jarrett, by no means the least violent, should moderate his voice, and deliver himself in such a manner as to enable one of the gentlemen to write down what the Maroons wished to say. This being reduced into some form the grievances they complained of appeared to be as follows:

"1. An infringement of their treaty by the magistrates of Montego Bay, in causing the punishment of whipping to be inflicted on some of their people by the hand of a slave.

"2. That the land originally granted them for their subsistence was worn out, and being not sufficient for their support, they required an additional quantity, saying that the penns of several settlers in the neighbourhood would suit them.

"3. That captain Craskell, their superintendant, was, on account of his timidity unqualified for his office; and as they had experienced the disposition and abilities of major James, they were desirous of his re-appointment, and averse to receiving any other.

"Other matters were also alleged by them as grievances, but which they were induced to relinquish, on condition that the gentlemen present would consider themselves pledged to obtain redress for what was specified in this statement from the house of assembly, who were to meet early in the ensuing month: at the same time they showed a firmness of determination to pursue their object till these claims were settled

Digitized by Google

The gentlemen promised that their causes of complaint should be inquired into by the legislature, in order to be redressed.

"The Maroon speaker, after expatiating on the insufficiency of their lands, the inability of Craskell, and the qualities of James, without whose re-appointment they could not be satisfied, exclaimed: 'You are our tattas (that is, fathers), we your children; our situation, and the superiority we have in this country, we derive from our connexion with you; but when we do the duty required of us for these advantages, do not subject us to insult and humiliation from the very people to whom we are set in opposition.' He concluded by relating the triumph and language of the negro who flogged the men, and who was a slave whom they had previously taken up and lodged in the workhouse for punishment. The slaves of course, says one of the planters, made use of an opportunity to revenge themselves on the Maroons.

"The Maroons being soothed by the promises they had received, and the mediators being relieved from the apprehensions caused by the mode of their reception, the latter assented to the reasonableness of the complaint of the former, engaging to use all their influence to promote their wishes. Pleased at the result of the visit, or with a view of further insuring the satisfaction that appeared, it entered the mind of one of the mediators to propose a collection of money among themselves, for the people with whom they had come to mediate, and each gave something, except the gallant colonel Gallimore. He saw in success, obtained by tumult and violence, and in rewards bestowed on insolence, the seeds of future turbulence; therefore, instead of producing his purse, he took from his pocket some bullets, and showing them, said: 'This is the reward you deserve, and no other coin shall you get from me.' In the evening the mediators left Trelawney Town, hoping they had for a time, at least, tranquillized the Maroons.

"However satisfied the visitors were with the issue of their visit, the public mind was not so easily pacified in the capital, where a diversity of opinion arose respecting the conduct to be pursued towards the Maroons. General Palmer, of the parish of St. James's, wrote a letter to the lieutenant-governor, recommending, in the name of a meeting assembled on the occasion, a compliance with their demands; and, in a second letter, urged the reinstatement of major James and his son. Mr. Tharp, one of the great proprietors, and then custos of the parish of Trelawney, who, since the meeting he attended in Trelawney Town as mediator, had joined the fleet about to sail for Europe, also recommended temporizing and acquiescing in the demands made, as they were reasonable. In a letter written the day before he left the island, after imputing the rebellion of the Maroons to the improper conduct of the magistrates of St. James's, and a few trifling causes of discontent, he declared he was confident that hostilities would have commenced some days before, without specifying what prevented their taking place; but stating, that he believed Craskell, from what he understood, to be unfit for the office of superintendant; that major James was the idol of the Maroons, and that nothing less than his re-appointment would satisfy them.

"Soon after the departure of the custos for England, where he had estates that required his care, the Maroon affairs assumed a better aspect, and his judgment respecting the influence of these dreaded mountaineers over the slaves, which, in his opinion, would bring ruin on all, appeared to have been hastily formed; for neither the plantation-negroes, nor the other bodies of Maroons, discovered the slightest design of supporting them. On the contrary, those who were the most suspected, the Accompongs, publicly testified their disapprobation of the conduct of the people of Trelawney Town, declaring that they had a superintendant (captain Forbes) whom they loved, and whose advice they were resolved to follow. They immediately made a formal renewal of their compact with the whites, rendering the ceremony more solemn by the baptism of all the younger Maroons. Some of the plantation-negroes in the neighbourhood about this time preferring complaints against their overseers, their conduct was at first construed as taking advantage of the situation of things: but no alarm from the general conduct of the slaves could be justified, for never was a spirit of order and obedience more observable among the negroes than at this period. Even Edwards, who charges the Maroons with an early seduction of the slaves, says; 'Happily the class of people on whom they relied for support, remained peaceably disposed; nor did an instance occur to raise a doubt of their continuing to do so.' Neither did the planters attribute the discontents expressed on the plantations in the vicinity, to the influence of the Maroons; on the contrary, one of them says, 'What check have we so effectual as the Maroons?' and mentions this as a motive for settling with them without hostility; at the same time recommending the recollection that, in the rebellion of 1766, the Maroons brought in the head or person of every slave in rebellion, in the space of one month.

"Finding that, far from being supported, they were upbraided by the Accompongs, the Trelawney Town Maroons had leisure to reflect on the insolence of their conduct, and after some days evinced a less intractable disposition. On the 26th of July, information was received from a white man who had been at their town, that they were peaceable, and said they would be satisfied, as Craskell was removed, if they were left alone. It appeared clearly that the Maroons

Digitized by Google

were divided among themselves; that the milder and more numerous were kept in awe by the smaller and more violent, who were the younger. It was evident, too, that they were now in a state of repentance; for, in an account sent on the 28th by major James; who had been requested to remain among them till the business was arranged by the executive power, they were stated to be in so humiliated a condition, as to be ready to accede to whatever might be requested of them. One of them was in irons, by his order, for an impertinent expression, and the body of Maroons offered to sacrifice him rather than aggravate their offence: it was also determined among them, that six of their principal officers should go the next day to make a submission, and obtain a passport from general Palmer to Spanish Town, to lay their complaints before the governor, and submit themselves to him.

"Thus affairs seemed to be in a train of tranquillity; and, indeed, so confident was lord Balcarres of it that, on the militia being permitted by their commander to go home, and on the representation received of the state of things, he dispatched orders for the return of the troop of light dragoons that had been sent from Spanish Town, and suffered the 83d regiment of foot, which he had before expressly detained, to sail for St. Domingo, under convoy of the Success frigate. He also sent orders for captain Craskell to repair to Spanish Town, and directed that the chief captains of the Maroons should proceed to town by the 31st of July to make their submission."

This promising tranquillity was interrupted by the mischievous suggestions of the alarmists, who, by sowing mistrust and exaggerating danger, provoked men in authority to take those critical measures of precaution which, by terminating the protection of law and the comforts of liberty, justify a reclamation of the rights of nature. There is a species of moral cowardice, perfectly compatible with animal courage and personal bravery, which is in all emergencies the most dangerous and the most cruel of counsellors. It consists in a morbid irritability of the imagination, which requires on all occasions, not the proportionate, but the strongest possible antagonist stimulus. It is a species and degree of insanity which leads men to expend on precaution more than the worth of preservation, to break a butterfly upon a wheel, to oppose a village-riot by inflicting martial law over a county, to answer a pamphlet by a proscription, and punish a heresy by a massacre. Those writers and speakers who are afflicted with this disease, the professors of the terrible, as they might be called, are sure to elevate and s prize, to agitate and impassion th hearkeners: hence they acquire a r putation for excellence and influenc which arises only from the imperfe and ignorant taste of their disciple Merely to produce a great effect is n meritorious: he who throws a hea stone into a puddle may do that; but thereby he besplashes and bemires t ladies who are walking near, it is n his skill, but his awkwardness, th ought to be noticed. These agitato are in politics, what methodist preache are in religion: the fears they infuse o casion much useless misery, and thou they prevent little, they never preve great evils in social conduct. Fran Ireland, and Jamaica have of late ye suffered horribly in consequence of l tening to the energumens. To oversta danger, and to propose extreme rem dies for any danger, is the greatest po sible inversion of political wisdom; t use of employing talent and virtue the government of states is, that th can accomplish their objects by mild means and gentler efforts than stupidi and brutality can. But alarmists reste to civilized society the panic terrors barbarism, and fling away the propert of provinces and the lives of millio for the attainment of purposes wh judicious men would have obtained by slight tax and a little recruiting, by address to the voluntary faculties, a without the infamy of oppression.

"In the end of July all was peace, a the humbled Maroons were directed to s their captains by the 31st of the same mo to Spanish Town, to make their submissi This it was impossible to comply with, o ing to a delay occasioned by the messen who brought the dispatches; but the M roon captains came down as speedily as p sible, and proceeded on their way to t capital. In the meantime, the public m was considerably agitated by the affairs of Domingo, by an apprehension of the c tagion of revolutionary principles spread to Jamaica, by a currency of vague repo respecting French agency in the island, a by a reluctance to sending troops off country at so alarming a juncture. It sho seem that the commander in chief was actuated by these motives; and they w certainly sufficiently substantial to excite gilance and decision. A council of war accordingly held on the 3d of August; members of which, considering the fly reports that Frenchmen and people of lour were conspiring with the Maroons,

Digitized by Google

danger of suffering the departure of the troops ready to sail for St. Domingo, and the necessity of justifying Lord Balcarres in detaining them, concurred in opinion that it was requisite to establish martial law; which was accordingly proclaimed.

"That the detention of the troops was a wise measure, is not to be contravened; but it cannot be denied that the south side of the island was alarmed by reports from the north side, of which the north side knew nothing; and the north side by reports from the south side, of which the south side knew nothing; and, whatever might have been the intentions of the revolutionary French, and no one will doubt that they would have revolutionized Jamaica had they been able, it does not appear that any conduct of the Maroons, subsequent to their proposed submission, justified a suspicion of their insincerity. Indeed, all the evidence obtained respecting their offences, not only related to past matter, or to matter subsequent to hostilities, but was not deposed till some weeks after the declaration of martial law; and the like may be observed of all the evidence relative to the designs of the French. They were depositions taken subsequently of conversations and vague notions at different times prior to the departure of the six captains from Trelawney Town, or of expressions used, and acts committed, after their being thrown into irons.—The Maroons never thought about the forces on the island, knew nothing of the intended embarkation for St. Domingo, had not been tampered with by the French, nor had they themselves, at this time, tampered with the slaves. A neglected, half wild body of people; they were ready to be tumultuous or submissive according to the ascendency of their passions. When cool, they would grow enraged at the sight of Craskell; and in the excess of rage and tumult, bands of them would become cool at the blows of James. These were not people to be plotting deep conspiracies. They had ignorantly braved the government, and it was necessary to make them feel their dependence: they had felt it, and it became politic to make them easy and happy in that dependence. The chief motives by which the council of war were influenced, must undoubtedly have arisen from the apprehension of a general insurrection among the slaves on revolutionary principles; an apprehension which the very nature of the French revolution, more than the suspicious deposition of a French prisoner, justified their entertaining. On these grounds they armed the lieutenant-governor with the powers of martial law; and on the 4th of August his honour left Spanish Town in order to take the command of the troops in person, in a quarter where the revolt was expected to break out."

To what dire resources the alarmists at length had to recur, is thus related by this unconcealing writer:

"Colonel Quarrell*, who had been upon service with the troops in the mountains, was compelled by the state of his health to leave the head-quarters, and to go down to the sea-shore. There he met with an intelligent Spaniard, who, talking with him on the state of the island, related an event, to which colonel Quarrell paid the utmost attention, as he thought the ideas it suggested might prove of importance to the country. It seems that some years before, when the British abandoned the Musquito-shore to the Spaniards, the latter were opposed by the native Indians, who had always shown the most determined enmity to them. They attempted in vain to take possession of the country by means of a military force: in the course of a very few months they lost, from surprises and ambushes, nearly three regiments. Compelled to abandon the place, or fall upon some plan of counteracting the Indian warfare, they imported from Cuba 36 dogs and 12 chasseurs, who were sent by the alcalde provincial†, at the desire of Don Juan Despolito, the governor of the Havanna. These auxiliaries were more formidable than the finest regiment of the most warlike nation could have been; and from the time of their being employed, neither surprize nor ambush annoyed the troops, the Spaniards soon succeeded in expelling the Musquito Indians from the territory on the coast, and quietly occupied Black River, Blue-fields, and Cape Gracios a Deos. In whatever light the philanthropist may view means of the gentlest kind when used to drive men from their native lands, he cannot justly blame the harshest adopted at home, when self-preservation is the end proposed. Had the case been reversed, had the Indians employed dogs in driving away the Spaniards and keeping them from their country, satisfaction, and not horror, would have been the emotion excited. It occurred to colonel Quarrell, that the assistance of a certain number of the Cuba chasseurs would be attended with happy effects: he foresaw that the very terror they would spread would induce the Maroons to submit on proper terms; and he argued, that even if the commander in chief were compelled to bring them into actual service, it would be better, and more for the interest of humanity, that some of the rebels should be thus destroyed, than that the most barbarous massacres should be committed on the inhabitants, and the colony ruined. Swayed by these motives, he suggested the

"*Colonel Quarrell wished me not to entitle him according to his military rank, which he considered as temporary; but the time of which I treat fully justifies my giving him the title of the rank he then held, and still holds, if he were called into service.

"†The high-constable of the province whence the dogs and chasseurs came.

Digitized by Google

scheme to the speaker and several members of the house of assembly, to be laid before the lieutenant-governor. The house, however, misconceived the plan: in their anxiety to spare the lives of the troops in so unequal a warfare, they approved of the means proposed, but contented themselves with recommending that a pecuniary encouragement should be given to the Spaniards trading to the north side of the island, to bring over a few dogs, in order to see what effect the importation would have. Colonel Quarrell, who had now retained the Spaniard with whom he had conversed, and two others in his pay, represented the inutility of this measure, pressed the conducting of the business on surer grounds and a more extensive plan, and, having obtained full information on the subject, offered to take the business upon himself, provided he were furnished with a vessel and a letter from the governor of Jamaica to the Spanish governor at the Havanna, requesting permission for him to purchase dogs. The government, having taken the offer into consideration, acceded to the proposal; a schooner called the Mercury, carrying twelve guns, was sent down to Bluefields, an open road at the western extremity of Jamaica; and a letter was transmitted to colonel Quarrell, addressed to don Luis de las Casas, the governor at the Havanna, recommending the bearer of it to his attentions as a commissioner for the purposes mentioned in it, and likewise as a member of the legislature, and a lieutenant-colonel of the troops. When the captain of the vessel delivered his dispatches, the commissioner was ill with a fever: but so anxious was he that nothing should delay the service, that he immediately went on board, and the captain requesting orders for the time of sailing, he answered, that instant. The crew of the schooner consisted of four British seamen, twelve Curaçoa negroes, and eighteen Spanish renegadoes; but notwithstanding the unpromising, or rather alarming appearance of such a set of men, the commissioner, with a friend‡, whom he had invited to accompany him on the voyage, and their two servants, embarked at Bluefields in the end of the month of October 1795.

"Let us now take leave of general Walpole and the Trelawney mountains, of the Maroons and the cockpits, for a few weeks; let us set sail in the schooner, and let us accompany the commissioner in his expedition to Cuba, remembering, at the same time, that the sole object of it was to quell the Maroon rebellion. We will not, however, take our departure till we have investigated the justice of the means proposed for the end in view. The argument has been stated thus:

"The assembly of Jamaica were not unapprized that the measure of calling in such auxiliaries, and using the canine species against human beings, would give rise to much animadversion in England; and that the horrible enormities of the Spaniards in the conquest of the new world, would be brought again to remembrance. It is but too true, that dogs were used by those christian barbarians against the peaceful and inoffensive Americans, and the just indignation of mankind has ever since branded, and will continue to brand, the Spanish nation with infamy, for such atrocities. It was foreseen, and strongly urged as an argument against recurring to the same means in the present case, that the prejudices of party, and the virulent zeal of restless and turbulent men, would place the proceedings of the assembly on this occasion, in a point of view equally odious with the conduct of Spain on the same blood-stained theatre, in times past. No allowance would be made for the wide difference existing between the two cases. Some gentlemen even thought that the co-operation of dogs with British troops, would give not only a cruel, but a very dastardly complexion to the proceedings of government.

"To these and similar objections, it was answered, that the safety of the island and the lives of the inhabitants were not to be sacrificed to the apprehension of perverse misconstruction or wilful misrepresentation in the mother country. It was maintained, that the grounds of the measure needed only to be fully examined, and fairly stated, to induce all reasonable men to admit its propriety and necessity. To hold it as a principle, that it is an act of cruelty or cowardice in man to employ other animals as instruments of war, is a position contradicted by the practice of all nations. The Asiatics have ever used elephants in their battles; and if lions and tygers possessed the docility of the elephant, no one can doubt that these also would be made to assist the military operations of man, in those regions where they abound. Even the use of cavalry, as established among the most civilized and polished nations of Europe, must be rejected, if this principle be admitted; for wherein, it was asked, does the humanity of that doctrine consist, which allows the employment of troops of horse in the pursuit of discomfited and flying infantry, yet shrinks at the preventive measure of sparing the effusion of human blood, by tracing with hounds the haunts of murderers, and rousing from ambush, savages more ferocious and blood-thirsty than the animals which track them?"

The doctrine nakedly avowed by this author is, that the philanthropist cannot justly blame the harshest means, when self-preservation is the end proposed. This is bad historical morality.

"‡ Captain Gilpin of the militia.

Digitized by Google

In the first place, self-preservation is not a justifiable ultimate end; and life itself is occasionally to be sacrificed, when its preservation would involve a breach of general laws, which it is important to avoid the precedent of violating. In the next place, all preservation is to be accomplished by the mildest adequate means; and the philanthropist may justly blame not only the harshest, but the gentlest inflictions, which are not essential to the end proposed. The only ground for employing these dogs to track the Maroons to their hiding-places, a practice formerly common on the borders of Scotland, is, that no speedier and milder method could be devised of apprehending individuals, whom it was become necessary to transplant, after they had been wickedly or ignorantly irritated and terrified into a state of ferocious insurrection, which rendered them formidable to the lives of all the contiguous proprietors. It may however be suspected that these dogs were not intended merely to *track* the Maroons, for the importation of them excited an extraordinary degree of terror.

"On the 16th of March four Maroons dispatched by Johnson arrived at Old Maroon-Town, and informed general Walpole that he was on his way with the whole remaining body of the Maroons. Some of them being hog-hunting, they could not be all collected at once; but on the 21st, Parkinson, with thirty-six of his party, surrendered, bringing with them forty-four stands of arms. The whole number now remaining in the woods was thirteen, and these, with the rest of the runaways, surrendered next day. Thus concluded hostilities, without recourse being once had to the assistance of the chasseurs, beyond the operation of the terror they inspired, but which it was very evident had been the means of producing the treaty, and of accelerating the surrender of the several bodies whose distrust kept them back so long after it was made; and who, as they gradually came in, always required that the Spaniards and dogs should be removed, and separated from them by a line of the troops. One knows not which to admire most, the activity and address with which they were procured, or the humanity that in spite of three months provocation prevented their being employed in action*. To the skill, temper, and benevolence of general Walpole are the colonists, whom he had a little before saved from humiliation, indebted for this bloodless triumph; and to William Dawes Quarrell are they indebted for suggesting, and procuring the means by which the island was saved from destruction. 'We cannot but take this opportunity,' say the assembly, in requesting the lieutenant-governor to give orders for the dismission of the chasseurs, 'of expressing our acknowledgments of the eminent advantages derived from the importation of the chasseurs and dogs, in compliance with the general wishes of the island. Nothing can be clearer, than that if they had been off the island, the rebels could not have been induced to surrender, from their almost inaccessible fastnesses. We are happy to have it in our power to say, that terror excited by the appearance of the dogs, has been sufficient to produce so fortunate an event; and we cannot but highly approve that attention to humanity so strongly proved by their being ordered in the rear of the army."

The determination to transplant some of these unfortunate people into Canada, a climate so ill adapted for their constitutions, was surely unnatural. The partial transfer of them to Sierra Leone was more praiseworthy: yet we should have preferred the continent of South America, where there are other Maroons. Just observations are made by Mr. Dallas on the state of the interior and mountainous districts of Jamaica. He thinks them adapted by climate for white settlers, and has no doubt that if emigration was directed thither, it would speedily find the means of profitable subsistence. Is not the preliminary step to the colonization of the Jamaican highlands this?—that the richer planters, domesticated in the lowlands, should make it a matter of luxury to build villas in the more picturesque mountain-districts, and to inhabit them during the feverish and sultry season. Plantations of mahogany and other precious woods would result; then sawing-mills, roads, dairy-farms, vine-yards, and all the arts of cultivation.

"* It is hardly worth while to mention an accident by which an old woman lost her life, but it has been suggested that the omission of it may receive an unfavourable construction. One of the dogs that had been unmuzzled to drink when there was not the least apprehension of any mischief, went up to the woman, who was sitting attending to a pot in which she was preparing a mess. The dog smelled at it, and was troublesome; this provoked her, she took up a stick and began to beat him, on which he seized on her throat, which he would not let go till his head was severed from his body by his master. The wind-pipe of the woman being much torn, she could not be saved.

Digitized by Google

The appendix to each volume contains many curious papers; such as an act for consolidating all the acts relative to slaves; Mr. Quarrell's answer to the chairman of the Maroon committee; and various interesting papers of correspondence. The whole work is curious, interesting, instructive; but less distinguished for the moral taste of its sentiments, than for the sincerity of its narrations.

GENERAL POLITICS.

ART. XVII. *An Essay on the Principles of Population; or, a View of its past and present Effects on human Happiness. By* T. R. MALTHUS, *Fellow of Jesus College, Cambridge.* 4to. pp. 610.

THE public opinion has already been pronounced upon the merits of this Essay. Mr. Malthus embarked upon the tide just at the happy moment, at the flood when it leads on to fortune, and such was the unnatural and unwholesome state of our moral and political atmosphere, that he appeared like a philosopher, as he would have appeared like a giant had he walked abroad in a *mirage*.

No wise man had ever doubted, and no christian had ever disbelieved, that the general condition of mankind could be improved, till the unhappy consequences of the French revolution shook the liberties and morals of Europe. This amelioration was rendered probable to the good by reason, and certain by faith; they religiously expected what they benevolently desired. For these rational and righteous hopes, men who had no faith and little reason, substituted wild speculations how men might live for ever; and these speculations were combated by those who had just reason enough to expose the absurdity of their antagonists, and just faith enough to raise an outcry against their infidelity.

Mr. Malthus's object is to refute the opinion of the perfectibility of man, in other words, to prove that no material improvement can ever be expected in the state of society.

"In an inquiry concerning the future improvement of society, the mode of conducting the subject which naturally presents itself, is

"1. An investigation of the causes that have hitherto impeded the progress of mankind towards happiness; and

"2. An examination into the probability of the total or partial removal of these causes in future.

"To enter fully into this question, and to enumerate all the causes that have hitherto influenced human improvement, would be much beyond the power of an individual. The principal object of the present essay is to examine the effects of one great cause intimately united with the very nature of man, which, though it has been constantly and powerfully operating since the commencement of society, has been little noticed by the writers who have treated this subject. The facts which establish the existence of this cause have, indeed, been repeatedly stated and acknowledged; but its natural and necessary effects have been almost totally overlooked; though probably among these effects may be reckoned a very considerable portion of that vice and misery, and of that unequal distribution of the bounties of nature, which it has been the unceasing object of the enlightened philanthropist in all ages to correct.

"The cause to which I allude, is the constant tendency in all animated life to increase beyond the nourishment prepared for it."

"Taking the whole earth instead of this island, emigration would of course be excluded; and supposing the present population equal to a thousand millions, the human species would increase as the numbers 1, 2, 4, 8, 16, 32, 64, 128, 256, and subsistence as 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 8, 9. In two centuries the population would be to the means of subsistence as 256 to 9; in three centuries as 4096 to 13, and in two thousand years the difference would be almost incalculable."

This last paragraph is the sum and substance of eight quarto pages; and in fact, the whole work is written in the same ratio: viz. eight lines of sense and substance to $8 \times 30 = 240$ lines of verbiage and senseless repetition; and even of these eight lines, all the pomp of numerals and ratios might have been cashiered by substituting a proposition which no one in his senses would consider as other than axiomatic. Suppose a married couple to have six children, (not half the number which they would have if you suppose *all* checks to population removed) and suppose all their posterity to marry, and each couple to increase in the same proportion; and it is evident on the slightest reflection, that in a given number of generations, their posterity would want standing room. (That it must be so, the rule of multiplication would enable a child to demonstrate, and a school-boy who has advanced in arithmetic as far as com-

Digitized by Google

pound interest, may astonish his younger sister both by the fact, and by the exact number of years in which it would take place.) On the other hand, let the productiveness of the earth be increased beyond the hopes of the most visionary agriculturist, still the productions take up room: if the present crop of turnips occupy one-fifth of the space of the turnip field, the increase can never be more than quintuple; and if you suppose two harvests for one, the increase still cannot exceed ten: so that supposing a little island of a single acre, and its productions occupying one-fifth of its absolute space, and sufficient to maintain two men and two women, four generations would outrun its possible power of furnishing them with food. We may boldly affirm that a truth so self-evident as this, was never overlooked, or even by implication contradicted. What proof has Mr. Malthus brought, what proof can he bring, that every writer or theorist has overlooked this fact, which would not apply (with reverence be it spoken) to the Almighty himself, when he pronounced the awful command, 'Increase and multiply?'

From page 17 to page 355, Mr. Malthus retails and details from others' travels, and from his own, facts of all nations and all ages, in all states of society, to prove that men have suffered, and are suffering, from ignorance, filth, famine, diseases, large cities, unwholesome employment, superstition, bad passions, bad habits, bad laws, and bad government; that all these have made men wicked, and poor, and miserable; and that men in wickedness, and misery, and dearth of subsistence, do not rear, even if they beget, as large families as happy and good people would do. Now we put it seriously to Mr. Malthus's good sense, whether or no, if he had simply stated this in one sentence of half-a-dozen, or half-a-score lines, any one individual in Europe would have felt the least inclination to contradict the statement? The whole of these pages would make a sensible first sentence of an essay in a newspaper on the subject of population; (for it is right to begin with a statement which no one can, or can wish to controvert,) but 355 quarto pages to say it out in!—The Minerva press, and his Majesty's law-printers are not more merciless to paper and printers' ink.

This mighty discovery Mr. Malthus opposes to all good feelings and all good hopes, with this he triumphantly destroys all arguments for all amelioration of the state of the human race. It is brought in its full force against Mr. Godwin. This was the original mark and object of the work, and it is to this that Mr. Malthus owes his present high reputation: long as the passage is we shall therefore give it at length.

"Let us imagine for a moment, Mr. Godwin's system of equality realised in its utmost extent, and see how soon this difficulty might be expected to press, under so perfect a form of society. A theory that will not admit of application cannot possiby be just.

"Let us suppose all the causes of vice and misery in this island removed. War and contention cease. Unwholesome trades and manufactories do not exist. Crowds no longer collect together in great and pestilent cities, for purposes of court intrigue, of commerce, and vicious gratification. Simple, healthy, and rational amusements, take place of drinking, gaming, and debauchery. There are no towns sufficiently large, to have any prejudicial effects on the human constitution. The greater part of the happy inhabitants of this terrestrial paradise live in hamlets and farm houses, scattered over the face of the country. All men are equal. The labours of luxury are at an end; and the necessary labours of agriculture are shared amicably among all. The number of persons and the produce of the island we suppose to be the same as at present. The spirit of benevolence guided by impartial justice, will divide this produce among all the members of society according to their wants. Though it would be impossible that they should all have animal food every day, yet vegetable food, with meat occasionally, would satisfy the desires of a frugal people, and would be sufficient to preserve them in health, strength, and spirits.

"Mr. Godwin considers marriage as a fraud, and a monopoly.* Let us suppose the commerce of the sexes established upon principles of the most perfect freedom. Mr. Godwin does not think himself, that this freedom would lead to a promiscuous intercourse; and in this, I perfectly agree with him. The love of variety is a vicious, corrupt, and unnatural taste, and could not prevail, in any great degree, in a simple and virtuous state of society. Each man would probably select for himself a partner, to whom he would adhere, as long as that adherence continued to be the choice of both parties. It would be of little consequence, according to Mr. Godwin, how many children a woman had, or to whom they belong-

* Political Justice, b. viii. c. viii. p. 498. et seq.

Digitized by Google

ed. Provisions and assistance would spontaneously flow from the quarter in which they abounded, to the quarter in which they were deficient.* And every man, according to his capacity, would be ready to furnish instruction to the rising generation.

"I cannot conceive a form of society so favourable, upon the whole, to population. The irremediableness of marriage, as it is at present constituted, undoubtedly deters many from entering into this state. An unshackled intercourse, on the contrary, would be a most powerful incitement to early attachments: and as we are supposing no anxiety about the future support of children to exist, I do not conceive there would be one woman in a hundred, of twenty-three years of age, without a family.

"With these extraordinary encouragements to population, and every cause of depopulation, as we have supposed, removed, the numbers would necessarily increase faster than in any society that has ever yet been known. I have before mentioned, that the inhabitants of the back settlements of America appear to double their numbers in fifteen years. England is certainly a more healthy country than the back settlements of America; and as we have supposed every house in the island to be airy and wholesome, and the encouragements to have a family, greater even than in America, no probable reason can be assigned, why the population should not double itself, in less, if possible, than fifteen years. But to be quite sure that we do not go beyond the truth, we will only suppose the period of doubling to be twenty-five years; a ratio of increase which is well known to have taken place throughout all the northern states of America.

"There can be little doubt, that the equalization of property which we have supposed, added to the circumstance of the labour of the whole community being directed chiefly to agriculture, would tend greatly to augment the produce of the country. But to answer the demands of a population increasing so rapidly, Mr. Godwin's calculation of half an hour a day would certainly not be sufficient. It is probable, that the half of every man's time must be employed for this purpose. Yet with such, or much greater exertions, a person who is acquainted with the nature of the soil in this country, and who reflects on the fertility of the lands already in cultivation, and the barrenness of those that are not cultivated, will be very much disposed to doubt, whether the whole average produce could possibly be doubled in twenty-five years from the present period. The only chance of success would be from the ploughing up most of the grazing countries, and putting an end almost entirely to animal food. Yet this scheme would probably defeat itself. The soil of England will not produce much without dressing; and cattle seem to be necessary to make that species of manure which best suits the land.

"Difficult, however, as it might be, to double the average produce of the island in twenty-five years, let us suppose it effected. At the expiration of the first period, therefore, the food, though almost entirely vegetable, would be sufficient to support in health the doubled population of 22 millions.

"During the next period, where will the food be found to satisfy the importunate demands of the increasing numbers? Where is the fresh land to turn up? Where is the dressing necessary to improve that which is already in cultivation? There is no person with the smallest knowledge of land, but would say, that it was impossible that the average produce of the country could be increased during the second twenty-five years, by a quantity equal to what it at present yields. Yet we will suppose this increase, however improbable, to take place. The exuberant strength of the argument allows of almost any concession. Even with this concession, however, there would be eleven millions at the expiration of the second term unprovided for. A quantity equal to the frugal support of 33 millions would be to be divided among 44 millions.

"Alas! what becomes of the picture, where men lived in the midst of plenty, where no man was obliged to provide with anxiety and pain for his restless wants; where the narrow principles of selfishness did not exist; where the mind was delivered from her perpetual anxiety about corporeal support, and free to expatiate in the field of thought which is congenial to her. This beautiful fabrick of the imagination vanishes at the severe touch of truth. The spirit of benevolence, cherished and invigorated by plenty, is repressed by the chilling breath of want. The hateful passions that had vanished reappear. The mighty law of self-preservation expels all the softer, and more exalted emotions of the soul. The temptations to evil are too strong for human nature to resist. The corn is plucked before it is ripe, or secreted in unfair proportions; and the whole black train of vices that belong to falsehood are immediately generated. Provisions no longer flow in for the support of a mother with a large family. The children are sickly from insufficient food. The rosy flush of health gives place to the pallid cheek, and hollow eye of misery. Benevolence, yet lingering in a few bosoms, makes some faint expiring struggles, till at length self-love resumes his wonted empire, and lords it triumphant over the world.

"No human institutions here existed, to the perverseness of which Mr. Godwin ascribes the original sin of the worst men. No opposition had been produced by them between publick and private good. No monopoly had been created of those advantages

* Political Justice, b. viii. c. viii. p. 504. † Ib. c. iii. p. 340.

Digitized by Google

which reason directs to be left in common. No man had been goaded to the breach of order by unjust laws. Benevolence had established her reign in all hearts. And yet in so short a period as fifty years, violence, oppression, falsehood, misery, every hateful vice, and every form of distress, which degrade and sadden the present state of society, seem to have been generated by the most imperious circumstances, by laws inherent in the nature of man, and absolutely independent of all human regulations.

"If we be not yet too well convinced of the reality of this melancholy picture, let us but look for a moment into the next period of twenty-five years, and we shall see 44 millions of human beings without the means of support: and at the conclusion of the first century, the population would be 176 millions, and the food only sufficient for 56 millions, leaving 121 millions unprovided for. In these ages, want, indeed, would be triumphant, and rapine and murder must reign at large: and yet all this time we are supposing the produce of the earth absolutely unlimited, and the yearly increase greater than the boldest speculator can imagine."

The pop-gun made a loud report in the world, and effectually smote down the champion against whom it was levelled. Mr. Malthus could not have obtained more credit in the eighth century for laying the devil, than he has in the eighteenth for laying Mr. Godwin. The question contended was, whether or not there were any hopes of mankind; whether wisdom would be progressive with knowledge, and virtue with wisdom, and happiness with virtue. Shame on the age we live in that this question should be disputed! Shame on the country we live in, that such a question should be debated by no better advocates than Messrs. Godwin and Malthus! Menelaus and Paris were not more unworthy representatives of the collected heroism of Greece and Troy, than these men of the knowledge and intellect of England To Mr. Godwin's presumption his antagonist is indebted for his victory; only such a Goliath could have called forth such a David. Mr. Godwin had confounded together all principles pure and impure; he had attempted to amalgamate stoicism and sensuality; he had diluted the wisdom of the antients with his own folly; he had kneaded up their wheat, and barley, and millet, with his own *album græcum*, and this precious wafer was to be swallowed as the bread of life—the sacrament of philosophy! What wonder that this should inspire equal talents with the hope of equal success? If the Nervous Cordial sells, so also may the Balm of Gilead. Dr. Solomon is perfectly justifiable in calling Dr. Brodum a quack; and in the country where one of these worthies can ride in his carriage, it must be the other's own fault if he continues to walk a-foot. "Mr. Malthus appeared, and we heard no more of Mr. Godwin,"—so it was said in that style of panegyric which may be called the brief sublime. And indeed Mr. Godwin himself has admitted the whole force of his antagonist's argument.

In animals, the benevolent system of destruction keeps down their numbers to a due proportion with their food. Wisely did the Hindoos unite the creator, the preserver, and the destroyer, in their triunal God,—and what better proof of wisdom and benevolence than that death should be made subservient to life? No such check exists to the multiplication of the human race, but among them moral and physical evil (each producing the other in alternation) supply its place, till wisdom having perfected virtue, shall destroy all evil by rendering it no longer necessary. An optimist might thus express the substance of his creed. Mr. Malthus also is an optimist, but of the Pangloss school, holding that the present state of society is, with all its evils, the best of all possible states, and that it never can be better. To some such point of attainable perfection, for arguments sake, he supposes the human race to have attained, and then attempting the *reductio ad absurdum*, he argues against the blessing from its excess. The principle of population, he says, would in one generation disturb, and in a second, destroy this state of happiness, and mankind must then revert to the present system. Mr. Godwin yields, proposing, however, exposure and abortion as remedies; but these, says his victorious rival, "clearly come under the head of vice."

It is to the last degree idle to write in this way without having stated the meaning of the words vice and virtue. That these are vices in the present state of society, who doubts? so was celibacy in the patriarchal ages. Vice and virtue subsist in the agreement of the habits of a man with his reason and conscience, and these can have but one moral guide —utility, or the virtue and happiness of rational beings. We mention this, not under the miserable notion that any state of society will render these actions capable of being performed with con-

Digitized by Google

science and virtue, but to expose the utter ungroundedness of the writer's speculation: adding, however, that if we believed with Mr. Malthus's *warmest* partizans, that men never will in general be capable of regulating the sexual appetite by the law of reason, and that the gratification of lust is a thing of physical necessity, equally with the gratification of hunger, (a faith which we should laugh at for its silliness, if its wickedness had not pre-excited abhorrence) nothing would be more easy than to demonstrate that abortion, or the exposure of children, or artificial sterility on the part of the male, would become virtues:—a thought which we turn from with loathing, but not with greater loathing than we do from the degrading theory of which it would be a legitimate consequence. By a yet stronger inconsequence, this theory (so far as it is aimed against the hopes of the progressive improvement of mankind) pleads for the existence, not only of these vices, but of a thousand others, and of the brutal ignorance and misery, the production of which does alone render those actions crimes: it pleads for the continuance of all this misery whereof these very vices form a part, in order to prevent that state of society, in which, admitting one or other of these actions after the birth of every second or third child, the whole earth might be imagined filled to its utmost extent with enlightened and happy beings.

If then Mr. Malthus's reasoning were just, the application would be absurd, for what can be more absurd than to abandon all hope of this attainable state of happiness because certain evils would exist in it, and therefore to remain contented with the continuance of those very evils, and of all the other evils which, upon the admitted hypothesis, would be removed? What should we say to the physician who should object to the cow-pox, and to all remedies for scrofula and syphilis, for fear that when these diseases were annihilated, men should become plethoric and subject to apoplexy from excess of health?

But the reasoning is as absurd as the application: the whole proceeds upon the assumption, that lust and hunger are alike passions of physical necessity, and the one equally with the other independent of the reason and the will. If this were true, chastity could not exist; fornication would be as indispensable as food, every single man must be a bretheller, every single woman a strumpet. There lives not a wretch corrupt enough of heart, and shameless enough of front to say that this is so: there lives not a man who can look upon his wife and his daughter, who can think upon his sister, and remember her who bore him, without feeling indignation and resentment that he should be insulted by so infamous an assertion. But if the possibility of chastity be admitted (and it will be seen that Mr. Malthus does hereafter fully admit it) the whole argument against the system of equality, against the perfectibility, or to use a more accurate and less obnoxious term, the improveability of man, falls to the ground. Mr. Godwin has been knocked down by the wind of the pop-gun, the pellet has missed him. Drawcansir is driven off the stage, and his enemies may get up and dance.

Having thus rescued the philosopher from the Philistines, let us try the truth of Mr. Malthus's principle as applied against all those who hope for any reformation in the state of society.

"The power of population is so superior to the power in the earth to produce subsistence for man, that, unless arrested by the preventive check, premature death must in some shape or other visit the human race. The vices of mankind are active and able ministers of depopulation. They are the precursors in the great army of destruction, and often finish the dreadful work themselves. But should they fail in this war of extermination, sickly seasons, epidemics, pestilence, and plague, advance in terrific array, and sweep off their thousands and ten thousands. Should success be still incomplete, gigantic inevitable famine stalks in the rear, and, with one mighty blow, levels the population with the food of the world.

"Must it not then be acknowledged, by an attentive examiner of the histories of mankind, that, in every age, and in every state in which man has existed, or does now exist,

"The increase of population is necessarily limited by the means of subsistence?

"Population invariably increases when the means of subsistence increase, unless prevented by powerful and obvious checks.

"These checks, and the checks which keep the population down to the level of the means of subsistence, are, moral restraint, vice, and misery."

* * * *

"The great error under which Mr. Godwin labours, throughout his whole work, is, the attributing of almost all the vices and misery that prevail in civil society to human institutions. Political regulations, and the

Digitized by Google

stablished administration of property, are, rith him, the fruitful sources of all evil, the otbeds of all the crimes that degrade man-ind. Were this really a true state of the ase, it would not seem an absolutely hope-ss task, to remove evil completely from the orld; and reason seems to be the proper d adequate instrument, for effecting so eat a purpose. But the truth is, that, ough human institutions appear to be the rious and obtrusive causes of much mis-ief to mankind, they are, in reality, light d superficial, in comparison with those eper-seated causes of evil which result om the laws of nature."

* * * *

"The circulation of Paine's Rights of lan, it is supposed, has done great mischief mong the lower and middling classes of eople in this country. This is probably ue; but not because man is without rights, r that these rights ought not to be known; at because Mr. Paine has fallen into some ndamental errors respecting the principles f government, and in many important points as shewn himself totally unacquainted with e structure of society, and the different oral effects to be expected from the physi-l difference between this country and merica. Mobs, of the same description as ose collections of people known by this ame in Europe, could not exist in America. he number of people without property, is, ere, from the physical state of the country, omparatively small; and therefore the civil ower which is to protect property, cannot quire the same degree of strength. Mr. ine very justly observes, that whatever e apparent cause of any riots may be, the al one is always want of happiness; but hen he goes on to say, it shews that some-ing is wrong in the system of government, at injures the felicity by which society is be preserved, he falls into the common or of attributing all want of happiness to overnment. It is evident, that this want happiness might have existed, and from norance might have been the principal use of the riots, and yet be almost wholly nnected with any of the proceedings of vernment."

Mr. Malthus has ravelled together his isms and his sophisms with some in-icacy, but it is not so difficult as he y suppose to disentangle them. We mit the whole extent of the vice and sery in the world; he has not in the ghtest point exaggerated it. It re-ains to be seen whether human insti-tions, or the laws of nature be in fault; remains to be seen (we speak with re-rence and not without indignation) whether we are to complain of the folly f man, or of the will of God, for this the alternative. Let not the impiety f the question be imputed to us!

It has been amply shewn by this author, and it never was denied or doubted, that in all ages and in all states of society, men have suffered, and are suffering, from ignorance, filth, famine, diseases, large cities, unwholesome employment, superstition, bad passions, bad habits, bad laws, and bad governments, and that some or other of these causes have every where, and at all times, checked population, and do still continue to check it. "The period," says he, "when the number of men surpass their means of subsistence has long since arrived, and this constantly subsisting cause of periodical misery has existed ever since we have had any histories of mankind, does exist at present, and will for ever continue to exist, unless some decided change take place in the *physical constitution of our nature.*" If for these last words we substitute the *existing systems of society*, we shall convert the sentence into truth.

In New Holland, where there does not exist a man to a square mile, the number of men exceeds their means of subsistence. What is required to remedy the evil here, and to make the natives increase as rapidly as the Anglo-Americans—a change in their physical or in their moral nature? In England the inhabitants might be trebled, and the island still produce enough for the comfortable subsistence of all; yet in England population is checked, a great part of the people are in want, and every profession, trade, and calling, whereby man or woman can earn support, is overstocked. Where lies the fault if New Holland be not as fully peopled in proportion as England, if England be not as fully peopled in proportion as China, if China be not peopled in the fullest proportion, not to its actual, but to its possible powers of production? Is it in human institutions, or in the laws of nature? Is it in man or in God? *Wilt thou condemn me that thou mayest be righteous*, said the Lord: who is he that will dare answer the question in Mr. Malthus's behalf? If a country be overpeopled, and crowded, and distressed, in regard to its system of society, before it be half peopled in proportion to its size and power of production; the fault lies in that system of society, not in the system of nature. If, while not a tenth, nay not an hundredth part of the habitable world be cultivated, mankind be every where in want, the fault is their

Digitized by Google

own. All that Mr. Malthus has done is to prove that radical evil in society which his whole work is designed to palliate.

Till the whole earth be peopled to its utmost capacity, it is the fault of man if any check to population exist, except such as are dispensed by the elements and the operations of physical nature: his moral nature is in his own power, and it hath been said, "Be ye perfect, even as your father in heaven is perfect."

So much for Mr. Malthus's argument against the hopes of the human race! It has been demonstrated that all checks to population, till the power of production can be pushed no farther, and actual room for farther increase be wanting, must be attributed to error and ignorance in man, not to unerring nature and omniscient goodness. When that point has been reached, it has been demonstrated that the practice of one virtue will secure the happiness of mankind and render it permanent. Either chastity is possible, or it is not; in the one case his argument has been shown to be groundless, in the other inapplicable: one of the horns of this dilemma must wound him, and either wound must be mortal. He has played off his positive check and his preventive check, but they have not saved him from this check-mate.

By these miserable sophisms Mr. Malthus has obtained the high reputation which he at present enjoys; his book having become the political bible of the rich, the selfish, and the sensual; nor need we wonder that so contemptible a book should have produced so much mischief: if the body be corrupt and predisposed to mortification, a scratch will occasion death. But to our utter astonishment we find that, though in this present edition the author has retained and enlarged all these arguments, and insisted upon their application; at the end of the volume he admits every thing which he has controverted in the beginning, and is clearly and confessedly a convert to the doctrine of the perfectibility of man! He draws a picture of christian society, in which the well being of all is founded upon this very virtue of chastity, the non-existence of which was to destroy all the theories of Godwin and Condorcet.

"The difficulty of moral restraint, will perhaps be objected to this doctrine. To him who does not acknowledge the authority of the christian religion, I have only to say, that, after the most careful investigation, this virtue appears to be absolutely necessary, in order to avoid certain evils which would otherwise result from the general laws of nature. According to his own principles, it is his duty to pursue the greatest good consistent with these laws; and not to fail in this important end, and produce an overbalance of misery, by a partial obedience to some of the dictates of nature while he neglects others. The path of virtue, though it be the only path which leads to permanent happiness, has always been represented by the heathen moralists, as of difficult ascent.

"To the christian I would say, that the scriptures most clearly and precisely point it out to us as our duty, to restrain our passions within the bounds of reason; and it is a palpable disobedience of this law, to indulge our desires in such a manner, as reason tells us, will unavoidably end in misery. The christian cannot consider the difficulty of moral restraint as any argument against its being his duty; since in almost every page of the sacred writings, man is described as encompassed on all sides by temptations, which it is extremely difficult to resist; and though no duties are enjoined, which do not contribute to his happiness on earth as well as in a future state, yet an undeviating obedience is never represented as an easy task."

"In a society, such as I have supposed, all the members of which endeavour to attain happiness by obedience to the moral code, derived from the light of nature, and enforced by strong sanctions in revealed religion, it is evident that no such marriages could take place; and the prevention of a redundant population, in this way, would remove one of the principal causes, and certainly the principal means of offensive war; and at the same time tend powerfully to eradicate those two fatal political disorders, internal tyranny and internal tumult, which mutually produce each other.

"Weak in offensive war, in a war of defence, such a society would be strong as a rock of adamant. Where every family possessed the necessaries of life in plenty, and a decent portion of its comforts and conveniences, there could not exist that hope of change, or at best that melancholy and disheartening indifference to it, which sometimes prompts the lower classes of people to say, 'let what will come, we cannot be worse off than we are now.' Every heart and hand would be united to repel the invader, when each individual felt the value of the solid advantages which he enjoyed and a prospect of change presented only the prospect of being deprived of them.

"As it appears, therefore, that it is in the power of each individual to avoid all the evil consequences to himself and society resulting from the principle of population, by the practice of a virtue clearly dictated to him by the light of nature, and expressly enjoin-

Digitized by Google

a revealed religion; and as we have reason o think that the exercise of this virtue to a ertain degree, would rather tend to increase han diminish individual happiness; we can ave no reason to impeach the justice of e Deity, because his general laws make is virtue necessary, and punish our offen- s against it by the evils attendant upon e, and the pains that accompany the va- ous forms of premature death. A really tuous society, such as I have supposed, uld avoid these evils. It is the apparent ject of the Creator to deter us from vice by e pains which accompany it, and to lead us virtue by the happiness that it produces. his object appears to our conceptions to be orthy of a benevolent Creator. The laws nature respecting population, tend to pro- ote this object. No imputation, therefore, n the benevolence of the Deity, can be unded on these laws, which is not equally plicable to any of the evils necessarily in- dental to an imperfect state of existence."

Wherein then does Mr. Malthus differ m those who maintain the perfectibi- of man? that is, who believe a state society to be possible, in which every n shall enjoy as much happiness as physical and moral powers are capa- of enjoying; that happiness being ulated by and subservient to the ral welfare? If man can retain his ions in a conceivable state of know- e, what is to stop his improve- t? The latter part of his book fore palpably confutes the former, he perishes by a stupid suicide, like scorpion who strikes his tail into his n head.

We are now then to rank Mr. Mal- s among the political reformers: he discovered that moral restraint is cticable, and that it is a remedy equi- at to the evil of a redundant popu- ion. Let us see how he applies this nciple.

"When the wages of labour are hardly cient to maintain two children, a man ies and has five or six. He of course himself miserably distressed. He ac- s the insufficiency of the price of labour aintain a family. He accuses his parish their tardy and sparing fulfilment of their gation to assist him. He accuses the e of the rich, who suffer him to want t they can so well spare. He accuses partial and unjust institutions of society, ch have awarded him an inadequate e of the produce of the earth. He accu- perhaps the dispensations of Providence, ch have assigned to him a place in society be beset with unavoidable distress and depen- nce. In searching for objects of accusa- on, he never adverts to the quarter from which all his misfortunes originate. The last person that he would think of accusing is himself, on whom, in fact, the whole of the blame lies, except in as far as he has been deceived by the higher classes of society. He may perhaps wish that he had not mar- ried, because he now feels the inconvenien- ces of it; but it never enters into his head that he can have done any thing wrong. He has always been told that to raise up subjects for his king and country is a very meritorious act. He has done this act, and yet is suffering for it. He naturally thinks that he is suffering for righteousness sake; and it cannot but strike him as most extreme- ly unjust and cruel in his king and country, to allow him thus to suffer, in return, for giving them what they are continually de- claring that they particularly want.

"Till these erroneous ideas have been cor- rected, and the language of nature and rea- son has been generally heard on the subject of population, instead of the language of error and prejudice, it cannot be said that any fair experiment has been made with the understandings of the common people; and we cannot justly accuse them of improvi- dence and want of industry, till they act as they do now, after it has been brought home to their comprehensions, that they are them- selves the cause of their own poverty; that the means of redress are in their own hands, and in the hands of no other persons what- ever; that the society in which they live, and the government which presides over it, are totally without power in this respect; and however ardently they may desire to re- lieve them, and whatever attempts they may make to do so, they are really and truly un- able to execute what they benevolently wish, but unjustly promise; that when the wages of labour will not maintain a family, it is an incontrovertible sign that their king and country do not want more subjects, or at least that they cannot support them; that if they marry in this case, so far from fulfilling a duty to society, they are throwing a useless burden on it, at the same time that they are plunging themselves into distress; and that they are acting directly contrary to the will of God, and bringing down upon them- selves various diseases, which might all, or in a great part, have been avoided, if they had attended to the repeated admonitions which he gives, by the general laws of nature, to every being capable of reason."

"I have reflected much on the subject of the poor laws, and hope, therefore, that I shall be excused, in venturing to suggest a mode of their gradual abolition, to which, I confess, that at present I can see no mate- rial objection. Of this, indeed, I feel nearly convinced, that, should we ever become suf- ficiently sensible of the wide-spreading ty- ranny, dependence, indolence, and unhappi- ness, which they create, as seriously to make an effort to abolish them, we shall be com- pelled to adopt the principle, if not the plan,

Google

which I shall mention. It seems impossible to get rid of so extensive a system of support, consistently with humanity, without applying ourselves directly to its vital principle, and endeavouring to counteract that deeply-seated cause, which occasions the rapid growth of all such establishments, and invariably renders them inadequate to their object.

"To this end, I should propose a regulation to be made, declaring, that no child born from any marriage, taking place after the expiration of a year from the date of the law; and no illegitimate child born two years from the same date, should ever be entitled to parish assistance. And to give a more general knowledge of this law, and to enforce it more strongly on the minds of the lower classes of people, the clergyman of each parish should, previously to the solemnization of a marriage, read a short address to the parties, stating the strong obligation on every man to support his own children; the impropriety, and even immorality, of marrying without a fair prospect of being able to do this; the evils which had resulted to the poor themselves, from the attempt which had been made to assist, by public institutions, in a duty which ought to be exclusively appropriated to parents; and the absolute necessity which had at length appeared, of abandoning all such institutions, on account of their producing effects totally opposite to those which were intended."

"After the public notice which I have proposed had been given, and the system of poor laws had ceased with regard to the rising generation, if any man chose to marry, without a prospect of being able to support a family, he should have the most perfect liberty so to do. Though to marry, in this case, is in my opinion clearly an immoral act, yet it is not one, which society can justly take upon itself to prevent or punish; because the punishment provided for it by the laws of nature, falls directly and most severely upon the individual who commits the act, and, through him, only more remotely and feebly on the society. When nature will govern and punish for us, it is a very miserable ambition, to wish to snatch the rod from her hands, and draw upon ourselves the odium of executioner. To the punishment, therefore, of nature he should be left, the punishment of severe want. He has erred in the face of a most clear and precise warning, and can have no just reason to complain of any person but himself, when he feels the consequences of his error. All parish assistance should be most rigidly denied him: and if the hand of private charity be stretched forth in his relief, the interests of humanity imperiously require that it should be administered very sparingly. He should be taught to know that the laws of nature, which are the laws of God, had doomed him and his family to starve, for disobeying their repeated admonitions; that he had no claim of right on society for the smallest portion of food beyond that which his labour would procure by purchase; and that, if he and his family were saved from suffering the utmost extremities of hunger, he would owe it to the pity of some kind benefactor, to whom, therefore, he ought to be bound by the strongest ties of gratitude.

"If this system were pursued, we need be under no apprehensions whatever, that the number of persons in extreme want would be beyond the power and the will of the benevolent to supply. The sphere for the exercise of private charity would, I am confident, be less than it is at present; and the only difficulty would be, to restrain the hand of benevolence from assisting those in distress in so liberal a manner as to encourage indolence and want of foresight in others.

"With regard to illegitimate children after the proper notice had been given, they should on no account whatever be allowed to have any claim to parish assistance. If the parents desert their child, they ought to be made answerable for the crime. The infant is, comparatively speaking, of no value to the society, as others will immediately supply its place. Its principal value is on account of its being the object of one of the most delightful passions in human nature, parental affection. But if this value be disregarded, by those who are alone in a capacity to feel it, the society cannot be called upon to put itself in their place; and has no further business in its protection, than in the case of its murder or intentional ill-treatment, to follow the general rules in punishing such crimes; which rules, for the interests of morality, it is bound to pursue, whether the object, in the particular instance, be of value to the state or not."

The remedy then which this profound politician proposes for the existing evils of society in England, is simply to abolish the poor rates, and starve the poor into celibacy. That moral restraint, that chastity which, according to his own argument, is all that is wanting to render possible and permanent the system of equality, he expects and demands now from the poor. The exercise of that virtue, which, as he had reasoned, could only exist in men highly enlightened and highly virtuous, he expects and demands from the ignorant, degraded, brutalized, miserable, poor people of England! If you beget children, he says to them, they must perish for want. No public relief is to be given to the starving infant, society is not to interfere, except that it is to hang the mother, if she shorten the sufferings of her babe by destroying it! This reformer calls for no sacrifice from the rich;

on the contrary, he proposes to relieve them from their parish rates: he recommends nothing to them but that they *should harden* their hearts. They have found a place at the table of nature; and why should they be disturbed at their feast? It is Mr. Malthus's own metaphor!

"A man who is born into a world already possessed, if he cannot get subsistence from his *parents*, on whom he has a just demand, and if the society do not want his labour, has no claim of right to the smallest portion of *food*, and, in fact, has no business to be where he is. At nature's mighty feast there is no vacant cover for him. She tells him to be gone, and will quickly execute her own orders, if he do not work upon the compassion of some of her guests. If these guests get up and make room for him, other intruders immediately appear demanding the same favour. The report of a provision for all that come, fills the hall with numerous claimants. The order and harmony of the feast is disturbed, the plenty that before reigned is changed into scarcity; and the happiness of the guests is destroyed by the spectacle of misery and dependence in every part of the hall, and by the clamorous importunity of those, who are justly enraged at not finding the provision which they had been taught to expect. The guests learn too late their error, in counteracting those strict orders to all intruders, issued by the great mistress of the feast, who, wishing that all her guests should have plenty, and knowing that she could not provide for unlimited numbers, humanely refused to admit fresh comers when her table was already full."

It is easy to see what, upon Mr. Malthus's view of society, would become the perfect system of policy, when the English constitution shall have expired by that *euthanasia* which Hume foretold, or rather that atrophy which daily wastes away its vital powers, that slow poison which has been year after year administered. The first step would be to commute the miseries of poverty for the comforts of solitude: for this, the frequent argument that the negro-slaves are happier than the poor people of England, has prepared our legislators; and the poor must be brought to it, as they are to be brought to celibacy,—by starving. It has been found that slaves are more manageable than servants, the next discovery would be the great fitness of considering them as cattle, for which the whole system of our slave-laws has also prepared us. Having adopted the wisdom of Oriental monarchies, we should then readily adopt the magnificence of Oriental manners; and introduce into England the wise invention of Semiramis for counteracting the principle of population. The advantages are obvious: the people would be happier, because poverty would be annihilated; the fine arts would be improved, inasmuch as we should rear our own opera-singers, and reform our church-music according to Italian taste; and the proceedings of government would be wonderfully facilitated, for John Bull has been at times a refractory animal, but John Ox would certainly be tractable.

What then is the purport of this quarto volume? To teach us, first, that great misery and great vice arise from poverty; and that there must be poverty in its worst shapes, wherever there are more mouths than loaves, and more heads than brains. Secondly, that the only remedy is, that the poor should not be encouraged to breed. There is not a man in England who was ignorant of the first fact, nor a mistress of a family who does not advise her servants not to marry. No wonder that Mr. Malthus should be a fashionable philosopher! He writes advice to the poor for the rich to read; they of course will approve his opinions, and, understanding with perfect facility the whole of his profound reasonings, will of course admit them with perfect satisfaction.

The folly and the wickedness of this book have provoked us into a tone of contemptuous indignation: in affixing these terms to the book, let it not be supposed that any general condemnation of the author is implied, grievously as he has erred in this particular instance.—Mr. Malthus is said to be a man of mild and unoffending manners, patient research, and exemplary conduct. This character he may still maintain; but as a political philosopher, the farthing candle of his fame must stink and go out.

XVIII. *Memorial addressed to the Sovereigns of Europe, and the Atlantic. By Governor* POWNALL. 8vo. pp. 150.

THE leading object of this memorial is to recommend the interference of the British government to bring about the emancipation and independence of the Spanish settlements in North and South America.

Digitized by Google

This interference could only be justifiable in case we were at war with Spain: it could only be efficacious, with respect to Mexico, in case we had the secret connivance of the proprietors of Louisiana, through which provinces the supplies of men and arms might most conveniently be forwarded. With the connivance of the present proprietors of Louisiana, all the necessary assistance can with facility be afforded without British interference at all. So that the whole undertaking, practicable and useful as it may appear, is but a freak of supererogatory eleutherism.

Peru can be assisted efficaciously only from Hindostan. It would be amusing to see the ministers of George the third ordering of the king's printer, for the Quito market, a new edition of the Araucana, which celebrates the rebellion of Chili; and a Spanish translation of Pizarro, with those passages strengthened, which would found thrones on the choice of the people, and substitute voluntary to innate submission. We apprehend these ministers will hesitate a little before they instruct marquis Wellesley to be tampering with the fidelity of the viceroy of Lima, and endeavouring to conciliate his concurrence in a plan of independence; before they instruct him to represent that allegiance is the virtue of weakness, that to rescue the commerce of Peru from the oppressive monopoly of the Spanish *gremios* would be conferring a diffusive benefit on the motley nations entrusted to his charge; and that to save Peru from its present indirect dependence on the swindling ministry of France is in fact to preserve it for those only Spaniards, who have the true temper and honour of Castilians.

For the accomplishment of these rather jacobinical purposes, which would however augment the commercial relations of Great Britain, our author conceives an alliance with the republic of North America to be necessary. We fear this is only to be purchased by our going over to whiggism: the friends of liberty govern in North America, and they entertain a prejudicial dislike of the party in power here. Their opposition to our interests is a natural consequence of our toryism, and will be coeval with it. It is right, however, to hear our author.

"There is nothing which would more strongly cement this alliance between these two Atlantic powers, than their joining in a common cause, in co-operation, emancipate the inhabitants of the Sp provinces in South America from the vincial external government by which are oppressed, and to which that porti mankind are subjugated; and in laying the abundantly rich commerce of the gions to the free intercourse of all the w and in releasing it from the bondage of nopoly by which it is now fettered de and in clearing a channel for those r which now come to Europe in barren e sive revenue, that such may flow to all kind in the fecundating streams of comm The joint operations of those two Atl powers, in actuating this commerce, create a new Atlantic common interes raising into freedom and independenc Atlantic state; and that state must, fro own nature, and from the relations wh holds to these its deliverers and defen become an active party in, and give additi strength to, the great marine Atlantic ance.

"As this union of alliance will be qu new thing in the world, and exist under tirely new circumstances, there ought t formed a new act of navigation, com and reciprocal to all these parties, deri its authority as law from special treaty tween each of these parties, or by ge convention of all.

"These suggestions lead the memor to the consideration of the measure itse

"The inhabitants of South Americ divided into kingdoms and states, on foundation of old dominions. The ori natives, and those Spaniards who hav come incorporated with them, have formed a preponderating interest, and now at length arisen to an ascendant in in those communities; they are at the of an explosion to independency, which government of Old Spain hath not the p to prevent or to resist. This revolutio now nascent.

——————— omnia tempus
Nacta suum, properant nasci ——

It will not be withheld. The considera whether it shall so arise or not, is no le a question. The progress by which t states were advancing to this crisis of i pendency, the nature of the polity on w they were founded, and which gave cour this progress, were, in the year 1780, plained by the writer of this, in a mem at that time published as addressed to the vereigns of Europe.—'South America is yet, in its natural course, ripe for falling nor is it likely, from the slow, official, tious prudence of its metropolis, to be fo before its time and season to a premature volt, as North America has been. As as the Spanish government proceeds in ministering the affairs of its American

Digitized by Google

ablishments with the temper, address, and isdom which she observes at present, an idolent, luxurious, superstitious people, not uch (though much more than the world spects) accustomed to reason on political rangements, will continue in a certain de-ee of subjection to government, and in a rtain degree of acquiescence to commercial strictive regulations, in their European urse, for the sake of reciprocity of enjoy-ent and protection which they derive from . Not yet being hardened into a temper r enterprise by force of war, they will con-ue to pay their taxes as a peace-offering. he natives, however, encreasing in num-rs, beyond any number of old Spaniards hich the metropolis can send either as civil vernors and magistrates, or as soldiers; ving the interior executive power of all the ferior magistracies in their own hands, by eir own election of the magistrates; and ring invariably, where their choice ope-es, made a decided rule to choose those of their own body, they have, so far as that goes, all the power of internal government in their own hands, in which the majesty of the sovereign state never interferes: and whatever sovereignty the Spanish monarch holds by the offices of his viceroys, of his judges, of his audiences, his clergy, or his army; however majestic they may look, or however it may appear to individuals, and, in particular exertions, to carry terror, it is a mere tenure at good-will."

The author proceeds to explain in detail his plans of proceeding, which are based on much local knowledge and enquiry concerning the country.

The whole memorial contains many interesting and instructive passages, but they are expressed with a mystical and tumid frothiness, less likely to secure the praise of eloquence than to endanger that of thinking clearly.

ART. XIX. *An Historical and Political View of the Disorganization of Europe, wherein the Laws and Characters of Nations and the Maritime and Commercial System of Great Britain and other States are vindicated against the Imputations and revolutionary Proposals of M. Talleyrand and M. Hauterive, Secretaries of State to the French Republic. By* T. B. CLARKE, *LL.D.* 8vo. pp. 208.

GREAT Britain has two main poses to pursue in her continental tics. Firstly, to subdivide the con-t into the greatest possible number important states; because her own nitude being limited by nature, her ive importance depends on the other ons not attaining a more than equi-nt magnitude. Secondly, to ba-e against each other the habitual ellations of states, so that her own sion to either confederacy may decisive, and secure an attention r interests in the eventual distribu-of disputed territory. These in-ts are nearly confined to a limita-of the northern aggrandisement of ce, which can most effectually be mplished by adding Holland, West-, and all the territory between the e and the Elbe to the Prussian do-ns. This territory would then be ted by a sufficient force against h usurpation. In 1787, the op-ity existed so to allot these pro-; but it existed in vain for the statesmanship of the then minister. mains for intellect to recover the tunity. An alliance with Russia Prussia against the preponderance nce, would probably restore it. that Austria has lost the Nether-, Great Britain has no remaining est in her power, or her success. Whatever of opinion, of expence, of commercial accommodation, of territorial sacrifice (there are remnants of Dutch colonies, which Prussia might be induced to covet) would purchase the entire friendship of Berlin, should be applied to conciliate that friendship. The possession of the whole coast from the Rhine to the Weichsel, including the very probable absorption of Denmark, will still not aggrandize Prussia into a rival maritime power. It is useless now to lament the folly and perverse misconduct of the Antijacobin war; we ought to bend our undivided energies to undo the resulting mischief.

This book is too much occupied with the remote past. Let Talleyrand abuse our press, provided we retain its freedom. Let Hauterive point out our ancient insignificance, provided we avoid to smooth the way for its return. All countries are ambitious, and ought to be so. It is the preserving principle of national strength; and, like the desire of bettering one's condition in private life, prevents the unwholesome indolence of contented decrepitude. France is enormously aggrandized and strengthened. It is for Great Britain to aggrandize and strengthen herself also; by the occupation of such colonizable territory as will best contribute to increase her commerce and resident wealth;

Digitized by Google

and by the dissolution of those monopolies which resist the dispersion of her opulence over the whole surface of her territory.

Dr. Clarke's third chapter is properly managed. It tends to sow jealousy between France and Prussia, by bringing out the illiberal sarcasms cast by Hauterive on Prussian policy. We transcribe.

"The second cause of the disorganization of Europe appears, according to Mr. Hauterive, on the part of Prussia.

"This gentleman says, it is not for him to trace by what means the successor of a prince rose, who acted a subordinate in the treaty of Westphalia, who wrote in terms of respectful distance, to the ministers of one of the principal powers, and from whom those ministers withheld the title of highness in their letters. But to the elevation of this house of Brandenburgh is owing a considerable share of the disorganization of Europe. The treaty of Westphalia had for its objects the reconciliation of the protestant and catholic interests. France declared herself the protector of the rights of the protestants. But the rise of Prussia in the empire changed the motives of regard previously entertained for the necessary guardianship of France. Prussia had its own interests in view, sometimes foreign, sometimes opposed to the interests of the German confederacy. Hence Prussia by its rise rendered appeals to France for its intervention between the head of the empire and its members, in cases of rupture, less frequent. Hence Prussia by its rise caused disputes between the empire and its members to be more frequently the occasions of war. Hence Prussia by its rise rendered France almost a stranger to the interests of Germany, and Germany to the interests of France. Hence Prussia by its rise causing disputes on the constitution of the empire to be no longer determined by France, they were resolved by violence, and by the pleasure of the strongest. Hence Prussia by its greatness made the protestant confederacy to disappear, even to the name which indicated a community of rights and interests; and usurping the place of France by its protection, identified the confederacy with itself, under the title of the Prussian party. Prussia however did not and could not acquire territorial resources proportionate to its ambition. Prussia did not found its rise upon conquest: this would have unmasked the designs of aggrandisement. Prussia dissembled its ambitious plans under the plausible forms of the improvement of tactics and its system of finance; and thus rousing emulation rather than fear, the consequences have been fatal. Taught by Prussia, princes have adopted the opinion, that gold circulates in their countries only to enrich the treasury, and that nature has produced men only to become soldiers. But in the hands of [illegible] ministers, the former has proved the chi[illegible] of the Danaides, whereas the latter w[illegible] ruinous reality. And hence Prussia by [illegible] rise, by its systems, and by the influen[illegible] these systems, bowed down every sta[illegible] Europe—weakened the springs of go[illegible] ment—rendered intolerable to every pe[illegible] the yoke of the authority that galled th[illegible] multiplied the pretexts for hostility—di[illegible] ed princes to seek every occasion of [illegible] furnished the means of rendering wars [illegible] general, more lasting, and more bloody—[illegible] finally aggravated the political disorga[illegible] tion, of which the war of the revoluti[illegible] the last, and one of the most impo[illegible] effects.

"Thus Prussia stands arraigned b[illegible] the great tribunal of the world, as guil[illegible] the disorganization of Europe. Such i[illegible] substance of this charge; of which the [illegible] predominant features are, 1st. Prussia, [illegible] sembling her plans of ambition under p[illegible] sible forms, first taught to princes, that [illegible] ture only furnished men to be formed [illegible] soldiers, by the example of her military [illegible] tem; and 2d. Gold circulated in their co[illegible] tries only to enrich their treasuries by [illegible] example of her financial system. L[illegible] now examine on what grounds these acc[illegible] tions stand. For, on these two poin[illegible] causes, in like manner as on the exem[illegible] lust of conquest imputed to Russia, al[illegible] subsidiary reasoning, and detailed asse[illegible] of Mr. Hauterive are built. But we [illegible] soon find that all this gentleman's cause[illegible] consequences, have neither cement, fou[illegible] tion, nor existence whatever, save in [illegible] conception, or in extreme historical [illegible] diplomatic misinformation.

"During the sixteenth and seventh[illegible] centuries, Europe was alternately mea[illegible] with a great revolution and an univ[illegible] monarchy, by the houses of Austria [illegible] Bourbon. The vast possessions, and [illegible] ponderant power of these monarchs [illegible] them on to enterprizes ambitious and m[illegible] Chiefly Lewis XIV. by his standing [illegible] numerous armies, menaced the rights o[illegible] neighbours whose military power was [illegible] moderate.

"This ambitious monarch was the f[illegible] der of the military system, according to [illegible] taire, and was the first who estab[illegible] numerous armies. He instituted grena[illegible] introduced the use of the bayonet; [illegible] mented dragoon cavalry; settled the m[illegible] in which the artillery was served; fou[illegible] academies for the artillery; formed immo[illegible] magazines of military stores; raised [illegible] ments of bombardiers; established regi[illegible] of militia at the expence of the communi[illegible] maintained and instructed companie[illegible] cadets in most of the frontier towns; fo[illegible] corps of engineers; perfected the art o[illegible] tification under Vauban; constructed, r[illegible] ed, and formed one hundred and fifty f[illegible] fications which were rendered almost imp[illegible]

Digitized by Google

nable; appointed inspectors general, and afterwards directors, for the strict maintenance of military discipline; instituted military honours, which are more desired than pecuniary rewards; and to crown his military system and his endeavours to be well served, he instituted the hospital for invalids.

"Thus his armies became through the arrangements of this great military system, the astonishment of all and the terror of many of the nations of Europe! Such numerous troops had never before been seen. He kept in pay, says Voltaire, 450,000 men. From the time of Mazarine's death to that of his own, he was engaged in a course of wars, which lasted nearly thirty years. His navy consisted of 780 ships, of which there were 110 of the line. But by the good policy and valor of Britain, Sweden, and Prussia, the balance of power was, notwithstanding, preserved from annihilation. In order to meet the magnitude of the danger, and to guard against meditated surprise, Prussia beheld at once her sole security, and the true basis of peace in the strength of her armies. Hence therefore the remedy was proportioned to the evil; but the necessity of this conduct was forced upon her from the quarter where the example originated. The system had been even perfected in France before it had been thought of in Prussia. So vast, so complete was the military system of Lewis, that Voltaire says, the troops of all his enemies were not so numerous; they certainly were not so strongly united, and thus he had always great successes or great resources. The genius of the sovereign of Prussia, did not content itself however with forming a great military machine; he contemplated and has discovered the modes of making it act with new energy in war and advantage in peace. His improvement in tactics followed, of which his enemies can tell the effect. The burden, which results from the support of armies, he made these armies compensate by their utility, not merely with respect to the repulsion of external danger, but the support of internal security. But his army, which was not disproportioned to his military revenues, for his treasures accumulated by an annual surplus, was divided in the provinces, and not in the towns, or on the frontiers. His great object was to render his army truly national, and thereby invisible, and without interfering with rural occupation. He sent them therefore to their towns, and to their homes, to devote themselves to agriculture during ten or eleven months of the year. Thus his army emerged between the sword and the plough-share, became soldiers renowned in war, agriculturists useful in peace, and did not prove burthensome to the country.

"Mr. Hauterive, therefore, has fallen into more than one great error on this head. First, Prussia did not set the example of the military system and its numerous standing armies: it was France. And, next, in France, it certainly proved an evil of the most mischievous magnitude. Whereas in Prussia it proved a good of the first importance, not solely with respect to Prussia itself, but to Germany and Europe. For under the military system divested of its poison by the sagacity of the monarch, the Prussian nation has grown and prospered, and has not declined into disorganization and revolution. Mr. Hauterive, however, asserts that this greatness of Prussia became pernicious to Germany and to Europe; and that by its influence and example it created wars in the one, and disorganization in the other. History informs us, on the contrary, that from the period of the establishment of Prussian greatness to the present one, it did not create wars in the empire; for there have been no wars amongst the princes, as Mr. Hauterive affirms. And it is the growth and preponderance of Prussia which prevented these wars. They must have infallibly arisen out of the internal dissentions of the empire, had it not been for the intervention of this power.

"Let us now examine how far this gentleman is likewise erroneous, when he asserts that Prussia first taught to the princes of Europe that gold circulated in their countries only to enrich their treasury. The historical panegyrist of Lewis XIV. informs us, that when this monarch lay on the bed of death and held his successor in his arms, he uttered these remarkable words to him, which could have proceeded but from his revolving within himself all his military and financial operations: 'I have been too fond of war—imitate me not in that—no more than in my too great expences.' He, to whom they were uttered, preserved them in writing at the head of his bed. But let Mr. Hauterive direct his researches a little further, and he will perceive the history of France informing him that the system of finance, which gave in France such a pernicious facility to answer any sudden demand for war, was introduced by Catherine de Medicis, abolished under Henry IV. revived under Lewis XIII. and so fatally enfeebled the latter times of Lewis XIV. that about the years 1691 and 1692 the finances were in extreme disorder. And on this occasion the historian observes, 'it is only war that impoverishes a state.' Since the time of the ancient Romans, I know of no nation that has enriched itself by its victories. Italy in the sixteenth century, owed its wealth entirely to its commerce. Holland would have subsisted but a very short time, had it looked no farther than the seizure of the Spanish plate fleets. The Algerines, who support themselves by their piracies, are a very wretched people. Among the European nations, war, after a certain term of years, reduces the conqueror to the same distress with the conquered."

A better defence of the maritime sys-

Digitized by Google

tem might have been drawn up than is contained in the fourth chapter. Compare the acknowledged laws of maritime armaments with the acknowledged laws of territorial armaments; and it will be found that moderation has been a distinguishing virtue of the framers of the maritime code. The Frederics or Bonapartes have not shewn such respect for the rights of neutrals, as the admirals of Britain; yet further derelictions of claim would still be expedient. The northern popularity of Great Britain is not consulted by any of those arrogant claims, which our pretenders to statesmanship seek a low applause by asserting. A minister of talent would choose to renounce them all, conscious that the claim is a barrier to friendship; and that all such claims amount, at the moment of practical enforcement, to nothing at all. The right of strength and the right of wit will ever be used in an emergency: contraband of war will always be seized by the powerful, and always furnished by the dextrous, during a blockade. The agreements do, indeed, guide the decisions of courts of justice, concerning the legality of prizes; but who would wish not to predispose our courts of admiralty to consult the interests of foreigners as well as of natives? because equity is most favourable to an increase of commercial intercourse.

In the concluding chapter a violent effort is made to demonstrate the great increase of our prosperity. 'We are told that the coinage from the Revolution to the death of George II. amounted to 33,000,000l.; but that it has amounted under George III. to nearly double the sum, namely, 62,000,000l. This is quoted as a proof of increased wealth: it only proves that bullion of late years has often been worth more than coin; and that a great deal has occasionally been melted down for exportation. The increased rental of the country is also adduced; but if the pound sterling has diminished in value, this proves little. New inclosures are vauntingly said to have taken place; they always abound during a cycle of dearth; and during the first cycle of cheapness, half of them will probably be abandoned again to sheep-walks. It is not at all desirable to wind up rents very high; or to cultivate every acre of the country: corn should be grown where it can be grown cheapest, in North America, and in such countries as have no rents to pay. By attempting to force the growth of corn here, we render a vast portion of our prosperity dependent on the dearth of food, which is always a public misfortune. In order to prevent the land-owners from losing their rents, our houses of parliament, which consist of land-owners, grant one another by law, a monopoly of the home-market, and prohibit, at certain prices, the importation of corn; thus taxing the whole community, to accommodate themselves with unnecessary rent. The result of our author's sanguine estimate is, that every man, woman, and child is worth, on the average, two hundred pounds; that eighty millions is the yearly value of their industry; and two thousand millions the value of the whole British nation. Lucian turns auctioneer to the philosophical sects; our author to the European nations; but his Britain is above the bidding even of a Didius Julianus.

ART. XX. *A Summary Account of Leibnitz's Memoir addressed to Louis XIV., recommending to that Monarch the Conquest of Egypt, as conducive to the establishing supreme Authority over the Governments of Europe.* 8vo. pp. 104.

DURING the infancy of agriculture Egypt was an important country.—Lands, which could be brought into cultivation without manure, or the spade, or the plough, might well astonish early society by their fertility and produce. But now that the art of husbandry is improved, and the conquests of tillage immeasurably extended, the strip of ooze between the granite mountains of Egypt is scarcely important to the corn-merchants of Europe. The Delta, it is true, has larger dimensions than ever; but the perpetual addition of alluvion has lifted much of it above the reach of regular inundation. So that the sum of arable surface is probably not greater than of old. What does Egypt produce beside corn and natron, which promises to commerce any sensible accession? The productions of tropical agriculture might indeed be naturalized there; but it would be a speedier process to raise them on the Zaire, the Coanza, the Orange-river, or on the Oronoko, by means of creole colonists

Digitized by Google

tion, than to undertake the discipline of the present Egyptians into such planters as the West-Indians. It is, therefore, not worth while to covet or envy this acquisition: it would rather be a glorious than a useful prize. Only inasmuch as Egypt is the best road to the interior of Africa, could it be worth the while of the British nation to occupy it; but the river Zaire is probably this best road. It has been said that Egypt is a stepping stone from Europe to Hindostan: yet it has constantly been neglected, since the establishment of a ferry by the Cape of Good Hope. Where has it a port in the Red Sea? Where has the Red Sea forests of ship-timber? And if a naval station were to be occupied in the Isle of France, or Bourbon, or Madagascar, how should any Red Sea fleets escape squadrons stationed there? It would be wise then to let the French over-run Egypt; if for that they would evacuate the European Holland.

Nor is it very clear that the memoir of Leibnitz, of which a neat and interesting analysis is here given to the public, was not drawn up with this very view. In order to divert Louis XIV. from the conquest of protestant Holland, the pious Leibnitz suggested to his ambition an attack on infidel Egypt. It was likely to prove a perpetual drain of men and treasure; for it had always been the grave of its conquerors. Cambyses lost there the empire of Persia; Seleucas, the empire of Macedon; Pompey and Anthony, the empire of the world. The conquest of Egypt under Omar gave occasion to the partition, and that under Saladin to the dissolution of the califate. With the reign of Selim, the acquirer of Egypt, begins the declension of Turkish power. The argument of Leibnitz cannot possibly be credited the Arabian tales of Egyptian opulence and populousness; while he describes it with all the enthusiasm of Amrou's exultation, *oculus regionum, horreum frugum, sedes commerciorum.* He sets up with his panegyric all those glorious motives of conduct, which are likely to operate on the sympathetic vanity of Louis XIV. and of his subjects. He offers to the monarch, whom he would seduce, the titles of emperor of the east, advocate of the church, and master of the universe. He describes the Egyptians as seditious, which is true; and likely to side with the Christians, which is very questionable; as easily retained when once conquered, which is notoriously erroneous; and as defended by an insignificant force of janissaries and mamelukes, which is a somewhat treacherous misrepresentation. If this memoir, as is likely enough, really influences the proceedings of the modern French, let it spur them on; let them follow their ninth Louis to Damietta, and win new victories at Massour; pestilence will again blast the palms of victory.

There is surely a sensible tincture of irony in the following passage:

"A war with Christian states can only lead to the acquirement of small accessions of territory; a tedious process for those who aspire after great things. And experience proves, that every encrease of power proportionally encreases suspicions and confederacies. Hence, a prince, aiming, like the most Christian king, at great achievements, will be cautioned by his wisdom to abstain as much as possible from seeking his aggrandisement by these means. For, to proceed in that course would be at once to prescribe the "*non plus ultra*" of his progress; and, for a trifling consideration at hand, to part with the greatest and the best founded hopes.

"Such objects are to be far more easily and certainly acquired by elections and successions, and that which gives origin to all successions, matrimonial alliances. It was thus the house of Austria grew in power, and thus the house of Bourbon will likewise grow, if it persists in the course in which it began. Since, therefore, there are these three methods of aggrandisement—war, elections, and successions; and since the stability of the monarchy, and the internal happiness of the people, are best consulted and promoted by cultivating the several arts and relations of peace with our neighbours in Europe, it follows, that war ought to be exclusively employed against the barbarous nations.—And, among these, it is incontestible, that by one fortunate blow (for striking which the French are most peculiarly formed by nature) whole empires may be at once both subverted and founded. There indeed will be found the materials for supreme power, and glory incredible; by which the most Christian king will find himself exalted to the authority of general or chief of Christendom, and France become the military school of Europe, the academy for the confluence of the most distinguished talents, and the emporium at once of the ocean and of the Mediterranean Sea. And if honour, and indisputable right to high prerogative be sought for, the titles and rights of emperor of the east, recovered from the violation of the Turks by the exertions of the French (who,

Digitized by Google

formerly, under the Baldwins, held that empire for a time at Constantinople) would be thus acquired, together with the power of universal arbitration; an object far more valuable in the estimation of the wise than universal monarchy itself."

This is further corroborated by those lines in the epistle of Leibnitz to Mons. de Scuderi, written in November, 1697, in which the philosopher thus mentions the monarch.

Les héros, tels que lui, sont de tous les pays;
Où leur nom peut aller, ils ont les coeurs soumis.
Cette monarchie *est la seule universelle*,
Et de celle de Dieu le plus juste modele.
Et Louis etant tel, l'aurait été toujours,
Sans le destin *fatal au repos de nos jours*.
O necessaire mal, politique facheuse,
Vos soupcons ont rendu l'Europe malheureuse:
Plus Louis est le Grand, plus chacun allarmé
Avance, en repoussant, le *désastre* éloigné.

Indeed all the connexions of Leibnitz favour the suspicion, that he was no cordial friend to French aggrandizement, but was very willing to owe to French enquiry the information he coveted about the supposed resemblance of the Armenian and the Egyptian dialect, and the possibility of explaining in Coptic the names of the Roman divinities. In the letter to the Abbé de Saint Pierre, on the project of a perpetual peace, he says the best way to realize it would be to assist the emperor in driving the Turks out of Europe, which is a glaring *persiflage*. It is, therefore, not at all improbable that his archness, like that of Socrates, often passed for earnest; and eluded suspicion by its apparent heterogeneity to his character.

Instead of viewing the project of Leibnitz as a philosophic fenfire exhaling in order to infatuate and mislead, and dazzle and bemire the French nation, this editor seems to consider it neither as an ironical, nor as an unsound project. He chooses for his motto the line of Lucan,

Ægyptum certe Latiis tueamur ab armis!

and would have this country take the idle trouble of ridding the Copts of their new mamelukes. Let us, on the contrary, open toward the south side the barrier-gates of Europe; and, if possible, induce France to pursue her aggrandizement in any other direction rather than along the northern coast. By the possession of Holland, the security and independence of Great-Britain is far more seriously threatened than it would be by the annexation of the whole Roman empire besides to France.

ART. XXI. *The French considered as a Military Nation, since the Commencement of their Revolution; exhibiting by their Conduct toward Europe in general, a serious Warning to Great-Britain: with a proposed Plan to Hut the Troops, &c.* 8vo. pp. 72.

THESE patriotic pages are addressed to the navy, army, and volunteers of the United Kingdom: they are penned by some one well acquainted with what may be called the generic character of a French soldier. Their avowed object is, to shew to the British army and the English people at large, what French soldiers really are, how they have been commanded, and by what extraordinary means they have been rendered subservient to every project of ambition. The courage and bravery of the French are not underrated, but it is truly remarked that much of their success may be ascribed to other causes than ascendency in valour, or superiority in military skill. They, as well as their enemies, have often committed the grossest blunders, but the latter were not always so ready to profit by them.

It is stated here, that the revolution "has destroyed the science of artillery or engineering, in France." The French are a military nation, and every thing connected with tactics is a subject of importance to them. To their flying artillery, composed of the best and bravest of their soldiers, the French are undoubtedly indebted for the majority of their victories. If it is true that the revolution disorganized the military, as well as every other branch of the government, there is yet every presumption that they will now use the ancient tactics as the basis of a modern superstructure. *Dépôt de la Guerre* is at this time under the direction of that accomplished general, Andreossy: it is an establishment likely to be attended with incalculable advantages to the enemy, and which cannot too strongly be recommended as a model for imitation to the British government. *Fas est et ab hoste doceri.* T

Digitized by Google

Dépôt,* or repository of maps and plans of war, &c. &c. was established by Louvois in 1688: archives were collected, memoirs, the correspondence of generals, and accounts of military transactions were arranged in order. The importance of the establishment was soon perceived: the materials were encreased and more methodically arranged, by *Marshal de Maillebois*, who was appointed director in 1730. The most important improvement was made by M. de Choiseul, who established a corps of geographical engineers, and charged this dépôt with the direction of their labours. Lieutenant-general De Vault simplified the numerous documents, by retrenching from the military correspondences and memoirs whatever was superfluous, and classing the remainder chronologically under the head of a different army or operation. In this manner he arranged all the military events from the German war, in 1677, to the peace of 1763: this analysis forms 125 volumes, each of which is preceded by a very succinct historical summary of what is more fully detailed in the body of it. This establishment survived the revolution.—When France was at war with all Europe, the advantages which she derived from this collection of the military and topographical labours of the monarchy, from the body of information which it contained respecting the resources and the country of the hostile powers were so great, that it was thought necessary to give the institution a new organization. At the time when individual sacrifices were proudly laid upon the altar of patriotism, private cabinets gave up their scarcest maps to government; the suppression of monasteries and abbeys called to light those geographical treasures which had lain buried in obscurity; intelligent officers were placed in the dépôt, and no less than thirty-eight persons were employed in drawing plans of campaigns, sieges, &c.; mathematicians and astronomers were attached to the institution, and dispatched to different places; and the dépôt now contains one of the first collections in Europe of geographical works. It forms various divisions of geographers, who are at present employed in constructing accurate maps of the four united departments, Piedmont, Savoy, Helvetia, and the part of Italy comprised between the Adige and the Adda. One section, in conjunction with the Bavarian engineers, is constructing a topographical map of Bavaria; another is carrying into execution the military surveys, &c. ordered by general Moreau for the construction of a map of Suabia. It has just published an excellent map of the Tyrol, and resumed the continuation of the superb map of the environs of Versailles. Since the year 1795, it has formed a library composed of upwards of 8000 volumes or MSS, the most rare, as well as the most esteemed, respecting every branch of the military art. General Andreossy is now on the point of publishing a periodical work to be entitled "*Mémorial du Dépot de la Guerre*," the object of which is to unite the exposition of the knowledge necessary for the direction of the dépôt for geographical engineers, staff-officers, military men in general, and for historians. The author of "Paris as it was, &c." concludes his letter thus: "In order to give you at one view a complete idea of the collections of the Dépôt de la Guerre, and what they have furnished during the war for the service of the government and of the armies, I shall end my letter by stating, that independently of 8000 chosen volumes, among which is a valuable collection of Atlasses, of 2700 volumes of old archives, and of upwards of 900 *cartons* or pasteboard boxes of modern original documents, the dépôt possesses 131 volumes, and 78 *cartons* of descriptive memoirs (composed at least of 50 memoirs each), 4700 engraved maps, of each of which there are from two to twenty-five copies, exclusively of those printed at the dépôt, and upwards of 7400 valuable manuscript maps, plans, or drawings, of marches, battles, sieges, &c. By order of the government it has furnished, in the course of the war, 7278 engraved maps, 207 manuscript maps or plans, 61 atlasses of various parts of the globe, and upwards of 600 descriptive memoirs."

Are the French likely to forget the science of engineering? What is Great-Britain about that she does not rival her enemy in establishments of such national importance?

* For a more ample account of this institution, see "Paris as it was and as it is:" we by consulting the first volume for these particulars.

Digitized by Google

ART. XXII. *Sketches of the intrinsic Strength, Military and Naval Force of France and Russia; with Remarks on their present Connexion, Political Influence, and future Projects.* In Two Parts. Part I. Quarto, pp. 220.

A WISE general will rather give his enemy credit for greater strength and ampler resources than he actually possesses, than despise the one and underrate the other; many a battle has been lost by the perviousness of an imaginary panoply. It would have been no more than prudent, perhaps, to have employed the short interval of peace which was allowed us, in examining carefully and minutely the situation of our ancient foe: it would have been well to have estimated the injury he had received from blows in the contest, but at the same time to have ascertained, whether his limbs had not grown stronger by long athletic exercise. Goaded by the silly and insulting threat that we dare not engage him single-handed, in the confidence of our prowess we accepted his challenge, and the issue of the conflict is now in the hands of him "who is the only giver of all victory."

It was the ruinous system of the Pitt administration to gain popularity for the war by inducing hopes which were never likely to be realized, and which therefore ended in the bitterest disappointment; the French government was at one time stated to be on the brink, nay in the very gulph of bankruptcy, her desperate struggles were the convulsive agonies of death, and the name even of the country was soon to be blotted out from the map of Europe. How contemptible, to say the least of them, are such illusory predictions! But it is to be hoped that we are now profiting by our past folly, and we are not a little indebted to the author of these Sketches for a more just, and therefore a more useful appreciation of the intrinsic strength, the military and the naval force of France. They are only sketches, but they come from the hand of a master—the line which a stranger drew on the canvas of Protogenes was immediately detected by the Rhodian painter to come from the hand of Apelles.

This work is printed at the Hague, but the author dates from Paris; and when he controverts the assertions, either ignorant or treacherous, of those British writers, who would lull us into fatal security by setting forth the misery and oppression which they pretend invade the interior of France, his statements are entitled to confidence, from the pledged assurance that he speaks "from ocular evidence, having within these twenty months visited every department of that vast republic."

"As matters now stand, the political powers and military force of continental Europe are to be considered, as concentrated in the governments of France and Russia. These two states have, each in its sphere, formed themselves over the frontiers of resistance; in understanding with one another, no power, or combination of powers can check or interrupt the operations of either of them. South of the Danube and the Elbe Europe is directly and indirectly subject to France, and the coasts of Barbary and Morocco will forthwith be colonized under her authority. North of the Elbe and Danube to the Frozen ocean is under the dominion and immediate control of Russia; Asiatic Turkey and Persia may also soon fall under her yoke. If Austria and Prussia assume a sort of independency of one another, that very assumption secures the dependency of both, upon the Czar and the Consul: no doubt it will therefore be allowed, and encouraged, until these governments can be dispensed with. How long the chiefs of those two mighty empires may agree, and continue to pursue the present system, cannot perhaps at this moment be determined; we shall therefore, as far as relates to their neighbourhood, political ties and commercial intercourse with Great Britain, consider both France and Russia in their present state, and as they now stand relatively to the British empire.

"FRANCE.

"No matter who commands there, or what denomination the government may assume; it is a nation possessing immense natural sources of wealth, power, and political influence.

"Situated as France is, under an excellent climate, and with an arable, easily worked soil, agriculture must always be the staple branch of her national industry, and the principal source from which she must draw her political influence and military power.

"Prior to the revolution, agriculture in France was nearly in the same state in which we find it still in every country in continental Europe: about two-fifths of the land susceptible of cultivation, were, in what is termed culture and pasturage; and produced upon an average, about one-third of what ordinary culture, upon the like quantity of the same soil, would have produced. Notwithstanding that wretched economy, the government drew, from the produce of agriculture alone, 8,000,000l. sterling. The clergy, with religious and charitable institutions, drew

Digitized by Google

from the same source upwards of 8,000,000l. sterling. The feudal and honorary dues paid to the nobility, with corvees, militia, &c. amounted at least to 5,000,000l. So that exclusive of the rents of the land paid to the lay-proprietors, and of the duties of excise, consumption, and the like, the produce of the soil was charged annually with upwards of 21,000,000l. sterling. By the realization of the church and crown domains, of the tithes, feudal and honorary dues, and, by the abolition of the religious orders, charitable institutions and corvees, the whole of this sum may now be appropriated to a part of the public revenue.

"In every country in Europe, and especially in France, agriculture is susceptible of great melioration; the entire abolition of privileges, and the almost total subversion of property, has laid open an immense field for speculation, which the vigour of the present government seems not ill calculated to encourage."

Supposing that agriculture in France is still left to individual enterprise, it appears from a calculation, the particulars of which seem very fairly estimated, that in the space of a few years peace France may draw a secure, permanent, and growing revenue of thirty millions sterling, and upwards, from the soil of the territory of the republic! and that not only without adding to the former burdens of the cultivation, or creating any new inconvenience to the public, but even after reducing their taxes by two-sevenths of what was paid under the old system.

Under the monarchy it has been stated, that the rental and raw produce of the soil was charged with about twenty-one, or twenty millions sterling; upwards of 300,000 men were employed in collecting the revenue. If to the loss of their labour, the expence of their maintenance, their extortions, douceurs, &c. estimated at fifteen millions; if to these are added the anticipations upon the revenue, or advances made to government by the farmer-generals, &c. gratuities to the financiers, and spies and informers, estimated at five millions, we have twenty millions sterling, four fifths of which, or sixteen millions, fell upon the proprietors, cultivators, and consumers of the produce of agriculture. The excise and consumption duties on the produce of agriculture, raised at the barriers of the several divisions of the kingdom, were about six millions; so that the rental and produce of the territories of old France were charged with forty-two millions sterling; or with two-fifths more annually than thirty millions would be upon the present extent and population of the republic.

On this statement we have the following remarks, which are worthy of attention.

"An immense sum: and it proved that the natural resources of that country, well managed, were inexhaustible. Yet the paltry deficit of twenty-two millions of French livres, made the sottish ministry lose the kingdom and their sovereign.

"Towards the latter period of the monarchy, it was impossible to establish any reasonable system of finance in France. The government having dwindled into the hands of mean intriguing men of narrow conceptions; independence, candour, and honesty, had left the court. The old nobility, and men of property and public spirit, despised an administration which, in common decency, they could not respect; and as a consequence they opposed its measures, whether good or bad.

"When a timid administration arms itself with prejudice and calls jealousy to its aid, it is remarkable how its leaders can resist the powers of common sense. The destruction of the French monarchy, and the means to prevent its fall, were, for the space of fifty years at least, hung up in the cabinet of Versailles, as clear as noon day. In France the whole system of taxation was vexatious, partial, and oppressive; and the punishments of frauds committed on the revenue were tyrannical. The evading an oppressive tax conveys to the mind no idea of moral guilt; and where there is no conviction of guilt, correction or punishment is naturally considered as the most insupportable tyranny. Thus it was the excise laws of the ministry and not the harangues of the philosophers that brought forth in France that terrible doctrine of sacred resistance."

Speaking of the probable improvement of the state of agriculture in France we are surprised to find our author so decidedly hostile to the exportation of corn, than which he says no measure can be more detrimental to the improvement and prosperity of a nation. A farmer who sells fodder, and a state that exports corn, says he, improve by the same negative progression. This is the revival of an exploded doctrine; and if any new argument had occurred in defence of it, it ought to have been mentioned. A farmer who grows more fodder than he wants for consumption himself, does right to sell it to his neighbour who grows less: it is a system of reciprocal accommodation, and appears to be advantageous, whether adopted by individuals or communities. Agriculture, it is acknow-

Digitized by Google

ledged, must ever be deemed the staple branch of the national industry of France; but without an unlimited, or at least an indefinite market for the commodity, will France ever be tempted to grow an unlimited or an indefinite quantity? She must copy the villainous policy of the Dutch, who will destroy one-half of the produce of a spice island for the purpose of raising the price of the other half. Is she to hoard her corn year over year in public granaries, exposed to the depredations of vermin, the risk of fire, &c. not to mention the immense loss of capital lying dead? In a year of scarcity what resource has she? But the question is foreign to the present subject, and we shall not discuss it here.

As to the *manufactures* of France, the republic has decided advantages over the monarchy, for the revolution has destroyed that baneful prejudice which excluded manufacturers, mechanics, and merchants, from what was considered as genteel society; it has annihilated the public debt, and the circulating capital is chiefly in specie and wares, labour is low, and the other states of continental Europe can set no manufactures in competition with those of France. "In Great Britain the immense mass of public and private paper in circulation, the amount and manner of levying the public imposts, with the unpardonable* *neglect of agriculture*, and of the fisheries, have raised the price of labour to such a rate, that notwithstanding the superiority of British mechanism, if efficacious measures are not taken to secure the necessaries of common life at a fair price, her exportation must sooner or later be confined to such articles as cannot be made elsewhere."

It is observed, that in order to carry on her *fisheries* with advantage, and the *maritime trade* with security, the republic must establish a durable peace upon solid terms, or must assume a superiority upon the ocean. For our part, we have no hope of the one and no fear of the other. The speculations concerning the maritime trade of France, and the number of seamen she would be able to rear, educate, and employ in the fisheries, have been so much deranged by the renewal of the war, that it would be irrelevant to notice them. The neglect of America during her warfare with France to have secured St. Domingo is reprobated as an irretrievable blunder; some remarks occur on this subject which may be of service at a future period.

"The acquisition of St. Domingo would have been, both in a commercial and political consideration, every thing that America could rationally desire: it would have enabled the United States to carry on a wide, extensive, and profitable maritime trade; and, as it would have rendered the political and mercantile interests of America and Great Britain reciprocal and mutual, by securing the British possessions in the West Indies, it would have raised an insuperable barrier between the United States and their perfidious sister, the French Republic.†

"St Domingo lost, the Americans have turned their views towards the island of Cuba; they consider the acquisition of that settlement as the certain result of a quarrel with Spain, and they pretend to have already a plausible pretext to make a claim upon that forlorn monarchy. But will France, now military mistress of the gulph of Mexico, suffer to settle under the lee of St. Domingo a power, which might thereby become her rival in the colony trade? Certainly not; the very idea is repugnant to common sense. The consulate may perhaps permit, and even en-

* Agriculture surely was never attended to more assiduously and successfully than it has been within these last few years; the fisheries have been grossly neglected, but the tide of attention is now setting in towards them.

† "That St. Domingo, being a state of America, would have secured the possessions of Great Britain in the West Indies, admits, we think, of no sort of doubt. To maintain this settlement, and the tranquillity of its own coasts and maritime commerce, it would have become, with the government of America, a necessary policy to encourage, and support if required, the permanency of the maritime preponderance of the British empire. The United States could then never have any thing to apprehend from a naval power, nor from armies to be carried across the Atlantic ocean direct. Nor could the West-India colonies of Great Britain be, in any wise, endangered by the vicinity of the Americans. That government in possession of St. Domingo could by no rule of prudence, nor maxim in politics, aim at the acquisition of more islands; the produce of that settlement would be abundant for the interior consumption of the United States, and for all useful purposes in their foreign trade; to attempt further aggrandisement by conquest, or to monopolize the sugar trade, could not fail to combine Great Britain and France against them; a circumstance that, were they in possession of all the sugar-islands, they could not be prepared against for centuries to come."

Digitized by Google

ourage America to quarrel with Spain, with ortugal, or with Great Britain; but the public will reserve to herself the objects their differences, as a pledge of their future nquillity."

As to the *military force* of France, it pears* to be equal to the military rce of the rest of Europe, Russia excepted; "the peace of Nimeguen made e dominions of Louis XIV. the most mpact and populous kingdom in Eue: that of Utrecht extended them to ain and the Indies, and a natural conpence was the consolidation of the itary preponderance of that monary. The present situation of Holland, rmany, and Italy, was then foreseen, d the rising of Great Britain itself was edicted." It is shrewdly and sneerly remarked, that the former was the reliminary' to the subjection of Eue, and the latter the 'definitive treaty:' one put France in an offensive posin, the other destroyed the defensive ans of all her neighbours.

From this general view of the subject appears, then, that

"The political advantages which the reblic, in a military point of view, possesses, preference to her neighbours, are,

"1. An immense, secure, annual revenue.

"We have already observed, that the Euean territory and industry of France are pable of producing, without inconveniency the public, 30,000,000l. sterling to governnt.

"Or, if we take fifteen per cent. as a meum assessment by cadastre, of the property d income of the nation, it will give the said m and upwards.

"From these thirty millions deduct about o millions, which the consulate is yet ssed to allow to the creditors of the state, d there will remain a clear and unencumbered revenue of 28,000,000l. sterling. A sum equal to, if not exceeding the unencumbered part of the revenues of all the independent governments of Europe. Add to this, that, in all other European states, the public imposts, as they are raised, amount to upwards of thirty per cent. upon the income of the taxable part of the community.

"2. The military organization of the republic.

"By the conscription-laws, every male is liable to serve in the lowest military capacity: there is neither legal exemption nor privileged preferment: and consequently, there is no subject for jealousy in the army, nor for discontent in the community. In France upwards of six millions of men are able to carry arms; of these, two millions and a half are between 18 and 23. Any number of these young men may be armed and put in motion by a *parole d'ordre*; for both the legislation and sovereignty of the republic are in the staff of the army: the military is the only road to consideration and power. And such is now the reputation of that profession, that, to avoid the contempt of the public, it is necessary either to serve or to have served. These are advantages which no other government possesses.†

"3. The frontiers and avant-posts of the republic.

"In a defensive point of view, since the meridian of the Roman power to the present time, no state had ever its frontiers so judiciously covered as those of the French republic now are. The strength of the frontier lines of monarchical France has often been proved; the subjugation of Holland, Switzerland, and Italy, render those lines now, we may say, inaccessible. Those vassal auxiliaries, being acknowledged by the rest of stupified Europe as independent states, may either serve as neutral outworks, or will have to maintain French armies sufficient to oppose any force that can be brought against them. Considered as offensive, the strength of her frontiers, and the localities of her several dependents, must necessarily give to the

* For the several data from which this and other inferences are drawn we must refer to the lume itself: to state them all would be to transcribe it.

† "The absurd declamations and fallacious reports, which we daily see in the London-newspers, respecting the tyranny of the conscription and the desertion of the young men in ance, deserve no attention; they only shew, that those writers are as little acquainted with military institutions of other countries as they are with the present state of the republic. every part of continental Europe, the lower orders of the community are as immediately bject to military service as they are in France; and with that aggravating difference, that baptism of every male is the act of his enrolment; infirmity or death is the only term which he can look forward for release; neither talents, bravery, nor other merit, can advance the rank or better the condition of an European bondman. It should likewise be considered, that it is not the low situation in which the great majority of mankind is placed that induces them to complain of their lot, it is the difference they see between themselves and others that makes them dissatisfied and oppose their superiors; in as far as relates to the conscription system in France this difference is professed to be done away, and the mass of the nation rejoice at it. Besides, we know for a certainty, that it is only the rich and easy who complain of military tyranny; and their desertion will rather facilitate than impede the operations of government."

Digitized by Google

armies of France a decided preponderance in Europe. From the Ems, up the Rhine to Basil and Feldkirk; from thence by Verona and the Adriatic-sea to Calabria, the republic is covered with a chain of double and triple lines of natural barriers and military posts. Secure at home, her avant departments, open to her armies every part of the continent from the Morea to Pomerania; Bonaparte's legions may be at the gates of Vienna and Berlin, before the Austrian and Prussian cabinets have any suspicion of the Consul's hostile intention. Lord paramount of Naples, the cession of Malta, and all other military and naval stations in the Mediterranean, by Great Britain, puts the Turkish government under the immediate direction of the consulate. With the command of Constantinople, or only enjoying the freedom of navigating the Dardanelles and Bosphorus of Thrace, the republic will check the operations even of Russia itself; and may make that mighty empire subservient to her future projects."*

4. Her colonies and settlements abroad; these are concerns of a very subordinate nature to France, considered as a source of revenue or a nursery for sailors, but to the consulate these foreign settlements are of high importance.

"Considering how the great sources of our maritime power are scattered, the whole island of St. Domingo, the boundless countries of Guiana, Louisiana, and the Floridas, with the invaluable settlement of the Cape, are, in the hands of the chief consul, offensive stations of the most formidable nature. Making her armies subservient to the cultivation of the soil, these possessions will become such military departments, that, when the republic shall again think proper to find a pretext to quarrel openly with Great Britain, Jamaica and Brazil may be easy conquests; or, should the consulate limit its operations in America, as some think it will, to a free trade with the Spanish and Portuguese colonies; France will in that case have ample means to raise and keep up a maritime force, proportionate to her military preponderance.

"We have already stated, that the fisheries and trade of the republic, in her present situation, will employ and maintain 120,000 able seamen; the foreign possessions chosen by her rulers, having no boundaries, she may extend her settlements and augment their produce, we may say, to infinity; and by managing other powers with a pacific prudence, she may double the number of her sailors, and secure a dominion on the ocean before any of her neighbours be aware of her design. Commanding the powers, the ports and arsenals of Spain, Italy and Turkey, France may very soon possess the absolute sovereignty of the Mediterranean; with the Rhine, she has the forests of Germany at the use of her dock-yards; with Holland she acquires an extent of coast and a chain of sea-ports, which may enable her to raise a numerous navy in a few years."

The leading policy of France has ever been to reduce the power and political influence of Great Britain; with the same disposition she has now more power than she ever had. The annulment of the treaty of Amiens, indeed, by which we retain possession of Malta, and the consequent superiority in the Mediterranean, has abridged the consulate power in that quarter since these Sketches were written. If France, however, is master of the south-west half of continental Europe, Russia claims a similar dominion over the north and eastern parts. "These two mighty empires are contiguous in contact; Berlin, Vienna, and Constantinople, can only be considered as their neutral posts, situate in their line of demarcation." The free, secure, and independent communication between the southern provinces of Russia and the Mediterranean is of too great importance to be abandoned; nor is the republic of France likely to cede the navigation which it has obtained of the Black Sea. If these two powers then do not go mutual shares in the trade and government of the Turkish empire, an event perhaps impossible, which of the parties is to give up its pretension?

"The cabinet of Petersburgh must certainly know, that should the consulate be allowed to assume an ascendency at Constantinople, or to intermeddle in the affairs of Turky, the fate of Moscow may again be disputed at Pultava! Will the present government of France retract and leave the Seraglio and St. Sophia to the desecration of Russians? In that case a Cossack and Hungarian army, seconded by a Russian and Baltic fleet, might yet confine the empire of Bonaparte to the government of his Gauls of the west. Or can the ambition of Russia and the avarice of France be satisfied with a partial partition of Turky? It is a known fact

* "The ascendency of the consulate at Constantinople, and the free navigation of the Black Sea, now allowed to France, cannot fail to produce effects of great importance; these circumstances must either cement and strengthen the political ties that are already existing between the consulate and the emperor of Russia, or they must break off the connexion. Should Russia and France continue friends, they will co-operate and subdue Asia, as they have done Europe. They cannot now separate without quarrelling, and in that case they will perish the world between their mighty armies."

Digitized by Google

that the consul did propose to the court of Petersburgh to leave Moldavia, Walachia, Bessarabia, Bosnia and Servia, to the disposal of Russia and Austria, on condition that France might possess Candia, Negropont, and other Greek islands in the Archipelago. But Russia would as soon see France in possession of the canal of Constantinople and the Crimea, as suffer her to fix her feet on posts that might soon command the communication between the Black and Mediterranean seas. To propose an entire partition of the European dominions of the Turks, to whom give Thrace and Constantinople? Besides, Russia will never agree to a division that shall leave the Grecian islands to France; nor can it be expected that the consulate will leave the Bosphorus to Russia.

"Thus between these two governments matters seem to come nearly to a crisis. Considering the characters of each respectively, and the powers and attitude of the two empires, if the consul possess only the half of those transcendent talents which his panegyrists are willing to allow him, he must certainly see, that their present cordiality cannot be of long duration.* And he is no doubt likewise aware, that while Great Britain can powerfully interfere, to risk a quarrel with Russia would be imprudent and dangerous.

"In this situation it appears to us, and indeed daily occurrences seem to confirm our opinion, that the plan of the chief consul is, to manage the court of Petersburgh until he disengage his rear; that is, until he shall tie down the British government to passive inactivity."

There is a prophetic tone in these spirited remarks, which subsequent events have verified: France is often successful in the field, and *always* in the cabinet. She has not quarrelled with Russia, but it is notorious that each regards the other with a most vigilant and suspicious eye. Our author, in common with every Briton, deprecates the treaty of Amiens, or rather he laments the necessity of acceding to the disgraceful terms of it. He contends that

"At no period of the war was the situation of France so critical as just when the preliminaries of London were signed. To have lost the battle of Marengo, might have lost the progress of the campaign, but the consequence would have been nothing more. At the juncture we refer to, the existence of the republic, the destiny of France, hung upon the will of an irritated and all powerful enemy. The British navy was completely mistress of the ocean, of the Gulph of Mexico, the Baltic, Mediterranean and Indian seas; from the Point of Florida to Cape Horn, and from Madagascar to Japan, every island, port, and place, were under our command, and at our disposal; as were also the continent of Africa, Egypt, Syria, Natolia, Cyprus, Candia, the Morea and Grecian islands, Malta, Sicily, and Lisbon. No nation ever stood in such a posture. And sue for peace! A frank declaration to the world, and a liberal proposition to the court of Petersburgh and to the United States, would have instantaneously rallied all the sovereigns of Europe and America (the king of Spain not excepted) around the British standard. Then we might have consolidated our maritime empire, every state that bordered on the sea would have become our natural ally, and all civilized nations our cordial and constant friends. And France, republic or monarchy, no matter which, might have been finally remanded within the limits of her own legal dominions. These Bonaparte saw, and by an address, (or perhaps from our want of address) he snatched away the fruit of all our toils. The very means we then possessed to have interwoven the interests of Europe and America with our own the consul is now dealing out to unite the world in enmity against us."

Of the solicitude of the First Consul to reduce the power, and particularly the naval power of Great Britain, there certainly can be no doubt: he is possessed of no ordinary talent, spirit, or perseverance: that he will make some desperate attempt is probable, but where the existence of the British empire is at stake

* "*It is truly pitiful to see public ministers and men charged with the defence of nations, fooling themselves in the hope, that Russia and France will quarrel and fight! Quarrel they certainly will, but when that event takes place, woe to their neighbours! While at peace their mutual preponderance requires only dependency and obedience: at war their hostilities will impose upon the eastern continent submission and slavery.*

"*When the Czar and the Consul draw forth their legions in hostile array, mediation, armed coalitions, neutral conventions, and demarkation-lines, will be of little avail. Those powers have long been unused to cabinet warfare, and to courtier étiquette in the field. The intervention of other states may hasten their own subjection, but cannot ward off their fate. The chieftains of Russia and France will meet nearly on the centre of the world: the object of their quarrel will not be a bishoprick, a sugar-island, nor who shall read their mass in Latin, or say their prayers in greek: they will fight for the possession of the Hellespont and Bosphorus, two posts on which hangs now suspended the empire of our eastern hemisphere. Such contending parties will not come out to skirmish and then mutually retire; nor will they fight for conquests to give away; the one will keep the field, and with it the dictatorship of the world.*"

Digitized by Google

her sons may very safely be entrusted with the defence of it. Italians, Mamelukes and Spaniards, the First Consul can drive before him,

——— In vain has Nature form'd
Mountains and oceans to oppose his passage;
He bounds o'er all, victorious in his march:
The Alps and Pyreneans sink before him,

but let him venture on these shores, and he will find a nation 'with a soul in it,' he will find us as one man rising to oppose his progress, and roll back his legions.

RUSSIA.

Such are already the extent and situation of the territories of this mighty empire, the nature and abundance of its produce, and the number of its population;* that another Peter, says our author, a Catharine, or an *Alexander*, may extend its dominions to the extremities of Europe and *Asia*; and its politics, guided by the interests of the state, have as little connexion with those of other nations 'as the etiquette of the court of Peking has with the ceremonies of the conclave of Rome.' This empire, one half surrounded with an unnavigable ocean, and six-sevenths of the other half covered with Asiatic nations and wandering tribes; mistress of the Baltic, Livonia, and Poland, of the Black and Caspian Seas, Georgia and the Caucasus; though its own frontiers are inaccessible, can pour her resistless legions over every part of continental Europe and Asia. "Commanding, as she doth, the Sound and the Belts, *if she do not lose the Bosphorus*, no check whatever can be set upon her future operations." And is it indeed true, that a prince of ambition and talent at the head of a Russian empire might place himself at the head of our eastern continent?

"The insurmountable difficulties that it is said would attend the march or passage of a Russian army through Parthia and Bucharia to Cashmire and Cabul, or by the Euphrates to Bassora, reminds us of Mr. Canning's crocodiles that eat up Bonaparte's army on the banks of the Nile! And the estimations drawn up to shew the force which the Persian cavalry and the Arabian strollers would oppose to such an expedition, seems to be made from the same scale, by which we lately saw calculated the resistance the valiant Swiss were to make to the legions of France. How is it possible to presume that Persia, in its present state, could make any opposition to the demands or operations of Russia? From Astrabad to Ispahan, is not further than from York to London. From the port of Zaue or the Tendzen river, and from the Aral-lake to Cabul, is only about as far as from Oczakow to Teflis. A million of camels are to be found on the roads, and should a Russian army be pleased to purchase them, they cost only about the value of five shillings a-head; a hundred pound weight of wheat costs fifteen-pence, as much as two-pence, an ox of six to eight cwt. about twenty shillings, and a sheep of two hundred pounds four shillings sterling. We can scarcely believe that an army of Cossacs and Kalmucs would find such a country impassable; especially when they are told that Thomas Kouli-Khan, on an excursion of plunder sure rather than an expedition of war, brought a booty worth sixty millions sterling out of Indostan. And would the Grand Signior refuse a passage through his territories of Bassora, when only to demur upon the demand might cost him Constantinople? If the safety of Delhi, Agra, and other places in India, depend upon their distance from the frontiers of Russia, and upon the difficulties and dangers of the route, who would recommend to the Mogul and those concerned with him, to make terms, or hasten their treasures as soon as they can.

"We are told in England, and it is said that writers have been paid to prove it, that the trade of Indostan cannot be carried through Persia and Tartary by Russia; but through the Persian gulph and Red Sea by France. That may be, but should the powers conjointly, or either of them, require the dominion of India, doth that imply that the trade of Asia with Europe must change its usual channel? We believe not. The French republic will, we know, never soon possess herself of Brasil, and she will bring the produce of that country across the Atlantic as formerly. That the British and Portuguese navies could interrupt the passage is possible, at least for a time; but what benefit could that produce to either? Besides to keep those navies equipt, Indostan and Brasil are perhaps as necessary as water is to keep them afloat."

Our author reprobates with great severity, our quarrel with the northern states. He asserts that the object of the war was not worth to Great-Britain the *little-finger* of a British sailor; that it evinced an obstinate adherence to the most despicable principle in politics that ever was countenanced by a great nation, that of avenging upon weake

* Exclusive of Georgia, amounting to forty-two millions; whereof there are upwards of twenty millions of male peasants, 700,000 enrolled soldiers, and 50,000 servants for the staff; and 1,200,000 free men of all descriptions.

Digitized by Google

neighbours, wrongs received from powerful states; and lastly that the war, without producing any sort of benefit to Great-Britain, organised and cemented an universal combination of hostile enmity against the British empire!

If the revenues of Russia then are so enormously great, and her resources almost incalculable; if France, with almost rival means, is actuated by a dangerous spirit of aggrandizement and domination, it was incumbent upon Great-Britain, who must consider herself as the object against which the intrigues and hostile preparations of both these governments, so long as they continue in political connection with each other, are directed; it was incumbent on Great-Britain to have directed all her power and influence towards the support and augmentation of the lesser states of Europe, and to have preserved them as much as possible, independent of those two mighty powers.

"These were, prior to the peace of Utrecht, Holland, Spain, and Austria; and until the capitulation of Nysted, in 1721, Denmark and Sweden came under the same description. To raise and keep up the maritime states, to extend their dominions at home and their possessions abroad, should have been our peculiar care; their interests were our own, and upon our prosperity depended their existence." But the world must not be given up for lost: it is the interest of Russia as well as of Great-Britain to oppose the gigantic strides of France; nor can America be indifferent to her restless and domineering spirit. A friendly intercourse, therefore, and close political connexion between these powers is recommended, as forming, perhaps, the only efficient check to the licentious career of the French Republic. "Any partial alliance or treaty for subsidy which Great-Britain can make on the continent of Europe can only produce the instantaneous subjugation of the continental party. But to form a permanent connection with the government of the Russian empire, and to defeat the Jacobin machinations of France in America and in our settlements abroad, the British Government *must* resume a British character, and adopt a system of politics analogous to the present situation of the world and the political state of Europe. Honesty and candour in negociations, bold simplicity in public measures, and vigorous perseverance in their execution may yet save the state. Such are now become necessary."

The intrinsic importance of the subject itself, and the bold, the masterly, and commanding manner in which it is treated, have prompted us to make more ample extracts from this volume than we are in the habit of allowing ourselves. This is no flatterer, no smiling politician, tickling our pleased ears 'with holiday and lady terms' to gain the noisy clap of popularity; we see the stern unbending patriot, anticipating the declension of his country's interests and pre-eminence among nations, and holding up a vigorous arm to save it. The physician has investigated the disease with carefulness and sagacity: instead of attributing it, in order to avoid giving offence, to any and to every cause but the true one, he tells you honestly, though bluntly, that your debility arises from your own intemperance, and that you have grown worse and worse by following the unwholesome prescriptions of ignorant time-serving quacks. To drop the metaphor, we find in the author of these Sketches, a politician whose piercing eye has penetrated into the interior of the several continental cabinets; who has made himself acquainted with their respective strength, views, and interests; who is alarmed at the growing resources of our ancient hereditary foe, and has pointed out to his parent country, the line of conduct she must pursue in order to humble his high-crested pride, in order to retrieve her own injured reputation abroad, and ensure her security, perhaps her existence as an independent nation, at home.

We cannot close this article without mentioning, that we are promised a second part of these Sketches, which will contain a general view of the politics and diplomatic history of Great-Britain, from the peace of Utrecht to the present year of the French consulate.

Digitized by Google

ART. XXIII. *The Five Promises: Conduct of the Consular Government toward France, England, Italy, Germany, and especially Switzerland. By Sir* FRANCIS D'IVERNOIS. 8vo. pp. 350.

THE financial system of the French, says with precise justice a manifesto of Bonaparte, reposes exclusively on their soil and their courage.

The *contribution foncière* and the *recette exterieure*, are in fact the chief sources of governmental income.

The *contribution foncière* closely resembles our assessments, with the addition of a rent-tax. The doors, windows, carriages, and servants, of each housekeeper are enumerated; an estimate of the value of the furniture is inserted; the rent is recorded; and on all these particulars a tax is levied, at present so moderate, that in a nation less military, it might speedily be doubled without inconvenience. This tax is chiefly odious among the small proprietors of land: it is chiefly evaded at Paris, where the government is shy of making enemies, and where the facility of shifting residence renders evasion easy.

The *recette exterieure* is a tribute impudently exacted from Spain, Holland, and other contiguous countries, as the price of neutrality, security, or autonomy. The independent nations of Europe ought to resist such levies, by instantly withdrawing their recognition from all those states which submit to them. From the moment a real independence has terminated, it is time lost to dissemble the conquest; and only enables the overawing power to secure a larger proportion of the eventual partition.

Both these classes of revenue are admittedly progressive in France. There are other symptoms of increasing internal prosperity. Witness, the indirect taxes, which during the last three years have produced as under,* neglecting fractions.

Indeed the minister Gaudin appears to have introduced great order into the collection of the revenue; and although it cannot be doubted that the expences of the French government are increasing, yet the means of meeting those expences extend with still greater rapidity. Governments are strong in proportion to the circulation of which they are the organ: they derive power both from what they levy and from what they pay; and far from acquiring influence or popularity by economy, they usually acquire it by magnificence.

Notwithstanding these facts, Sir Francis D'Ivernois persists in drawing his old inferences, that France is verging on new bankruptcies; and that French power (which is a far wilder inference) would by new bankruptcies be brought to the brink of ruin. To encourage this country in a war of finance, is like encouraging a man of property to gamble with an adventurer: if he breaks his antagonist he has not gained any thing; if he breaks himself, he has lost every thing.

We have much more faith in the representations contained in Mr. Necker's "Last Views of Finance" than in those of his fellow-citizen: he makes the revenue of France amount to twenty-three millions sterling. The consequence of understating the income of all governments is to strengthen those governments, and to provide an apology for new levies; it predisposes authority to timely precaution, and the people to patient acquiescence. Mr. Necker understands far better the art of letting down an authority: "What a country, he said to Louis XVI. where subordinate economies and imperceptible objects would suffice to banish the very appearance of a deficit." He now says to Bonaparte "Behold France rising from beneath her ruins, as opulent as ever."

The expenditure of France appears here to be estimated with little exaggeration, and to approach nearer to probability than the estimate of income: it runs thus according to the postscript:

"Let us now proceed to the principal article, namely,

"*Expenditure present and future.*

"Every one, who has attended to the French budgets, must remember, how uniformly the Directory promised, that at the peace the expense of the army should be reduced to one hundred and fifty millions; an

	Year VIII.	Year IX.	Year X.
* Enregistrement,	55,789,000	71,219,000	80,665,000
Mortgage-duty,	4,708,000	6,398,000	7,697,000
Stamps,	17,261,000	20,901,000	23,238,000
Customs,	22,860,000	29,867,000	41,666,000

Digitized by Google

that when, in the year X, the consular government raised them to two hundred and ten, it declared, by the minister of finance, that in this article there was a certainty of important reductions, which were impossible during the first moments (of peace.)

"These first moments have passed away, and he has raised the expense of the army to two hundred and forty-three millions; so that the important reductions, of which he guaranteed the certainty twelve months ago, are already converted into a certain increase of thirty-three millions. Thus, even should there be no further augmentation in the year XII, the army will cost, on the peace establishment, and under the republican government, just double what it cost under the monarchy.

"The same remark applies to the navy, the expense of which, from the year X to the year XI, has likewise increased from one hundred and five to one hundred and twenty-six millions.

"Another observation, of no less importance, is, that precisely in the same proportion in which the army and navy establishments have been immoderately increased, the new list of expenses for the year XI, the amount of which is five hundred and eighty-nine millions and a half, does not contain any one of the articles, which, as I all along foretold, would be passed over in silence.

"The sinking fund is the only one of which mention is made, and this is stated at no more than five millions, though the government stands engaged, by a decree, to make it ten, commencing from the year XII. The same may be said of the roads, this article of expenditure not being stated at one fourth of the eighteen millions which the government intends appropriating to them. Lastly, a profound silence has been observed on the floating debt, which amounts to above a milliard and a half, (about sixty millions sterling); on that part of the debt already funded, the interest of which will commence with the year XII; on the army of reserve; on the legion of honour; on the new departmental senatorships; and even on the new arms; the expenses of which are doubtless intended to be thrown upon the departments.

"However important these omissions may appear, they are far less so than that of the clergy, in favour of whom Bonaparte has instituted an eighth department of administration; the only one not set down for a share in the probable expenditure for the year XI. All that I have been able to discover in the accounts for the preceding year, on the extraordinary installation of the bishops was to be provided for, is, that the whole Gallican church of France was unable to raise a sum equal to that which was swallowed up by Bonaparte's privy counsellors alone. Already has the impious author of the concordat devoted to the service of the Deity twice the amount he devotes to that of the opera and dramatic art!

"The omission of these seven articles itself constitutes an additional deficit of near one hundred millions, which does not appear in the consular budget. The treasury, however, will not perceive this deficit till the consul shall have realised all these promises.

"Strange as such omissions may appear, it is far more so, that the tribunes, to whom Bonaparte thought proper to submit his accounts of the receipt and expenditure, considered them so well proportioned to each other, and so complete, that they have solemnly thanked him for rendering, in less than thirty months, the finances more flourishing than they ever had been since the year 1688, when Colbert died; that is to say, they thank him for having gloriously restored the equilibrium, by inserting in the account of the revenue an external receipt of twenty millions, and obliterating from that of the expenditure seven articles, which will amount to at least a hundred millions.

"Notwithstanding this gross artifice exhibited in the new budget, the accounts of receipt and expenditure, which accompany it, induce me to think that it is less difficult to restore the equilibrium, than was once imagined; and that it might be accomplished by at once adopting the two following measures:

"1. A retrenchment of one hundred millions in the expenses of the army and navy; not only perfectly easy in itself, but at the same time the surest mode of consolidating that peace, to which the minister of finance principally attributes the improvement in the revenue.

"2. A diminution of at least fifty millions in the land tax, together with a reform in all the expenses of show, beginning with the civil list of the consuls, the senate, the tribunes, the legislative body, and the legion of honour.

"If I am not very much mistaken, republican France will never be able, without these two reductions, to return to a pacific system, to a state of prosperity, to find within herself sufficient resources to enable her to go on without plunder, without tributes, and without external receipts."

Very unfavourable and certainly overcharged accounts of the internal distresses of the French are given in various places, as (at p. xxiv.) of the roads, which (the writer speaks from personal observation) are good already, and in a state of active amelioration. The cottages of the peasantry have improved in neatness and embellishment within these twelve years. The small farm-houses are more elegant and more numerous. The *guingettes* of the lower classes are cleanlier, and let higher.

Digitized by Google

The wages of vulgar labour in the country have risen about a fourth; and the consequent increase of ease and luxury in the most numerous class is real and apparent. The quantity of waste land has decreased, and a very industrious agriculture prevails. Still the excessive subdivision of estates, the mischievous smallness of farms, which are mostly occupied by the owner, and the deficiency of stock and capital, render French agriculture less productive than our own. A conscription of 120,000 men, requires but two men and a fraction out of each commune, which is a consolidation of three or four parishes, so that the requisition is little felt, and substitutes have seldom cost more than one-third of what is paid here to supply the army of reserve.

The historical digressions in this work of Sir Francis D'Ivernois, are of more value than that part of the work which respects the finances of France: none better deserves the attention of Europe, than the appendix which respects the justly odious conduct of the French in Switzerland.

"Bonaparte has omitted nothing in his power, to obliterate the Swiss from the list of independant states; he has reduced the great bulk of that people to utter desperation, and to ensure their peaceable submission, he finds himself above having recourse to any other measures than those of restoring their arms, and withdrawing his army, at the very moment in which he takes from them every means of maintaining their own tranquillity! Thus it is, that he thinks it necessary to bolster up the odious laws which he has forced on them, by no other support than that of his name, and of the heterogeneous amalgama imposed upon them, an amalgama equally detested by both parties. After this, lest any observer should have retained a doubt of the real object of the first consul, he himself most fully explained it. When he dismissed the Swiss deputies, he disclosed the secret of his system toward their country, and proclaimed it to the world through the newspapers of Paris; 'If,' said he, 'you shall again fall into a state of anarchy, I must reduce you to order by force, and by the annihilation of your independence*.'

"Who is so blind as not to see in this declaration, that by thus having in some cantons permitted the predomination of the friends of order, and in others forcibly established the triumph of the jacobins, he is sowing the seeds of new commotions? Agitated as the inhabitants of Switzerland have been, his contrivance of leaving them to themselves may not improbably produce some internal measures of opposition, which the dictator will brand with the stigma of rebellion. Then will he represent to the world, that finding his benevolent intentions frustrated by the prevalence of internal factions, no remedy is left but the immediate incorporation with France, of those cantons which prove themselves incapable of the liberty which he had provided for them, and unfit for the absolute independence of which he had thought them worthy. 'Can I,' will he say, 'suffer such a source of inquietude to continue? must not this anarchy produce the most dangerous consequences? have I not exhausted the utmost efforts of kindness? shall I be held excused, if I leave to themselves people who thus tear themselves to pieces?" &c.—Nothing can be more easy than to anticipate the new manifesto which is preparing for them, and which in all likelihood will, in the first instance, be addressed to his *protégés* in the *pays de Vaud*.

"In this last scene of the political drama which their protector is exhibiting, he will not fail to remind them, that he has always held the same language, and truly in this instance he will have a right to say so: his last declaration by word of mouth, that he would reduce them to order by the annihilation of their independence, is probably more sincere than the assurance which he sent to them in June 1802; when on withdrawing his troops, he solemnly asserted his repugnance to take part in the internal affairs of other nations.

"After he had satisfactorily proved to the Swiss the reality of this repugnance, by manufacturing for them nineteen constitutions and committing several of them to the charge of the very men whom he had before reproached with the overthrow of the legitimate government of M. Reding, he had only to decide on the fate of that individual, and the other prisoners at Arbourg. To have prolonged their confinement, would have been absurd, as its only object was that the security of their treatment† might induce them to assist at the consulta at Paris, where M. Reding's presence would indeed have completed the triumph of the mediator. At the first mention of such a proposal, he would replied, that having already unsolicitedly presented his sentiments to the first consul, he had no farther communication to make him. Afterwards, when they had the assurance to repeat their attempt, he by his silence demonstrated to his jailors, that he never retracts his resolutions.

"I know not whether my readers will agree with me, but in my estimation, the illustrious Aloys Reding voluntarily submitting to wear chains himself, rather than assist in forging those of his country, and repel-

* "See *Journal des Débats*, March 18th.

† "They were all like malefactors, locked up together in one room.

Digitized by Google

this last insult without indulging in any recrimination, is an object worthy if possible of higher admiration in the prison of Arbourg, than on the plains of Mortgarten.—This is indeed the *homo fortiter miser*, whom Seneca describes as the noblest spectacle of the creation. *Ecce spectaculum dignum, ad quod respiciat intentus operi suo deus Ecce par deo dignum, vir fortis cum malâ fortunâ compositus utique si et provocavit.—Ita affecti sumus ut nihil æque magnam apud nos admirationem occupet quam homo fortiter miser.*"

To the general information, to the industry, and the sagacity of Sir Francis D'Ivernois high praise is due. His vindictive aversion to the French oppressors of his country, does honour to his republican spirit. His animosity against Bonaparte is shared by every enemy to usurpation or tyranny. The first promise which the consul is accused of having broken is *respect for* property; the second is *respect for the constitution*; the third, *peace, and moderation to the vanquished*; the fourth, *not to interfere in the domestic concerns of other countries*; the fifth, *to restore public credit*. Under each head facts are detailed, which convincingly show a repeated departure from these professions; yet there is a something in the plan of criticism, not altogether dexterous and consistent. Some of the complaints tend only to render Bonaparte odious *out* of France: these should have been separated into some address to the Swiss. Others only tend to render him odious *in* France: these should have been separated into some address to the French; and might have been powerfully strengthened by a person duly acquainted with the state of opinion in Paris. In some places Steigner, an aristocratic chieftain of the Swiss, is unaccountably applauded: he is supposed to have stimulated those measures of the Senate of Bern, which, by destroying the hope of domestic redress, founded a French party in Switzerland. Elsewhere Reding, the purer chieftain of a purer cause, is applauded with like zeal, and with less reserve. The art of hostility does not consist in indiscriminate, in perpetual, or in contradictory opposition; but in selecting the most uniformly thwarted interest for the especial object of protection, and in dropping all grounds of discussion which interfere with its sympathies. Bonaparte is a hero of the anti-jacobins, not of their adversaries; it is in the name of outraged liberty that he should be devoted to the abhorrence of the nations he enslaves. The restorer of popery and monarchy is sure of the perennial praise of the priest and of the courtier.

ART. XXIV. *The Importance of Malta considered. By* G. ORR, *Esq.* 8vo.]

WHEN Richard Lion-heart coveted the Holy Land, he began by taking possession of the island of Cyprus. Perhaps the shipping then in use could be well accommodated there, but not modern men of war.

Rhodes was long a seat of maritime power: is its best port become a mere haven for sloops and feluccas?

Is Lampedusa, though so dear to the muse, worthless to the armed Neptune? Is it as a maritime arsenal useless and contemptible?

One must presume, at least, that a nation, whose charts are the best in Europe, has been unable any where to select a naval station in the Mediterranean; since she has thought fit to set an extravagant a value on Malta, as to risk her infinitesimal fraction of a right if it worth a war.

Mr. Orr endeavours to demonstrate its value. He justly calls it the watch-tower of the Mediterranean, and recounts the advantages it afforded during the Egyptian campaign. Very true. But will no other island answer all these purposes nearly as well?

Mr. Orr takes it for granted that it is always an object to us (p. 22) to interrupt the proceedings of the French; whereas, it ought to be an object to us only to interrupt those proceedings of the French, which tend to interfere with our own national interests. By interrupting last war their aggrandizement *southward*, we have compelled them to extend themselves in the *north*, and are now wholly unable to eradicate them from Holland, from Westphalia, from Denmark. Never was such want of statesmanship displayed as in the selection of enterprizes during the anti-jacobin war.

In the progressive partition of the world, Great Britain, from geographical causes, cannot aggrandize herself. Her interest, therefore, is to promote the institution of new independent powers, among whom she may preserve her old

Digitized by Google

relative rank; and not the perpetual addition of territory to those already in being, who thereby become relatively, as well as positively, greater.

ART. XXV. *The Importance of Malta considered, in the Years* 1796 *and* 1798: *Remarks, which occurred during a Journey from England to India, in the Year* 17 *By* MARK WOOD, *Esq. M. P. late Chief Engineer, Bengal.* 4to. pp. 78.

IN the year 1796, Mr. Wood addressed a letter to Messrs. Pitt and Dundas, and in the year 1798 he addressed two letters to Mr. Dundas alone, exhibiting in the most clear and satisfactory manner the high importance of Malta to Great Britain, as a depôt and guardian of our commerce in the Mediterranean and Ionian seas; and as affording the most effectual, if not the only, means of protecting our eastern empire from the insatiable ambition of the French republic. Malta is truly represented as "that station which would give us completely the command of the Levant, since not one ship from thence could sail to or from any port in Europe, unless by our permission or under convoy of a superior fleet; the coasts of Spain, France, Italy, and Africa must be subject to our control, and, whilst at war with this country, be kept under necessary subjection. From Africa and Sicily we could have ample supplies for our fleets and garrisons; and by the Dardanelles, from the Euxine and Caspian seas, inexhaustible supplies of various naval stores, which, if not secured to ourselves, must inevitably find their way to the arsenals of France."

These short letters do the greatest credit to the sagacity and political foresight of Mr. Wood: Bonaparte's expedition to Egypt is distinctly foretold, and even the measures which he pursued when in possession of the country, are anticipated. But it was not the custom of our last ministers to profit by the superior knowledge of private individuals, or act upon advice—till it was too late to be of service.

In the year 1779, Mr. Wood received a note about mid-day, from Mr. Wilkes, clerk to the secret committee of the court of East India directors, desiring to see him on particular business: he attended, and, under injunctions of secrecy, the desire of the committee was communicated, that he would ch himself with their dispatches, as wel those of the secretary of state, and p ceed with them overland to India *evening*. Mr. Wood, accordingly, off on his journey, which he pur with the utmost expedition, accor to his instructions, by way of Holl and Germany to Venice, and thence Alexandria, Grand Cairo, and Suez Fort St. George. If the contents his dispatches had not been represe as of the highest and most pressing i portance to the British nation, the of the instructions, that every thing security was to be sacrificed to expedi would have justified the inference. it was the mountain in labour!

"From the tenor of our instructions well as conversation of Mr. Wilkes, person would have believed the dispatch have been of infinite importance; and as French had been expelled from all their tlements in India, and Sir Edward Hu with a large fleet of men of war, accom nied by troops in transports, had sailed the East only a few days before, I natu concluded that his destination was ag Mauritius, and that I carried orders troops and stores to be immediately from India to co-operate in this expedi A large army of near 30,000 men was at time in and about the Carnatic, totally employed, and as many in Bengal. On arrival at Madras, I was not a little sur to find that, excepting honours for Sir mas Rumbold and Sir Hector Munro, dispatch merely contained orders for dem ing the fortifications of Poudicherry. reached Madras many months before Edward got as far as the Cape, the fac with which such a plan could have executed is obvious, and Sir Edward mi have performed this service and reached In as soon as he did."

The remarks in this rapid journal m be serviceable to those who are employ in a similar expedition.

Digitized by Google

ART. XXVI. *The Possession of Louisiana by the French considered, as it affects the Interests of those Nations more immediately concerned: viz. Great Britain, America, Spain, and Portugal. By* G. ORR, *Esq.* 8vo. pp. 45.

THE best thing for Louisiana would have been to belong to Great Britain, whose superfluous capital and population would more rapidly have settled the country than that of the Americans.

The next best thing for Louisiana is, to belong to the United States, whose equitable legislation and pacific habits render them the most excellent sovereigns on the face of the earth.

During the anti-jacobin administration the first event might have taken place without much difficulty: during that of Mr. Addington, the second has taken place.

It is folly to repine at the unalterable; but it is not folly to endeavour to obtain ministers, who will seize those opportunities of aggrandizing their country, which events present once, but not again.

ART. XXVII. *An Inquiry into the Colonial Policy of the European Powers. By* HENRY BROUGHAM, *Jun. Esq. F.R.S.* 8vo. 2 vols. pp. about 600 in each vol.

THE antiquities and theory of colonial policy have already engaged many celebrated pens. M. de Bougainville composed a valuable work *Sur les Devoirs reciproques des Metropoles et Colonies Greques.* M. de Saint Croix, with greater minuteness, investigates the colonial systems of the ancients in his book *De l'Etat et du Sort des Colonies des anciens Peuples.* Heeren, among the Germans, has treated the subject with exhaustive erudition, and * Barron, among ourselves, with scanty condensation. Concerning the modern state and government of the European settlements, works abound in every language: in none more than in our own.

It does not appear to have been the object of Mr. Brougham to excel or supersede his predecessors in antiquarian research, or in statistical information; but rather in speculative commentary. His inquiry announces great talents and great acquirements; but it has the fault (if fault it be) of being drawn up in too professor-like a manner. The preliminary information is far-fetched and comprehensive; but it includes notorious and trivial intelligence. The subdivisions of the subject are methodical and numerous; but they allot places, like a marine packing-chest, to ordinary utensils. The walk is through a suite of apartments admirably distributed and sufficiently furnished: but room succeeds room with needless repetition, before one reaches the apartments, in which acquaintance can be formed with the personal and peculiar mind of the author. As a book for vernacular instruction it is copious and well-devised: as a manual for the statesman it wants condensation: it aims rather at exhausting than at advancing a particular branch of political theory; and resembles a course of lectures more than a fit of research. In stock of fact it does not abound: but in the speculations of hypothetical and inferential reasoning much time is passed. Yet the data of experience, to which appeal is made, are so well selected as to imply an extensive knowledge of historical event, a great command of fact: while the metaphysical generalizations display such a fibrous branchiness of argument, as leave no doubt of the luxuriance of the writer's logical powers.

The first book treats of the relations that subsist between a state and its colonies. The following commentary on the colonial policy of the Carthaginians is further corroborated in a learned note.

"It is remarkable how exactly the history of the Carthaginian monopoly resembles that of the European nations who have colonized America. At first, the distant settlement could admit of no immediate restraints; but demanded all the encouragement and protection of the parent state; and the gains of its commerce were neither sufficiently alluring to the Carthaginian merchant from their own magnitude, nor necessary to him from the difficulty of finding employment for his capital in other directions. At this period, the colony was left to itself, and was allowed to manage its own affairs in its own way, under the superintendance and care of Carthage, which protected it from foreign invasion, but neglected its commerce. In this favourable predica-

* History of the Colonization of the Free States of Antiquity.

Digitized by Google

ment, it soon grew into importance: some of the Carthaginian merchants most probably found their way thither, or promoted the colonial speculations by loans; at any rate, by furnishing a ready demand for the rude produce.

"In this stage of its progress, then, we find the colony trade left free: for, the first of the two treaties, prohibiting all the Roman ships of war to approach within a certain distance of the coast, allows the trading vessels free access to all the harbours, both of the continent and the colonies. This intercourse is even encouraged with the port of Carthage, by a clause, freeing the vessels entering, from almost all impost duties. The treaty includes the Roman and Carthaginian allies; by which were probably meant their colonies, as well as the friendly powers: and the clause which expressly includes the colony of Sicily, gives the Romans all the privileges in that island, which the Carthaginians themselves enjoyed. At this period, it is probable that the commerce of Rome excited no jealousy, and the wealth of the colonies little avarice; although a dread of the military prowess of the former, seems to have given rise to the negotiation.

"Some time afterwards, another treaty, conceived in a different spirit, and formed exactly upon the principles of the mercantile system, was concluded between those celebrated rival powers. The restrictions upon the navigation of the Roman ships of war, are here extended and enforced: the freedom of entry into the port of Carthage is continued, and into the ports of Sicily also, the Romans granting to the Carthaginians like privileges at Rome. But the Romans are debarred from plundering, trading, or settling (a singular conjunction) upon the coast of Africa Propria (which was peopled by Carthaginian colonies, and furnished large supplies of provisions and money to the city). The same restriction is extended to Sardinia; and trading vessels are only permitted to enter the harbours of that colony, for the space of five days, to refit, if driven thither by stress of weather. A singular clause is inserted, to which close analogies may be traced in the modern questions of neutral rights and contraband of war:—if any Roman troops shall receive stores from a Carthaginian port, or a port in the provincial territories of the state, they are bound not to turn them against either the republic or her allies.

"The substance of this very singular document will suggest various reflections to my readers. I shall only observe, that we findin it the principles of the modern colonial system clearly unfolding themselves; and that we have every reason to regret the scantiness of our knowledge of the Carthaginian story, which, in so far as relates to the commerce of that people, breaks off here, and leaves us no trace of the farther restrictions most probably imposed by succeeding statesmen upon the growing trade of the colonies."

The Carthaginians, among the ancients, and the English, among the moderns, have had much experience in colonizations: yet neither of these nations appear to have observed, that reputation of dominion is useful to either party; and that if colonies were founded *independent*, or autonomous, they could preserve a neutrality highly profitable during the wars of the mother country, whose commerce and territory would thus be less vulnerable. This dependence might indeed require occasionally an armed support, which would then become the object of a specific subsidiary treaty; and the colonists would thus tax themselves for their own protection. By retaining the monopoly of the colonial trade, we diminish our own returns, and we retard the commercial progress of the colonies; by retaining the sovereignty we bring on ourselves the whole expence of defence; and if we attempt taxation, we incur, as the Carthaginians often did, an ungrateful war of the colonists for autonomy.

In the second section much is said on the theory of the physiocratic sect. This doctrine now belongs to the lean lumber of the schools. From Quesnay its first founder, to Dupont de Nemours its last commentator, it was always a jargon, which escaped refutation by eluding intelligibility. Turgot was more than an *economiste*. Mirabeau the elder and Mercier de la Riviere, are the last obscure apologists of the theory. The use of puffing it into reputation was merely seditious. It was an opinion well adapted to become an engine of revolution in France. Taxation on all objects of popular consumption was condemned by these theorists: taxation on a mass of proprietors, too strong to be taxed without their own consent, was recommended by these theorists: the theory therefore tended to please the croud, and to embody the landed interest. But now that it has accomplished its purpose, of bringing all the net property under the operation of the *contribution foncière*, it is laid aside by the Parisian sophists with a triumphal sneer, and the doctrine of indirect taxation is again recommended to popular credulity, by the patronage of government. Nature and labour, matter and form, are the sources of all production and

wealth. Society is divided into those who possess the matter, and those who bestow the form; into proprietors and labourers. Taxes on rent fall on matter: they diminish the capital value of the lands, houses, money, machines, or ships assessed. Taxes on consumeables fall on form: they diminish the exchangeable value of the labour employed in bestowing it, by endearing the objects of its purchase. It would be more reasonable always to tax the proprietor than the labourer, the idle than the industrious citizen; but the thing is impossible. Whenever a season of scarcity comes, he would raise the rent of his lands, houses, money, machines, or ships, and thus assess much of his tax on the labourer in the price of matter. And if the labourer alone were taxed, in his wine, his beer, his soap, his candle, his tea, his sugar, his tobacco, his glass, his leather, &c. he again would, in seasons of demand, raise the price of his toil, and thus assess much of his tax on the proprietor in the price of form. So that natural causes, not positive laws, regulate the proportion of burden between proprietors and labourers.

The third section is, for the contained information, the most valuable: it treats well of Dutch, particularly well of Spanish, colonial policy.

After very extensive, elaborate, and discerning commentaries on the state of the slave-system in the West Indies, Mr. Brougham thus states the result of his multifarious reflections.

"The remarks which have been made on the character and habits of the negroes, both in the last section, and in the former part of this inquiry, seem to suggest certain conclusions of a very positive and definite nature with respect to the internal structure of the slave colonies.

"It may be observed, in the first place, that all attempts speedily to change the state of society in those settlements by legislative enactments, are if possible still more ridiculous, and, if attended with any material consequences, still more dangerous than similar endeavours made suddenly to new-model communities of the ordinary texture.

"In the second place, we may remark, that however deficient in civilization, the negroes are evidently capable of acquiring the wants and desires which are the seeds of industry; that they are endowed with powers, not only of body but of mind, sufficient to render their improvement and high enjoyment a matter of absolute certainty under a proper system of management; and that there is nothing in their nature peculiar or distinguishing, which renders them a separate class, or places them beyond the influence of the passions and principles common to all the rest of mankind in certain stages of society. Through the whole of this inquiry, I have argued every question relating to the negroes, upon the same general grounds which are used to investigate the history, or determine the probable fates, of other rude nations. All the facts with which we are acquainted, concur to justify a mode of reasoning pointed out by the clearest analogies; and the greatest errors have been committed by politicians, both in speculation and in practical arrangements, from the fundamental and vulgar prejudice of considering the Africans as a peculiar race, to whom general views do not apply. The Africans, in fact, as closely resemble every other rude people in their characters and habits, as in their circumstances. When enslaved their characters and habits are modified by the change of situation; and they become similar to all rude tribes placed in a state of bondage. When wise and liberal regulations mitigate the hardships of their lot, a door is opened for their gradual improvement and progress in civilization, according to that general principle of advancement which seems to be an essential part of the human character, and which always works its effects in the most obvious manner, unless when stifled by absurd or wicked institutions.

"We may remark, in the third place, that the mixed breed of mulattoes in the slave colonies does not render the structure of the society anomalous. On the contrary, these men are subservient to many useful purposes. They are in some respects superior to the negroes; as, in civilization and mental endowments. In bodily strength and adaptation to the circumstances of the tropical climate, they are almost on a level with the pure African breed. They are uniformly attached to the whites, in those colonies where cruel rigour on the part of the government has not alienated them, or their numbers rendered them formidable. They form, together with the free negroes, an intermediate class of men, connecting the other two, however imperfect the link or however sudden the gradation may be, compared with those uniting principles which knit and mould the more curiously arranged fabrics of European and Asiatic society. It is entirely from the influence of manners, and of positive institutions, that the people of colour have uniformly been held in a state of degradation, and even classed with the free negroes. The existence of slavery is the great cause of those manners and institutions. The free mulattoes are tinged with a hue which is almost the characteristic of degradation and bondage in the eyes of West Indians. They are related by blood to the vilest portion of the society; they are of the same race with many who yet obey the cart-

Digitized by Google

whip: while no white man can name a brother in chains. They are, moreover, from the state of morals among the whites (the immediate effect of the slave system), almost universally the fruits of illicit and vulgar amours; they owe nothing to their mother but life; and are, in their turn, sacrificed to the brutal passions of the common tyrants. It is evident that these circumstances which distinguish the mixed race in the colonial society, are altogether the consequences of the slave system, and of the state of manners which that sytem has produced. They present, therefore, no formidable obstacle to the legislator who would, by gradual and prudent measures, reform the corrupted mass, and lay the foundations of a more natural arrangement in the social union, by cautiously but firmly applying the axe to the root of the evil, and undermining the institutions that have grown up in defiance of all justice and policy.

"The same remarks apply with equal precision to the free negroes, who indeed resemble the mulattoes in their moral and political circumstances. And as the state of society among the whites themselves is evidently affected in the most material degree by the same system of institutions which so peculiarly distinguishes the tropical colonies of America, we may with confidence conclude, that the whole fabric of colonial society has naturally arisen out of the circumstances in which legislative enactments originally placed those provinces; that it presents no insuperable difficulties to the wisdom of enlightened reformers; that it may receive complete and radical amelioration from the gradual abolition of the noxious and artificial establishments which have been formed by the measures of former statesmen.

"In the fourth place, there can be no doubt that the climate of the West Indies renders the labour of negroes essential to the cultivation of the soil. It is only in their corporeal qualities that those men are fundamentally distinguished from the rest of the human species. They excel all the other races of mankind in hardiness, agility, and strength of limbs; in the capacity of sustaining the most galling fatigue and pain; in the faculty of enduring labour under every sort of privation, and all kinds of annoyance; above all, in that quality which chiefly distinguishes the human body from the bodies of the lower animals, the power of submitting with ease to every change of season, and adapting the corporeal habitudes and functions, with safety and alacrity, to all the varieties of climate. From the first discovery of America to the present time, the experience of every day in those sultry though splendid regions, has proved, that neither Europeans nor their descendants are capable of enduring fatigue in the burning climates of the southern colonies. To the negro, all climates and soils are the same. He thrives as well in those marshes whence the heat of the vertical sun exhales every noxious vapour, and engenders all the multifarious forms of animal and vegetable poison, as in the happiest vallies of the old world, where the breeze, the shade, and the stream, temper the genial warmth of the most serene and fragrant air. As long, therefore, as the colonies are cultivated, the population must consist of a mixed and variegated tribe. The great object of the legislator is the improvement of that state of society, and that system of manners, which have arisen from the necessary introduction of distinct races of men, differing from each other in civilization, in bodily qualities, and in political privileges. The only plan which can be admitted into our thoughts must proceed upon the principle of new-modelling the present structure of society, and retaining at the same time all the parts of which it is composed."

To this melancholy inference all the preliminary observations of this fluent writer have not disposed us entirely to accede. Legislative enactments may very speedily change the state of society in the wholly cultivated islands. In these, a heavy and fast increasing duty on the further importation of negroes might render the domestic rearing of labourers cheaper than the importation of them. A disposition to use kindly and to emancipate frequently, the *vernacular* slave, would soon succeed to the present insolent contempt for the black cattle of Africa. The use of distilled liquors, such as rum, might be more freely tolerated: drunkenness is the first luxury of the savage, the primary incentive of his voluntary industry, the earliest temptation to exchange labour for recompense by compact. The use of strong drugs, however unwholesome to the refined and delicate constitutions of the civilized, appears, in the rude stages of society, to be necessary to every evolution of the faculties. If the habitual want of rum, of tobacco, or of other similar objects of consumption can once be superinduced generally on the negroes, every thing necessary to fit them for free labourers is accomplished. Their indolence can then be overcome by other motives than pain and fear. Proprietors might favour the acquisition of wants by their slaves, as well by providing shops of supply, as by allowing recompenses, or part wages, to such as work over-hours. The suppression of importation, or the abolition of the slave-trade, in the fully settled islands, would almost immed

nely convert the slaves, or churls, into vassals; and the allowance of certain days, or half days, in which to work for themselves, as is practised in the Spanish islands, would gradually modify the more orderly and industrious part of the vassal population into free labourers. The process, which is to convert slaves into peasants, has in early ages been tried in all the countries of northern Europe. It ought to be already going on in the West Indies; and it ought to be more speedily applied to the islands, which are most advanced in the progress of cultivation, than to the newer settlements.

Mr. Brougham, however, is not unwilling to make some reforms. He considers as the greatest evil of the West Indian system, the oppressive treatment of the negro-slaves. He objects to the large proportion which the imported bears to the whole black population. He finally assents to the abolition of the slave-trade. The merit of his book consists in a certain ubiquity of attention, in viewing on every side and in all its bearings, the consequences of the measure, and in the art of masking the prejudices of the heart in the frigid forms of calculating policy. He seems aware that there are governments which dare not make their subjects happy, unless it be proved that philanthropy is no per centage on profit, and give but the titular appellation of evidence.

The title of these volumes is too comprehensive: not colonial policy in general, but only that of the West Indies has been enquired into: perhaps two more volumes are in preparation, to examine colonial policy in the east. There is something disappointing in the puny concluding result. After visiting the whole archipelago of sugar-islands, and overhalling disquisition after disquisition concerning their circumstances, what do we learn?—*that it would be rash to abolish the slave-trade.*

A very important branch of colonial policy, which at this time it was peculiarly important to discuss, is the theory of colonial taxation. To us it appears very reasonable that, whenever lands are granted to settlers in ceded or conquered territories, the government should reserve a quit-rent—a certain annual rente from the land, to be valued anew every fourteen years, and to increase with the progress of private rental. Some retribution for the original advance of capital, and for the continual charge of protection, is justly due; and this ought to be commensurate with the improvement of value deriving from such successive advances and such successive protections. A land-tax, then, fluctuating with the rent, is the natural recompense, or rather indemnity, of the metropolitan country.

How can this land-tax be introduced? The proprietors will object. They can arm their vassals; and with the help of the climate tire out our troops. They can transfer their allegiance to the president of the United States, and benefit their commerce by breaking loose from the restraints of monopoly. Here appears the want of a middle order of settled tradesmen in the islands. Such a class would long ago have grown up, but for the commercial monopoly. American and other settlers would have had their shops, their banks, their warehouses, their distilleries, their refineries, in every island. These clad classes of the people would have demanded far more British produce, than the naked slaves of the feudal proprietors. These tradesmen would have employed their acquisitions in the purchase of lands, which would thus have risen in value, and have been subdivided into more lots. A large body of small proprietors is more easily subjected to a land-tax, than a small body of large proprietors: division is surer and individual power feebler. Break up then the commercial monopoly.

It is probable that if the money levied were obviously to be expended within the island, and were to increase circulation without withdrawing property, many persons would, with little reluctance, incur the levy. If it came in the form of a commutation, of a land-tax in lieu of certain burdens on the commerce about to be withdrawn, this would further diminish the hostility. And if it were made the pledge of the security of West Indian property itself—the reluctance might possibly change into approbation. Minors, and other West Indians, widows, and the like, have money in the English funds. What if the dividends on such properties were made payable at certain government-banks in some one, or in all the islands: the new land-tax being payable to, and the dividends on vested capital payable from, these banks. For the balance only the

bank and government might account. The fluctuation of English stock would then never affect the people of the islands, and the facility of making a stable provision of income would increase the spirit of frugality there. The frugal are a stationary population always. The different forms and orders of English society would grow up: and the influence of the observation of civilized gentlemen, not engaged in the cultivation of the soil, would abolish the present effect of reciprocal countenance in perpetuating the ill-usage of the negroes. All things would mend.

Begin by abolishing the commercial restrictions, which is a justice we owe; and we shall receive justice in our turn, by a voluntary submission of the West Indians to a land-tax.

ART. XXVIII. *Remarks on the late War in Saint Domingo. By* COLONEL CHALMERS, *late Inspector-General of Colonial Troops in Saint Domingo.* 8vo. pp. 115.

THE whole attempt on Saint Domingo was impolitic; to rescue it from the French was to close a constant drain of their troops and their treasures; and to interrupt an interesting experiment on negro emancipation, as ruinous to the enemy, as it was instructive to ourselves.

"From the ill-fated hour of our occupying Port au Prince, our affairs began to decline, in proportion, as it were, to the vast accumulation of expence, and all was languor, disease, or peculation. Tiberoon and Leogane, Jean Rabel, La Petite Riviere, and L'Artibonite, were re-occupied by the republicans; and St. Mark was nearly lost by the treachery of the men of colour, to whom the gallant Captain Brisbane unguardedly had given his confidence, though extremely offensive to the loyalists of that quarter, who, aided by forty or fifty British convalescents, bravely retook the place from Toussaint; an additional proof, that the offensive operations of this boasted chief were impotent; and his shameful repulse about this time before La Verrete, one of the central posts of the cordon of L'Arcahaye, is no mean confirmation of this assertion.

"Posterity will scarcely believe, that considerably more than two millions sterling were annually expended in Saint Domingo after the possession of Port au Prince; and will lament the infatuation of the times, when informed that the Mole and the entire Peninsula of Tiberoon might have been tranquilly secured for one third of that sum.

"About seven thousand troops sailed in November, 1795, from Cork; and, experiencing those repeatedly terrible gales so destructive to Admiral Christian's convoy, they were obliged to return to that place; from which, in February, 1796, they again sailed, and arrived at the Mole in May, under the command of Brigadier Howe. This place, indeed, was very ill-adapted to restore troops after such a disastrous passage; and a dreadful mortality immediately ensued*.

"If Mr. Edwards had possessed candour, or information, he would have acknowledged, that those and almost all the troops sent to Saint Domingo were indifferently composed; arrived unseasonably; perished almost immediately; and on service were directed with little ability: he would have acknowledged these, and disregard to œconomy, as the causes of the failure in Saint Domingo, and not the republican force, which was ever contemptible; nor the lukewarm attachment of the royalist planters, for those maintained their loyalty even after their hopes were almost destroyed by our inconsistency.

"General Williamson was succeeded in command by Major General Forbes, a brave and worthy officer, enthusiastically disposed by every means in his power to promote his Majesty's service. He strengthened the cordon from the Cul de Sac to Saint Mark, and established the frontier post of Miraballais and Banica, to preserve the communication with Spanish Saint Domingo, necessary for procuring cattle. He took eight or nine hundred Spanish inhabitants into British pay, and those, with a body of Colonials and a few other troops, garrisoned Banica, commanded by an officer of merit, Lieutenant Colonel Sir William Cockburn. This place promised important future advantages by its easy access to the rich plains and town of Cape François, which is open on the land side, and commanded by high mountains, and most undoubtedly at the mercy of the garrison of Banica, if reinforced by one thousand steady British infantry. But, in justice to General Forbes, it must be admitted, that from the infelicity of the times, and the causes already suggested, the troops at his disposal were not such as those commanded by General Wolfe."

Future historians of the anti-jacobin war, will derive, from this pamphlet, many similar corrections of the prevailing ideas concerning this unfortunate campaign, which ingloriously sacrificed to pestilence a force that might have occupied Louisiana, and liberated Mexico.

* As if to seal the destruction of the said troops, they were, it seems, detained some weeks on board the transports in the harbour of the Mole, previous to their being disembarked.

Digitized by Google

ART. XXIX. *A Letter from Barbadoes on Manumission*, 8vo.

THE expediency of provisions for liberation from slavery, where slavery exists, has been found in all ages. Manumission operates as an incentive to good deeds: it is a mean by which fidelity may be recompensed, service remunerated, industry indemnified, and affection acknowledged. The Hebrews, the Greeks, the Romans, had accordingly their several forms of redemption; the English have connived at the introduction of a form of manumission, by declaration to that effect before the Lord Mayor of London.

This writer (page 16) disputes the validity of such London manumissions; and maintains, that in the West Indies some dispensers of justice would attend to them, but that others would not.

The uncertainty of the law is itself a sufficient grievance, to justify, or rather to call for parliamentary interference. It is obviously desirable, that some form of manumission should be devised, common both to the islands and to the mother country, and capable of being legally executed in the presence or absence of the parties.

We recommend to fix a specific and a narrow price, at which every negro should have a right to demand and exact his freedom. The receipt for that amount, from his master, would then at all times be a proper proof of manumission.

The Romans conducted a slave to the temple of the goddess Feronia, and there put him on a worsted cap. This was their form of manumission, and hence the cap of liberty. It is more in the spirit of our legislation, to be less emblematic, and more calculating. Suppose there be a stamp duty on manumission, and the cap of liberty engraven on the die.

ART. XXX. *Substance of the Speech of the Honourable* C. J. Fox, *in the House of Commons, May 24*, 1803. 8vo. pp. 120.

COULD the manner of Demosthenes be copied, says Hume, its success would be infallible over a modern assembly. It is rapid harmony, exactly adjusted to the sense; it is vehement reasoning, without any appearance of art; it is disdain, anger, boldness, freedom, involved in a continual stream of argument. Of all human productions, the orations of Demosthenes present to us the models which approach the nearest to perfection.

Two thousand years have elapsed since these speeches were pronounced at Athens, and the whole surface of the earth has as yet produced but one rival to Demosthenes. How fortunate the country which possesses, how blind the country, which possesses in vain so rare a evolution of human intellect. Mr. Fox is not inferior to his Greek model in the highest departments of art, in expressive argument, or in vehement, pathetic, soul-enkindling expression; he displays more humour, when he condescends to the ridiculous, and, at all times, a greater command of critical allusion. Since the admirable speech on the Russian armament, Mr. Fox has not perhaps executed a superior piece of oratory to the present, for comprehension of view, for sagacity of inference, for patriotism of advice, and for the adaptation of its temper to its aim. This statesman-philosopher, like the Olympian Jove, seems to look down, from his unclouded dwelling, on the mad strife of men with heartfelt pity; his benevolent wisdom estimates already the mischievous result with prospective equity, and commissions Pallas to seize the warriors by the hair:—"hearken in time, ye kings, or Nemesis, the goddess of retribution, will arrive to punish your heedlessness."

What has in fact irritated this country most of any thing against Bonaparte, is the arrogance, the contemptuous tone toward us, ascribed to him. This charge is happily got rid of.

"The charges of arrogance, and of a superiority assumed by the First Consul in his language towards this country, are further urged and supported on the testimony of his conversations with Lord Whitworth, to which allusions had been so frequently made: those conversations are said to have been not only offensive in their tone, but in their substance. Mr. Fox could see no foundation for this species of charge in the long conversation with Lord Whitworth, on which so much stress had been laid, and some expressions of which had been so triumphantly quoted.—What was the report of those expressions, as given by Lord Whitworth himself? Does the First Consul say haughtily to him, 'I will come and crush you—*Je vous écraserai?*' Just the reverse. He tells us plainly and di-

rectly indeed, that he shall attempt to invade us; but he says also, that he knows the chances are one hundred to one against his success; that it is one hundred to one that he and the greatest part of the expedition would go to the bottom of the sea. He talked much, and with great earnestness, on this subject, but never once affected to diminish the danger. Yet this declaration of the First Consul, of the almost utter hopelessness of any enterprize he might attempt against us, is quoted as a proof of his arrogance and presumption! 'Whatever else there may be in it,' said Mr. Fox, 'there certainly is in this conversation no tone of superiority; on the contrary, it is an acknowledgment of superiority on our side. To call it arrogant or presumptuous, or to say that it is offensive in its tone, or in its substance, appears to me a very whimsical imputation. It reminds me of the most extravagant passage that is, I believe, to be found in a great, and, with me, most favourite poet, and who, notwithstanding the frequent instances of the same sort which occur in his works, is one of the finest in our language, I mean Dryden, who, in the most extravagant perhaps of his pieces, and into the mouth of Almanzor, puts a sentiment which has always appeared to me to outsoar every flight allowable to the wildest fictions of the imagination. In the conquest of Grenada, his hero, who is burlesqued in the Rehearsal, under the character of Drawcansir, says, in anger to his rival:

'Thou shalt not wish her thine; thou shalt
'not dare
'To be so impudent as to despair!'

"Now I confess, notwithstanding what I may have thought of the extravagance of my favourite poet, that I had over-rated it. I had thought that no case could happen to give common sense to those expressions, and make them applicable to real life. I thought them the daring efforts of a vivid genius, aiming at the summit of poetical hyperbole; but now I find that Dryden gave only a tame prosaic account of a matter of fact, a few years before it happened! He says, 'You shall not wish, you shall not dare, to be so impudent as to despair!' Bonaparte says, he despairs of success in his invasion of England, and for his pride and impudence in despairing, as well as for his presumption in telling them so, ministers think no punishment too great. Now I profess myself to be one of those who agree in this respect with the First Consul, and who think that in his despair there is infinitely more good sense than arrogance. I think it is full one hundred to one that he and the greater part of his expedition would go to the bottom of the sea, if he should attempt a descent on our coast. I certainly think this, and I am very glad to find that Bonaparte is of the same opinion."

It is not often, that a proposition of such extent and consequence as Mr. Fox on this occasion opened to the house, brought forward under circumstances so unpropitious to parliamentary union, has been distinguished by so universal a concurrence of public sentiment. To himself personally the result of that day must be presumed to have been highly gratifying. Added to the satisfaction of success, he could not be insensible to the general voice of parliament and of his country, nor to the favourable opinion of a great man, not very ready on other occasions to assist his exertions, or to do justice to his public conduct.

That day also will form, should Europe providentially escape from its present danger, a very interesting epoch in its annals. If a balance to the continental power of France is ever to be recovered, it must be recovered through the operation of the principles contained in Mr. Fox's proposal, and through that only. If the smaller states of Europe are to enjoy any portion of independence, they must look for it in the system sketched out by his speech, and in that system only.

ART. XXXI. *Substance of the Speech of the Right Honourable* HENRY ADDINGTON, *on Friday, December* 10, 1802. 8vo. pp. 35.

MR. Addington is the avowed copy of Mr. Pitt: the likeness is real, but it is not a flattering one; both are more adapted for the department of finance than of statesmanship; and harangue better with the figures of the arithmetician, than of the rhetorician.

During war, it is expedient for the Chancellor of the Exchequer to make his statements of actual revenue at the highest, to infer his average produce of the year from those months which are most productive, and to wind up his accounts at the period when the tide of revenue is at flood. This favours an opinion of the stability of funded property and of the national power to discharge the interest of further loans. It consequently induces men to place money in the stocks; and, by keeping up the price, enables the state to borrow so much the cheaper.

But, during peace, when the state is in a train of paying, not of borrowing,

Digitized by Google

becomes expedient for a Chancellor of the Exchequer to make his statements of actual revenue at the lowest, to deduce his average produce of the year from the unprofitable months or quarters, and to bring out his documents when the tide of revenue is at ebb. This favours alarm among the stock-holders, depreciates funded property; and by enabling the commissioners to make their purchases in the different stocks at the lowest possible rate, accelerates the extinction of the national debt.

This speech was made during peace; and Mr. Addington has not shown himself aware of the propriety of this inversion of former policy. He follows a precedent when he should set an example; he hangs out the old show-board, and gilds the figures he should blacken.

A passage, which may retain some interest, we shall select.

"It was not possible till the conclusion of the year (when all these accounts were made up) that they could be laid regularly before the house, or stated with exactness. Great pains had however been taken to procure the most accurate and complete information which the period of the year admitted, and he thought himself justified, by what had been obtained, in pronouncing the commerce of the country to be in a state of unrivalled and unexampled prosperity. It appeared that the real value of the principal articles of British produce and manufactures exported during the year ending 10th of October, 1802, was 27,900,000l. while in the preceding year it was something less than 24,500,000l. Supposing these articles to bear the same proportion to the whole of our exports which they had done in former years, the total value of British manufactures exported in the year 1802, would not fall short of 50,000,000l. sterling, being an increase of 8,000,000l. above the year preceding; and compared with any former year, the increase would be still more extraordinary.

"The accounts of shipping were more imperfect than those of trade, as no quarterly account was made up, except in the port of London; but so far as the fact could be ascertained, it was no less satisfactory, especially with regard to the important circumstance of the increase of British shipping and seamen.

"In the year ending the 10th of October 1801, 1762 British ships, measuring 418,631 tons, and manned with 23,096 men, had entered that port, and 1331 ships, measuring 350,634 tons, and carrying 24,070 men, had cleared outwards. In the year 1802, the British ships which entered inwards were 2459, the tonnage 574,700, the men 33,743. The British ships which cleared outwards were 1933, the tonnage 419,067, the men 28,112. The diminution of foreign shipping was not less remarkable than the increase of British. In 1801, the number of foreign ships which entered inwards was 3385, their tonnage 452,677, their men 20,388. The foreign ships which cleared outwards were 3381, their tonnage 445,651, the men 23,302. In the year 1802, the number of foreign ships entering inwards was reduced to 1549, their tonnage 214,117, the men 10,555. The foreign ships which cleared outwards were 1808, their tonnage 262,006, the men 14,826. These details he feared might be tedious, but he was persuaded the committee would excuse him for having entered with minuteness into the proofs of the increase of our commerce and maritime strength, which were the great sources of our prosperity and of our power."

ART. XXXII. *The Speech of the Earl of* MOIRA, *delivered in the House of Peers on Wednesday the 9th of March*, 1803, *on the present Situation of Public Affairs.* 8vo. pp. 14.

THIS animated and lofty eloquence of the Earl of Moira, called forth by the critical situation of public affairs on the eve of the present war, was admirably calculated to rouse the energies of Britons; he conceals not the dangers of the conflict, but he prepares us to encounter them like men, who fight 'for their property, for their hearths, for every thing that is dear to sons, to fathers, and to husbands: for their honour, their liberties, and all the cordial relations of social life.' The noble earl prepares us for an attempt on our country: the extent of coast possessed by our enemy renders an invasion not impracticable; but though he anticipates the desperate enterprise, he estimates the character of Englishmen too highly, to hold forth the possible subjugation of the country, as an object of the remotest apprehension.

We are truly glad to see such speeches as this committed to the press: they do honour to the orator, they keep alive the noble ardour of the people, *and they are not read with indifference on the continent.*

Digitized by Google

ART. XXXIII. *The Substance of a Speech intended to have been spoken in the House of Lords, Nov. 22, 1803. By* R. WATSON, *Lord Bishop of Llandaff.* 8vo. pp. 46.

THE short administration of the marquis of Lansdowne was distinguished by a wise selection of the objects of promotion: but a preference of candidates for advancement, recommended only by their merit, to those supported *by parliamentary connexion*, is but too sure to combine against a minister the constituted authorities. The elevation of the bishop of Llandaff was among the benefits conferred on Great Britain, by that short, but truly patriotic administration.

The speech before us contains three distinct propositions, not equally within the province of this venerable prelate. First occurs a proposal for a rotatory militia, for training all the young men of the country, who have passed their seventeenth year, to the use of arms during six successive years. This is not an impracticable, nor an absurd plan: the military exercises promote health, bestow grace, afford amusement, and liberalize the manners. They tend to break down the barriers of rank and the arrogance of inequality, to open the gates of advancement to spirit, and to unite a whole nation in a brotherhood of feeling and affection. But they also tend to introduce an earlier libertinism: and thus to increase the proportion of prostitution, of bastardy, and of the undomesticated, uneducated, and improvident poor. Early libertinism in the numerous classes is accompanied with heavier demands on the pocket, than the wages of incipient skill can usually supply: the temptations to pecuniary improbity are thus increased. In a commercial country this is a very alarming consideration: the exchange of honesty for honour among the industrious classes, is utter ruin. Impatience of confinement is probably another consequence of military habits, not very desirable in a mercantile nation; so that there is reason to pause before the usual division of labour is abolished, and the whole mass of our youth is barbarized into a soldiery. The bishop will not disapprove our discussing the morality of his project.

Secondly occurs a proposal for the payment of the national debt; but as the means of accomplishing this magnificent scheme are veiled in obscurity, we can neither admire the ingenuity, nor dispute the practicability of the plan. There is a figure of rhetoric, which the French call *a Gasconade*, and which the English might denominate *a Welshism*, under which it seems most rational to class the eloquent passages relative to this expensive enterprize.

Thirdly occurs a proposal for the co-establishment of popery, and the extension to all dissenters of eligibility to office. Here the bishop is at home; he argues with a candour, a liberality, and an earnestness worthy of his generous cause.

"One circumstance in the situation of Ireland has always appeared to me an hardship, and that hardship still remains undiminished. I have always thought it an hardship, that a great majority of the Irish people should be obliged, at their own expence, to provide religious teachers for themselves and their families. I have the copy of a letter, in my possession, to the duke of Rutland when lord lieutenant of Ireland, in which I pressed upon his consideration, the propriety of making a provision for the catholic bishops and clergy in that country; and I have been assured by men, well acquainted with the temper of the Irish, that had such a measure been then judiciously adopted, a rebellion would have been avoided, and Ireland would long ago have been tranquillized. Whether the time for trying such a mean of tranquillization be now so passed that it cannot be recalled, I know not; but whether it be so passed or not, the measure itself, being founded in justice, is not unworthy the consideration of government. I love, my lords, to have politics, on all occasions, founded on substantial justice, and never on apparent temporary expedience, in violation of justice; and it does appear to me to be just,—That the religious teachers of a large majority of a state should be maintained at the public expence.

"If you would make men good subjects deal gently with their errors; give them time to get rid of their prejudices; and especially take care to leave them no just ground for complaint. Men may for a time be inflamed by passion, or may mistake their pertinacity for a virtue, or may be misled by bad associates; but leave them no just ground of complaint, and their aberrations from rectitude of public conduct will never be lasting. Truth and justice, though occasionally obstructed in their progress, never fail at length to produce their proper effect.

"Justice, I think, may be done to the catholics, without injustice being done to the protestants.—The protestant clergy may continue to possess the tithes of the country

Digitized by Google

and the catholic clergy may be provided for from the public exchequer of the empire. I see no danger which would arise to the established church from some such arrangement as this; and it would, probably, be attended with the greatest advantage to the state. We think the catholics to be in an error; they think the same of us; both ought to reflect that, every error is not a criminal error, and that their error is the greatest, who most err against christian charity.

"If any one should contend that this is not the time for government to make concessions to Ireland,—I wish him to consider whether there is any time in which it is improper for either individuals or nations to do justice, any season improper for extinguishing animosity, any occasion more suitable than the present, for putting an end to heart-burnings and internal discontent. I should be as averse as any man from making concessions to an enemy invading the country; but I would do much to gain a cordial friend to assist me in driving him back;—and such a friend, I am confident, Ireland will become.

"I come to the last point—the case of the dissenters.—I am well aware that on this point I differ in opinion from men whom I esteem; but without arrogating to myself, without allowing to others, any infallibility of judgment, I am anxious, in this crisis of our fate, to speak my whole mind. What I presume to recommend is—A repeal of the test and corporation acts—as a mean of combining together, in the cords of mutual amity and confidence, the whole strength and spirit of the country. It has been said that the dissenters constitute above a fifth part of the population of the kingdom; I do not think them to be so numerous; but I am convinced that they are too loyal to be treated with distrust at any time, and too numerous to be soured by neglect at this time. I am far from insinuating that the dissenters want to be bribed to their duty by the repeal of the test act; no, my lords, churchmen and dissenters of every denomination, are equally zealous in the common cause—they seem to vie to emulate the patriotism of the patricians and plebeians at Rome; who, for 500 years, waged an eternal war of words about their respective rights, claims, oppressions, privileges,—but when their country was in danger, when an enemy invaded their territory, they laid aside their disputes; their only contention then was, which of them could show the greatest courage in repulsing the enemy of them both.

"I have never had any design, any wish, my lords, to gain the good-will of the dissenters, by becoming a champion in their cause—much less have I any inclination to provoke the ill-will of churchmen, and the disesteem of my brethren, by a forward display, or a froward retention, of an opinion opposite to their's. I may be wrong in thinking that the repeal of the test act would in no degree endanger the safety of either the church or state; but whilst I do think so, I should act a timid, interested, dishonourable part, if I concealed my sentiments.

"I will mention to your lordships an anecdote respecting this matter; for the truth of which I pledge my honour, and, in doing that I hope I may be permitted to expect full credit from the house. When the dissenters, a second time, petitioned parliament for the repeal of the test act, I called, accidentally, upon Lord Camden, then president of the council; and, in the course of conversation, asked him this plain question, suggested by the alarm which had been taken by some churchmen—'Does your lordship see any danger to the church of England from the repeal of the test act?'—He answered, with an eagerness peculiar to himself when his mind was determined—'None whatever.'—If then I err in this matter, I err with the late lord Camden; and though I had not rather err with him, than be right with others, yet I neither wish for, nor know where to find, a better supporter of my sentiment."

May language like this soon become the universal voice of a church, too long a preceptress of intolerance; too recently, against the catholics of Ireland, a sanguinary persecutress. The mild precepts of a humanizing religion will, in time, pervade the remotest precincts of her influence, and found on civil concord the new strength of the empire.

ART. XXXIV. *Reflections on the Causes of the present Rupture with France.* 8vo.

THAT weighty and serious grievances and complaints have been advanced and discussed in the official correspondence between this country and France, admits of no doubt; but, as a grievance redressed, or a complaint withdrawn, is not only no ground of enmity, but matter of confidence, because it displays a desire of quiet, it becomes necessary, in order to prove the justice or justifiableness of the British declaration of war, to show that the grievances alleged were wilfully overlooked, that the arrogant claims were obstinately persisted in. To most persons who read the official correspondence, it is matter of surprize that it should have led to war, or terminated in it.

Digitized by Google

First one hears about the Fame packet detained in December 1801, and confiscated. Mr. Adolphus well defends the justness of our complaint; but ministers chose to let the matter drop. As a ground of war it probably appeared to them trifling; it was in one respect inexpedient, for a cry of maritime arrogance and tyranny is easily raised on the continent against Great Britain, and the public opinion and commercial opinion of the continent greatly affect our obtaining allies there; so that it is always desirable to hinge a war on some interest, in which the continental public is likely to sympathize. If this confiscation, and another which followed, did not occasion a war early in 1802, it cannot be pleaded in excuse for the declaration of war in 1803.

Mr. Adolphus next examines the protection afforded to the emigrants. Here again he convincingly shews that the conduct of the English ministry, in refusing to comply with the demands of France, was becoming. The French seem to have thought so themselves; they only bring it forward to retaliate our captiousness about the pretender, and presently they drop the ground of complaint altogether. Are we to go to war with them, because they are satisfied with our conduct?

The freedom used in some publications, in descanting on the government and rulers of France, is then considered. It appears to have escaped the attention of our ministers, although observed to them by Lord Whitworth, in his letter from Paris of the 27th January, 1803, (Offic. Corr. No. 35), that this complaint *originated* with Talleyrand himself. Who that has read the American transactions to X Y and Z, can misunderstand this? It was a ground of complaint which it depended on the agents of Great Britain to intercept from the ears of the first consul. They had only to fee an officious translator to be idle; and no wind from England would have had the force to blow enmity and hatred quite home to St. Cloud.

Some impertinencies of the French press are produced and censured by our author: but as neither party accompanied the expression of their wishes, on this subject, with the slightest hints of threat, in case of non-compliance, it is preposterous to talk of the liberty of the press as any ground of war at all between them.

The question of Malta busies o
author at considerable length: the te
article of the treaty of Amiens, whi
respects that island, was become incap
ble of strict execution; but it has be
so nearly complied with on the part
the French, that to retain it would, i
case of private life, be called quibbli
and chicanery.

The memoirs of Sebastiani, of Rhe
hardt, take their turn; they are cases
the liberty of the press; they are d
avowed in a manner which, if it d
not satisfy, gives satisfaction.

The disposition to assist the Sw
friends of liberty was thus far a duty
the British government, that on for
occasions the antijacobin ministry w
supposed to have patronized the op
site cause, and to have put money
the disposal of Steiguer and his ad
rents, the ascendancy of whose unpop
lar party was the provocation whi
induced the Swiss to throw themsel
into the hands of France. These
pine disturbances might have been m
into honourable grounds of war;
as the geographical situation of S
zerland prevents any efficacious ass
ance from this country, it was most
mane not to inflame an ineffectual re
ance.

Something of the same kind migh
alleged against interfering, at pres
in the affairs of Holland. Without
prospect of Prussian co-operation, th
is little chance of Dutch liberation.
conduct of the French in Holland je
fies, however, much stronger rem
strances than any which were presen
by our ministers. If they chose to
to war, this was the most import
interest of the nation involved in
discussion, and should have been selec
as the fulcrum of indignation. It wo
however, have been better not to cho
to go to war; but to have laid bef
parliament the official correspondenc
without the previous recal of L
Whitworth, or without any aggress
declaration. The public opinion of
rope would have been influenced by
debate; it would have rung with
applause of Mr. Fox, then again, a
the case of the Russian armament,
hope and bulwark of Europe, of
world, against needless devastation.
wards obedience to the voice of eq
temper, and wisdom, both parties w
somewhat have bended; they w
have been urged so to do by the w

of that higher class, to whose voice senates listen, and even generals of armies. And thus the country would probably have escaped the calamity of a new contest.

ART. XXXV. *An Appeal to the People of the United Kingdoms against the insatiable Ambition of Bonaparte.* 8vo. pp. 260.

THIS is one of those zealous pamphlets, which, like a fire of fir-cones, torches and blazes much, and warms but little. Its object is to recommend the war to popularity: this is difficult; ministers have so mismanaged the negotiation, that their best reason of war, the non-evacuation of Holland, is flung into the back-ground, and scarcely makes its appearance in the official correspondence. One cannot then be loud about the justice of the war: neither can one be loud about its prudence. Russia and Prussia may join us, and we may march to Paris; but the probability of such a junction, when the war began, was very inconsiderable. There remains a ground of fanaticism: a wise minister would recur to it. It would marshal around the constitutional throne, a support more popular, more vehement, more permanent, than any war of this reign has yet obtained. It would attract, by the force of sympathetic feeling, the support of the independent talent, of the unbought genius of the country. It would secure at once the secret, and soon the public, voice of continental Europe. It would divide France into mighty parties, and probably hurl the usurper from his throne. This ground of fanaticism is to proclaim a war in behalf of the suspended popular authorities of the French; a crusade for the restoration of liberty and equality.

Since the beginning of the anti-jacobin war, the interior situation of France is reversed. The French were then pulling down their monarchy, their church, their nobility; and they were patronizing the concatenation of democratic clubs, in order, by their means, not merely to disseminate and popularize, but to influence and overawe the volitions and decisions of their legislature. Loud impertinent attacks resounded from the French senate of those institutions in our countries, most analogous to the establishments they were subverting at home. In order to excite here the greatest possible antipathy to such proceedings, it was natural for Burke and Mirvul to seek out, in the writings of their jesuitic teachers, for those arguments and war-whoops, which had, of old, inspired and accompanied an excessive and prejudicial value for church and king, or (if the abstract be preferred to the concrete expression) for religion and order. But now that Bonaparte has restored popery in its ancient integrity, and monarchy (or the government of one) in his own person; these arguments all tend to stabilitate his institutions, to render popular his government, and to facilitate the progress of his authority from a life-long to an hereditary, from an anonymous to a titled sway.

Bonaparte, at every period of his being, was personally an antijacobin: officers and generals had scrupled to bid the soldiery fire on the people; *his* first step to promotion was the use of cannon and grape-shot against the multitude in the very streets of Paris. This massacre of the jacobins took place at the time of the insurrection of the sections against the directory; and was so bitterly resented in the suburb of Saint Antoine, that vows were made for the extinction of the commanding officer, and reliques of the slaughtered were worn by women in their bosoms as a spur to vengeance. Bonaparte withdrew to the south of France; then got sent to Italy, where the manifestoes of Berthier (for Bonaparte can no more spell than Marlborough) got him the unmerited reputation of a friend to democracy and liberty. His earliest measures of power were to chace, with the bayonet, from their hall the representatives of the people; and to disperse all sorts of popular assemblages and confederacies. To satirize affiliated societies has passed for the panegyric of his usurpation. His religiosity was already apparent at the obsequies of Pius VI, and probably recommended him to the critical preference of Sieyes. He banishes, at will, members of the old directory, or of the new tribunate; he governs by a sort of martial law, mildly if he can, but, howsoever, he governs. The admiration of a government, flourishing and success-

Digitized by Google

ful, unchecked in its operations, and seeming, therefore, to compass its objects more speedily and effectually, has gained something upon all ranks of people. It is for the good patriots of this day to struggle against it; to discourage all needless and useless intercourse with France; and to encourage an alienation from its councils and its example. The vicinity of the two countries remains, and must remain; and the natural mental habits of mankind are such, that the present distemper of France is far more likely to be contagious and permanent, than the old one. It is not easy to spread a passion for liberty among the people, that requires principle, self-denial, exertion, disinterest, instruction, humanity, patience, perseverance, justice. But in all evils of the opposite kind our natural inclinations are flattered: to obey, accommodates the indolence, to corrupt and be corrupted the avarice and ambition of men. We are now once more, as were our ancestors, in danger of being entangled, by the example of France, in the net of an hypocritical and relentless despotism.

It is expedient then, as well for the preservation of our own as for the revival of continental liberty, that the eloquence of her most strenuous defenders should once more resound through Europe, from within her only remaining sanctuary, the British house of commons. How else shall the accents of freedom travel on every wind, and reach the cabinets of philosophy, and the reading rooms of patriotism? How else shall those tame fickle Parisians be aroused to a sense of their deep degradation and their mean submission? how else shall those sublimely proud Marseillese be provoked to revenge or follow the founders of popular enfranchisement? how else shall the Genevans be reminded, that the limits of France extend beyond the bounds which despotism had fitted to receive a conqueror with joy? how else shall maimed, trampled, fettered, insulted Switzerland be taught that independence is not only a blessing, but a virtue?

Deeply as the country has now to regret Mr. Burke's having condescended to lend his unequalled talents for producing an innovation of national opinion, a base desertion of the hereditary, tried, and liberal principles of our forefathers, in order to provoke us to wage, with peculiar animosity, an anomalous and imprudent war; it is clearly become expedient henceforth, in every possible form, to obliterate the impression of his numerous arguments, and of his yet more momentous diction. *Gallos quoque in bello floruisse* we have both heard and felt. The ancient boundaries of France are blotted from the map of Europe, and we now have almost a doubled population to encounter. We are still not to despair; but to look with some confidence to those principles which aggrandized free France, as the means of diminishing despotic France.

The country now wants the exiles of its own intolerance, to shout in the slack ear of France the daring declamations of their noble enthusiasm. The emulous eloquence of representative freedom is there forbidden. The speeches of Lanjuinais are imprisoned within the echoes of the Luxembourg. Carnot is returned from men to mathematics. Damon and Isnard are compelled to preserve an indignant silence. The hireling flatterers of power alone may climb the pulpits of their constituted lecture rooms; only the panegyrists of office may spout diatribes on legislation. For the lessons of liberty to reach Paris, the parliament of London must discuss the rights of man. Newspapers will do the rest. It will be fancied that to give loose here to such a cast of opinion, to corroborate them with the support of the executive power, and with the authority of an applauding house of commons, might weigh down the light the popular scale, and alter the present balance of the constitution. Why? Has it not formerly for more than a century tried and sanctioned them? injured? The constitution is very strong. If the weight of Burke did not make a despotism, who shall aspire to make it a republic?

In discussing the means of interesting annoying France, all rational inference must terminate in recommending to statesmen, an affectedly jacobinical tone of declamation. The jacobins are discontented at Paris; their opinions alone are adapted to produce mutual. A hacknied clamouring for religion and order will not abrade the popularity, weaken the energies of a French government, orderly as an apprehended garrison, and religious as convent courtezan.

These means are also most conducive to the external annoyance of France.

Digitized by Google

Without the aid of Prussia, Holland cannot be snatched from French supremacy. What is the road to Prussian *favour*? Certainly not antijacobin principles, or an antijacobin embassy. The king may be very moral, frugal, and *domestic*; may read Antoninus's meditations, and pension the novellist La*fontaine*; but he has not the passion of personal meddling. An official body corporate, formed in the school of Frederic and prince Henry, attached to no superstition, and not satisfied with the recent French precedent of enthroning a general and establishing popery, is the ruling power. It can never sympathize with aristocratic opinions, which threaten the revival of the states (Landstände) in its half-mastered provinces. In short, as far as opinion (but all is not gold that tinkles) can effectually predispose a *literary* metropolis and a philosophic ministry to co-operation with the rulers of this country, the low principles, as we call them here, are best adapted.

In Russia, the nobility are said to incline to the high principles, and the monarch, a pupil of Laharpe's, to the low. His sensibility to praise is his loveliest foible: he pursues the applause of the enthusiasts of reform. There is nothing to be done in the tyrannizing line in Russia; no habeas corpus acts to suspend; no martial laws to contrive; such things would not excite a stare. A czar, to be original, must be the improver of agriculture, the liberator of the peasantry; he must correspond with Mackintosh on the laws of nations; and watch the speeches of Fox for a compliment: and this is the elegant taste of Alexander. He values, and justly values, rather the praise of London than the praise of Paris: it is less rash, but more lasting; it is not immense, but it mostly is. A forwarder co-operation of the Russian court would clearly have resulted from earlier, and less equivocal, approaches, on the part of our government, to the advocates and friends of liberty.

We are threatened by, or are threatening, a war with Spain. Without the peace of the American states, there is little chance of approaching Mexico, of obtaining the isthmus to cut a canal into the Pacific, or of securing independence to Peru and Chili. And what is the road to American co-operation?—Again the principles of liberty, in their rashest nakedness, and loudest shouting enthusiasm. What has hitherto prevented a strict alliance from setting in between us? Merely, that while the one country promotes its whigs, the other promotes its tories. A Jefferson has to negotiate with a Grenville. Were our ministers in the principles of the American ministers, (we *can* change, they *must* abide by the incoercible result of popular suffrage), our treaties of commerce would be settled without chicanery, and would lead to treaties defensive and offensive.

In short, whatever purposes are to be answered of foreign alliance, or continental co-operation, the federative or diplomatic interests of the country imperiously require from our statesmen the profession of eleutherism. Ireland would at once be converted to affection, and allegiance here warm into enthusiasm.

As to the truth or utility to mankind of the liberal school of principles, we have no hope, in this age of meanness, that for such reasons it should be patronized; but we conjure statesmen by their policy, and government by its nationality, to employ their parliamentary and literary sophists in teaching anew the principles of freedom, and in directing the public expenditure and the public force to reversing the mischiefs occasioned by the various tendencies of the late unfortunate and ruinous war. Against the principles of antijacobinism and Bonaparte let sovereigns arm, and they will deserve to triumph.

There is much about Switzerland in this pamphlet: it is the best part of it. Yet, were the doctrines of liberty there to be acted upon, without the certainty of extensive assistance both in Provence and Italy, they could only rivet more closely the yoke of France. The Swiss should await the hour of French adversity.

Art. XXXVI. *The Question, Why do we go to War? temperately discussed according to the Official Correspondence.* 8vo. pp. 30.

THIS is one of the ablest controversial pamphlets in the language: it examines the motives for the late mischievous declaration of war, which ministers have brought out in the official correspondence, and pronounces them all,

Digitized by Google

when weighed in the balance, to be found wanting.

They consist principally of eight.

" The first, and perhaps the heaviest, respects the confiscation of our merchant ships. In the early part of the last war the French prohibited the importation of English goods and manufactures, which prohibition they did not think proper to take off at the peace. We did not stipulate that they should; they had an undoubted right therefore to make what regulations and restrictions they pleased: it was a blind and pitiful policy, and would have corrected itself, had we let them alone; they would have perceived, in a short time, the reciprocal advantages of a commercial intercourse. We cannot beat them into trading with us, or cannonade them into friendship. If the harshness and severity employed in the execution of the law were matters of complaint and causes of war, it should not only have been represented, as it was indeed, by Mr. Merry, but satisfaction insisted upon before we resigned our long catalogue of conquests: for the affair of the Fame packet occurred in December 1801, and that of the brig George, where the knives and forks were seized, in August 1802; and in the following December, at the opening of parliament, it was declared there was no reason to doubt of the permanency of the peace. We may presume, therefore, our government was satisfied.

" 2. The next relates to the commercial agents or commissaries sent into this country to be stationed at our different sea-ports, by way of consuls over trade, with these instructions among others, viz.

" Instruction 11.—' You are required to furnish a plan of the ports of your district, with a specification of the soundings for mooring vessels.'

" Instruction 12.—' If no plan of the ports can be procured, you are to point out with what wind vessels can come in and go out, and what is the greatest draught of water with which vessels can enter therein deeply laden.'

" Now, not to mention that this information was really necessary in a commercial view merely, or that plans of our ports with soundings may be purchased at any good map-seller's in London; grant that it was meant to be availed of in case of hostilities taking place at any time between the two countries, and that it was highly insidious, it was not matter of such uncommon provocation; and no one, I think, who is acquainted with the various intrigues of the old cabinet of Versailles, will assert that that cabinet, or perhaps any other, would have had the smallest scruple of adopting a similar measure, had opportunity occurred; and an accredited minister or envoy would be deemed very properly alert in his office, who could procure his government such information. But what was done on the occasion? The vigilance of our administration discovered the insti- tions, dismissed the commissaries, and Fr took them back again. Where then is cause for war?

" 3. The third is, desiring us to send the emigrants, under the idea that they to raise disturbances in the interior of Fr and to recommend to the Princes of House of Bourbon to join the head of family at Warsaw. What do we ans Why with manliness and humanity, tha long as they behave peaceably towards us, plot against them, we will not refuse the pitable protection they stand so much in of. They urge it no more. Is there th this a cause for war?

" 4. Fourthly it is stated, we have su an indignity by the ' requisition, which French government has repeatedly that the laws and constitution of this c try should be changed, relative to the li of the press.' These are the words of declaration. Let us see what is the c plaint and what is the request, and how it can be said they have required an alter in our laws and constitution. They c plain that ever since the conclusion of treaty of Amiens, the English press has ceased to calumniate and revile the Fr and their government, to represent thei public in the most odious and degra light, that the people are appealed to a it, and instigated thereby to insurrection rebellion. They observe, ' that the pa lar laws and constitution of Great Brita subordinate to the general principles o law of nations, that if it be a right in land to allow the most extensive liberty press, it is a public right of polished na and the bounden duty of governments, to vent, repress, and punish every attack might by those means be made against rights, the interests, and the honor of fo powers. They retort with justice, that French writings furnished in England a sible vindication of the necessity of the war; and will England now put the weapon into the hands of the French?' is all but too true; I believe, universall lowed. All sober-minded Englishmen scandalised at the daily abuse, and look ward in sorrowful presage to the serious chief it would ultimately occasion: it m and ought to have been corrected. I am much attached as any man to the liber the press; am availing myself of the pri of it at this moment: but is it wise, in i in any government, to permit the public quillity of the nation to be endangered b licentiousness of the press, unless the m chooses thereby to intimate its own dis tions? Was it to be expected that the Consul should patiently and quietly e to be so personally abused, and hear the ple he commanded perpetually excited volt? Was it consistent with the very article of the treaty of peace? Was it fully avoiding every thing which might

Digitized by Google

after affect the union happily re-established between the two nations?' Was it possible to maintain that union under such continued irritation? And what was required, or rather what was solicited? Mr. Otto's note (p. 39, Official Correspondence) says, 'the undersigned has in consequence received a special order to solicit,

'That his Majesty's government will adopt the most effectual measures to put a stop to the unbecoming and seditious publications with which the newspapers and other writings in England are filled.'

"Is this then called requiring our laws and constitution to be changed?—and what is our answer? We begin by accusing them of want of temper (vide Lord Hawkesbury's letter, page 41); acknowledge that very improper paragraphs have been inserted in our newspapers, and publications of a still more improper and indecent nature, appeared under the signature of foreigners: that the French have thought proper to resort to recrimination. We then talk highly of the liberty of our press; insinuate we mean to continue to abuse them: but they need not read our pamphlets or newspapers unless they like it, admit them into their country, but punish those who do. The French are silent: they mention the subject no more. We call ourselves insulted, go to war, and adduce the recrimination as one of the causes.

"Fifthly, The presumption of affirming that Great Britain cannot singly contend against the power of France, is too puerile to be commented upon: it was unworthy the dignity of a great nation to make the assertion, and unworthy that of another, gravely to bring it forward among the causes for war. I should have thought it worth while to have brought the matter to the test, had the Chief Consul, in still more boyish frolic affirmed, he would fight us with one hand tied behind him.'

The subsequent paragraph in the same letter of communication (Official Correspondence, p. xxiii), is more worth our attention.

'But we have better hopes; and we believe in the British cabinet nothing will be attended to but the counsels of wisdom, and the voice of humanity.'

'Sixthly.—Manifesto published in the Edinburgh Gazette.—It is not a little surprising to find inserted in the catalogue of causes, this manifesto; for upon our demand of immediate satisfaction, every authorization from the French government for the publication of it was denied, and most completely disavowed (vide Official Correspondence, p. 127). Upon our further insisting that as the insult was public, so must be the reparation. M. Talleyrand answered: 'the First Consul considered M. Rheinhardt's conduct so reprehensible, that every satisfaction might be expected!'

'If then the paper was really published under the order of the First Consul, we have the sacrifice of truth on the altar of Peace. What would we have more? A futile argument is sometimes made use of, that these causes are nothing if singly taken, but altogether amount to a sufficient one. But if individually they are nothing, and are proved to be so, can an aggregate of nothings ever amount to any thing?

"Does there yet then appear a reason why we go to war?"

Under the seventh head, which is discussed in the least satisfactory manner, the author considers the charge of aggrandizement.

"One cannot but be grieved that a people so generous, a country so delightful as Switzerland, should wither under the gripe of despotism and oppression; and it would have been a gallant piece of Quixotism to have prevented such a fate by our assistance, if possible. We endeavoured to do it, broke our treaty to do it, retook the Cape of Good Hope, and would have dashed precipitately into war, could we have got the other powers to have joined. We might then indeed have entered into an impolitic war with honour, repel violence and aggression; whereas now we plunge into an impolitic war, with all the odium of aggression and breach of faith upon our backs. We remonstrated in favour of the Swiss; but the Swiss submitted, and we said no more. How then is this business, which was settled in October, 1802, brought up again as a cause for war in May 1803?

"We did all we could to get into a war for an object politically of no consequence to us: indeed the possession of Switzerland by the French, is a manifest advantage to this country: it occupies their troops, removes them farther from us; gives them a territory they must always be upon the alert to retain, subject to perpetual insurrection and revolt. It is a different case with Holland. The possession of Holland by the French, might be of material ill consequence to us; but there was no stipulation in our treaty of Amiens, that the First Consul should withdraw his troops from thence; they lingered there, to the annoyance of the Dutch, and jealousy of our government; the greatest part of them undoubtedly intended for the expeditions to Louisiana and St. Domingo (would we had let them quietly embark for those places!) The Dutch made some remonstrances (urging their departure), in which we would have joined, but they wished us to desist, for fear of drawing down upon them the fate of Switzerland (vide Mr. Liston's Letter, p. 201). Bonaparte afterwards declared he would withdraw his troops, the moment the treaty of Amiens was fully completed on our part, and Malta evacuated according to agreement. We however do not fulfil our treaty, but go to war. The French seize their territory, and we their ships. So much for the Dutch.

"When the French are accused of annex-

Digitized by Google

ing Piedmont and Parma to their dominions, it is added, 'without allotting any provision to the King of Sardinia, whom they had despoiled, though bound by a solemn engagement to the Emperor of Russia, to attend to his interest, and provide for his establishments*.' Is this aggression and violence against us? It is aggression against Russia. Are we to monopolise all insult and aggression? What says the Emperor of Russia? Nothing that we hear of. Are we then to fight for the fulfilment of engagements with Russia, and treaties with Austria? To make unprecedented sacrifices and unheard-of efforts, for the two great emperors of Europe, while they look on at ease? Is it to be guardian of good faith, moderation and justice, that thus dauntless and alone we throw down the gauntlet before this giant power?—to prevent innocent states from being insulted and despoiled, and shield the world from his colossal arm; to protect the universal globe, from the German Ocean to the Indian Sea; to emancipate the Dutch, liberate Switzerland, defend Egypt, Palestine and Syria, the Ottoman Empire, Persia and Indostan?

"Magnanimous idea! But is there reason to imagine we shall obtain one single object; reconquer from Bonaparte one of his European acquisitions; drive Egypt from his head, or India from his thoughts: yet unless upon these knight-errantlike principles, unless to attack these windmills, is there a cause why we should be harassed with the calamities of war?"

Dismissing the chivalrous or quixotic grounds of war, and taking it for granted that Switzerland, because it cannot be aided efficiently, was to be abandoned to its unavoidable fate, does it follow, that Holland, which France had agreed to evacuate, and had not evacuated; that Holland, whence the invasion of Great Britain is so practicable and so dangerous; that Holland, a nursery of sailors, a proprietress of colonies, a fountain of loans and subsidies; that Holland, the usurpation of which places all Westphalia at the mercy of the French, and enables them any day to institute or proclaim a new republic of the Weser, of the Elbe, and to extend their line of coast to Bremen and Lubeck, does it follow, we say, that Holland was not worth a war, or that Great Britain was bound to resign either Malta or the Cape, before the evacuation of Holland?

Holland being, however, the only tolerable pretence, and the only rational object of war, ought to have occupied the fore-ground in the correspondence; and the offer of Hanover ought long ago to have been made to Prussia, for a new campaign of 1787. With no other aid can Holland be redelivered.

The somewhat intricate question of Malta is well elucidated, and the right of the French to expect the evacuation is recognized.

The concluding paragraphs deserve to be impressed on every memory. This is one of them:

"Little, however, is it to be expected that the counsels of temperance should be heard amidst the din of arms and tumult of passion. Had England been in the habit of attending to a warning voice, much blood and treasure had been saved to the nation. In the American war, a voice cried—'Give up America.' Had it been at first attended to, how much would have been saved? America was obliged to be given up. But the 'sun of England, instead of setting for ever,' as pronounced by great authority, set not at all; but like the sun beyond the Arctic circle wheeled up again to its meridian height, and shone with brighter lustre†. In the last war many voices cried—'Make peace, seize your opportunity; the longer you delay, the worse peace you will make.' I will leave the event to justify the advice and the prediction. What will be the case in this instance? After millions upon millions expended, and blood upon blood shed in vain, the French if they choose to persist, will in all probability sooner or later be in possession of Egypt, and if our drained treasury and exhausted veins recover, if we do not perish under the conflict, things will go on as well, or better than they did before, and India be as safe

ART. XXXVII. *The Reason Why: in Answer to a Pamphlet, entitled, Why do we go to War?* 8vo. pp. 66.

THE author of "*Why do we go to War,*" has arranged, under *eight* heads, the various motives of hostility which presented themselves in the course of the Official Correspondence. He maintains that none of them were such as to justify the declaration of war, because weightier motives wanted maturity, and the maturer motives wanted weight. This writer, with unprovoked mo

"* Vide Declaration."

"† Mr. Gentz, in his excellent work on the State of Europe, asserts, that 'the loss of the colonies was the first æra of the lasting and independent greatness of Great Britain.'"

Digitized by Google

ty of language, insults that very tem-
rate and argumentative author; and,
the true spirit of the anti-jacobin
hool, vomits at him a spawn of nick-
mes and abuse, instead of refutation.
e says (page 6) that the war is just,
cause the people have been unanimous
arming to defend the independence of
e country. A highwayman may de-
d himself against a constable; does it
ow that the attack is unjust? He
s (page 7) that the preparations in
land, which were very trifling, and
bably intended to carry out troops to
isiana, formed a sufficient ground for
ibuting hostile intentions to France.
e examines one by one the eight grounds
hostility; and fails one by one in
ving that they amount to any thing
re than proofs of a subsisting recipro-
jealousy between France and Britain;
alousy which every one knows to be
etual, but which surely does not con-
te a ground of perpetual interrnin-
war.

he seventh charge, or charge of ag-
dizement, as this writer calls it, ap-
proaches nearest to a ground of war; but a voluntary war, to resist the aggrandizement of a neighbour, is plainly absurd, if not likely to be successful. Now there was no probability of the assistance of Austria to free Switzerland, or of the assistance of Prussia to free Holland at the time of the declaration of war, and consequently no prospect of remedying the grievance in question.

The eighth charge, about Malta, might have been made more of; yet, if this be our ground of war, it is plain that the declaration of hostilities should have been left to Bonaparte, and not have proceeded from us; for as long as we retained possession unmolested, we had nothing to complain of on our side.

At last, however, as if aware that the war is wholly premature, this writer (at page 47) has recourse to the old pretence, the balance of power; but, alas! neither our finances, nor the foreign battalions, are as yet sufficiently recruited for the old interchange of subsidies and aids.

XXXVIII. *Observations suggested by a Pamphlet, entitled, Why do we go to War? in a Letter to a Friend.* 8vo. pp. 32.

HESE observations are drawn up
the respectful urbanity to which
author of "*Why do we go to War*"
by his temper and talent, entitled.
y maintain very truly, that the Bri-
ministers have been actuated by a
ic spirit; that they overlooked the
abuse of French power, in the
ments respecting the Fame packet
the George brig; and that no ac-
encroachments on their part have
ght on a rupture between the two
tries. The French, on the contrary,
justly stated to have proceeded with
insolent consciousness of superio-
; their consuls were furnished with
erous instructions, and with the
ious protection of military rank;
quibbled about the harbouring of
rants, and the liberty of the press,
they were rivetting the fetters of
erland, and preparing the annexa-
of Holland; they endeavoured to
ce, by a threat of war, the evacua-
of Malta, which was the only ob-
of real ambition they could not at-
by the mere exertion of physical
ce. Yet it cannot be denied, that
ir diplomatic conduct has been di-
ted with superior skill; that they have regularly submitted to every repulse on topics, in which they were the aggressors; and that they have made their stand with resolute defiance, precisely where the apology of Great Britain was most difficult and most equivocal; thus they have thrown on us both the fact and the reproach of aggression, in a war certainly not sought, not desired, not deserved by our ministers. But if a country, from the personal character of the prince, from the structure of the constitution, from the venality of its talent, or from the apathy of the people, or, which is perhaps the case, from the credulity of mere statesmen, in the hopes of some gambling merchants, chooses not to withstand loudly the first tendencies to bickering, not to insist loudly on the promotion of its pacific and principled talent, it must abide by the incurred evil, and by a subsequent process check the tendency to a repetition of the blunder.

After so skilful a defence of the declaration of war as this, few can hope to succeed in its defence. The ambitious mind of France is abundantly proved, and the determination to proceed in its views, with a contempt for British re-

sistance; but nothing like a ground is made out for beginning that resistance, at the time it was determined upon. It is of immense importance, it is the condition of alliances without, and of perseverance within, to secure a definite, intelligible, equitable, honorable ground war; without it taxation seems opp sion, and battle needless carnage.

ART. XXXIX. *A Reply to two Pamphlets, in Answer to the Question, Why do we ma War?* 8vo. pp. 60.

THIS answer, if not equal in neatness to the original pamphlet, is full of convincing argument and important remark. It tends to predispose the public to conciliatory measures, without, however, advising any dereliction of real dignity, still less of national interest. The author has stated very specifically his ideas of an expedient peace: he takes high ground, higher than it will be easy to realise; but the first step towards insuring the constancy of the country, is to proclaim a disposition to equitable arrangement.—This writer possesses, in a high degree, that power of voluntary transmigration, which enables him to view awhile, with the eyes of the adversary, the claims and pretensions of his country. This faculty is the basis of equitable estimate, and is only mistaken by the bigot and the bully, for an attachment to the adverse cause. No man can detect the remedy for foreign hostility, who is incapable of entering into its grounds. To consider this elevated, this cosmopolitical point of view, as an imperfection, is a mark of narrow views, and vulgar prejudice; it ought to be noticed as characteristic of a superior mind.

With a proper solicitude to prevent the *northern* growth of France, which tends to endanger our own quiet and independence; with a philosophic indifference to the *southern* growth of France, which tends to provoke other rivalry and opposition, the author thus sketches plan of peace:

"On these various accounts, resigning pretensions to a possession in the Mediterranean, were I to suggest the idea of a basis which to form a treaty of peace, when there is a chance of Europe being once blessed with such an event, it should be the following plan, which might be ed or contracted as circumstances warrant.

"Malta to be surrendered, given up to Maltese inhabitants; King of Etruria, Italian republics to be acknowledged; King of Sardinia to be provided for; S zerland to be evacuated by the French; over restored, and the damages compens Holland to be emancipated; the F troops to be withdrawn as soon as po and every security that can be obtained for its independence; the Netherlands made a separate state, under the domin the King of Prussia, or the Prince of O or to become a distinct republic under ever form of government the inhabitant choose; Gibraltar to be disposed of t Spaniards, in order to defray the expen the war; and thus to turn the key on closet of discord, shut the gates of that phitheatre, that vast naumachia, where should consume our strength in vain tions for the amusement of surrounding tators.

"But whether this tremendous war be concluded by these or any other me am happy to be able in something to jo opponent (author of 'The Reason W p. 55), and that is, in wishing with equ dency that it may be soon concluded."

ART. XL. *Thoughts on the Invasion threatened by Bonaparte: translated from French of E. M. one of the Chiefs of the Royalist Party in the South of France.* pp. 75.

THIS pamphlet contains little that is applicable to the invasion of Great Britain; but much virulent declamation against Bonaparte, his crimes, and his supporters. Of the anecdotes in the notes several are rashly advanced; as that Garnerin, the balloon-man, was the assassin of the Princess of Lamballe. It is surely in this case impossible that he could have obtained letters of introduction so respectable as some which he presented in London. Yet a great of the anecdotes are vouched on per knowledge, and deserve the notice historian. The author is an emi royalist who has taught French Bath.

The note at p. 49, contains some ginal matter concerning the accessio Bonaparte.

"Bonaparte owes his elevation to his ther Lucien, now one of his greatest enem

Murat his brother-in-law; and particularly to the death of general Joubert, a loss we do not well know to whom to attribute. The following is a short account of the events that preceded his usurpation: during the invasion of the Russians under the command of general Suwarrow, the French army was almost annihilated, by the frequent defeats it had undergone; the people loudly complained, and France hourly expected to be invaded by the conquering allied powers. The directory then adopted the plans of Robespierre; but the artful Sieyes, perceiving the deplorable situation of affairs, owing to the bad administration of the directory, exerted himself to the utmost to overturn them, and proposed to his accomplices to establish a more gentle government, that would better suit his ambitious views. In order to effect this, he held secret cabals with the different members of the two councils. Joubert, being young and enterprizing, was elected as a fit commander for the armies of Italy; and Sieyes, depending on the military events of his *protegé*, intended to recall him when he should have defeated the enemies, to destroy the directorial faction; but Joubert falling a sacrifice, their manœuvres were changed. In the mean while, general Fregeville, representative of the people, and lately married to the daughter of a rich banker of Beziers, (to whose charms he was indebted for his intimacy with Lucien,) was engaged by Sieyes to engage the latter to forward his plans; this he effected, and it was determined that Napoleon should be immediately recalled, being alone capable of executing these great designs. From this time forward, their secret assemblies were held in Madame Fregeville's *boudoir*, till the arrival of Napoleon, who immediately seized on the consulate, (by fainting in the arms of his soldiers,) to the great disappointment of the conspirators commanded by Sieyes. Madame Fregeville received 100,000 crowns, under the name of a present, as the price of her complaisance. Sieyes and Lucien had long aspired to the supreme command, thus snatched from them by Bonaparte. Sieyes, on the new digestion of the present constitution, received, as an equivalent, a national estate, and Lucien was made minister of the interior; which not being sufficient to satisfy his ambition, highly exasperated him: Fregeville also was disgraced; but Bonaparte, dreading the anger of his brother, appointed him ambassador at the court of Spain, (intended as an honorable exile for a short time.) Napoleon then joined the army of Italy, and unjustly ascribed to himself the victory of Marengo, that was acquired by the courage and abilities of general Defaix, who perished in the action: he made this a pretext to get himself named Consul for life, (a nomination exacted by force.) This new dignity more than ever excited the jealousy of his brother Lucien, and of the other generals."

The recording of crimes i snot a useful occupation. It always diminishes in the readers of such narratives the aversion to vindictive retaliation. Catalogues of horrid deeds provoke enmity indeed against the persons and the sects to whom they are ascribed, and bring those individuals and their opinions into discredit; but they almost always produce analogous crimes in the imputing party. Voltaire and the anti-christians of France, were continually harping on the massacre of Saint Bartholomew, and describing minutely its circumstances. What was the consequence? These very descriptions served for the model of the massacre on the second of September. "We will be even with them;" this is the secret resolution which all such histories of atrocity excite in the vulgar of the opponent faction. One cannot but wish, therefore, that all those who write for the multitude, would be very shy of detailing enormities.

ART. XLI. *Invasion! Reflections on the Terrors of it. By the late very Rev. and venerable* DR. TUCKER, *Dean of Gloucester.* 12mo. pp. 12.

WHEN the dean of Gloucester wrote, the French territory extended no further east than Dunkirk; it now avowedly includes Flushing, and in fact extends to Emden. Sir Sidney Smith has stated in parliament, that from the ancient coast no efficacious invasion was practicable; but that from the modern, or Dutch coast, it is practicable. The maritime reasons for non-alarm formerly do not therefore all apply now.

The French had, in 1780, many means of annoying us, in North America, and in the Indies; they were likely to prefer that direction of their forces and treasures which would do most injury. They have now but one mode of annoying us, invasion. While they could choose the cheaper task, they chose it; but now they must invade, or do nothing.

The French had formerly a mild humane prince, unwilling to fling away on rash ventures the lives of his people. They have now a monarch more covetous of dominion than of subjects; and an army too strong for the permanence of internal tranquillity, if it be assembled

and idle. The chance, therefore, of rash venture is much increased on their part.

Let us suppose that of a force embarked, without a protecting navy, in Dutch fishing-boats, one-third would be met and sunk at sea. Let us suppose another third would be run aground on the shoals and sand-banks near the English coast, in consequence of cutting away the buoys, and snuffing out the light-houses; there would still remain a third to be fought by the people ashore.

Some persons so much doubt the policy of driving the country, as it is called, that is of destroying all the corn, flour, and other provision in the sea-ports near the landing-place, that it will probably be inefficaciously executed. The people think that the French would take care to be fed in preference; and that they should be starved themselves by the attempt at starvation. The necessity for transports, therefore, about which so much is said here, may be overstated.

We are assured by this author, (p. 7) that from the time the French boats are seen in the offing, to the time of landing, three days must intervene. How extravagant a calculation! How ignorant an assertion!

And, after all, why allay the public apprehension? why diminish the public precaution? Is not the volunteering system as favourable to peace and to liberty, as to protection? We presume, however, that some persons, who dislike to learn the use of arms, choose to be supplied with pretences for indolence—and the most decorous is to see no danger. To such persons, we recommend the purchase and distribution of Dr. Tucker's Reflections on Invasion.

ART. XLII. *Proceedings at a General Meeting of the Loyal North Britons, held at the Crown and Anchor, August* 8, 1803; *containing a correct Copy of the celebrated Speech of James Mackintosh, Esq.; the Stanzas spoken on the same Occasion, by Thomas Campbell, Esq.; and the Substance of the Speeches of the Right Hon. Lord Reay and J. W. Adam, Esq. on being elected Officers of the Corps.* 8vo. pp. 48.

IT is sufficient to copy the title of this little pamphlet: we would, however, notice one trivial error in Mr. Campbell's stanzas: he says

> Let a *death-bed repentance* be taught the proud foe.

But the spirit of his poem is to swear that the invaders shall not die in their beds.

The appendix contains, among other pieces, Mr. Bonsanquet's Declaration, Burns's fine ode of Bannock-Burn, and the War Song of the Edinburgh Dragoons, one of the productions of a gentleman, of whom every production is good.

ART. XLIII. *England's Ægis; or the Military Energies of the Empire.* By JOHN CARTWRIGHT, *Esq.* 12mo. pp. 191.

IT is particularly worthy of remark, and ought to teach us a lesson of toleration and confidence, that the numerous body of people who were injuriously marked by the last administration as disaffected, and eager to overthrow the constitution, are actually now among the foremost to offer their lives in its defence. It is a fact, that in some parts of the kingdom, a *majority* of the volunteer corps is composed of those persons, who, a few years ago, were branded as republicans and levellers: their country is in danger, and they have evinced their patriotism in coming forward in its defence. The name of Major Cartwright is familiar to most of our readers: he has employed his pen and his sword on more occasions than one; and it is well known that the freedom, perhaps the incautious freedom with which he has used the former, excited the suspicion of a jealous administration, as to the use he might be disposed to make of the latter.

The plan which Major Cartwright recommends, as being in itself the most efficient for defence, and constituting at the same time an essential part of the constitution of the country, is, that the King should have recourse to the original militia of the Saxon times, the *posse comitatus*. He reprobates standing armies as injurious to the liberties of the subject; contends that every man should be taught the use of arms, and be possessed of them; in short, he would have the volunteer system extended to embrace every individual, and instead of being a temporary, converted into a permanent measure of defence.

In addition to the Ægis as a shield,

Digitized by Google

Major Cartwright has dedicated to his country as a weapon, the *Britannic spear*: this weapon is described at length, together with the double-barrelled *boarding pistol*; their advantages are detailed, a plate is given of them; a pattern of the spear will be deposited with some mechanic who will undertake to make them, and a reference left with the publisher of Major Cartwright's work.

We are not very conversant in tactics, or competent to appropriate the comparative excellence of different weapons; we have, however, remarked, that when any desperate onset is to be made, it is customary to take out the flints from the soldier's firelock, and charge with the bayonet. This looks as if the musquet had lost its superiority: pikes and spears are getting into fashion, and we should like to see revived the old English weapon, that victorious weapon *which defeated the French on their own soil*, on the plains of Cressy, Poictiers, and Agincourt, the LONG BOW. For several successive centuries, this country acquired a formidable celebrity for its skill and success in archery: all our victories over the French in their own country were effected by the bow, and these victories are known to be many and decisive. The carnage produced by this weapon, particularly where it is opposed to cavalry, is dreadful; and at Poictiers, the English took prisoners to the amount of double the number of their own army: it has been estimated that not more than one ball in eighty-five takes effect in a day's action.

About six years ago Mr. Oswald Mason published a little pamphlet, entitled "*Pro Aris et Focis*," &c.; the object of which was to revive the use of the long bow and the pike; it was published for Egerton. A republication of it now would be of service, and if it were enlarged by an historical account of the different battles in which we have fought with this national weapon, by an account of the numbers of the contending armies, and the weapons of our enemies; and if to this was added, an account of the principal statutes, which at different times have been enacted for the enforcement, and of prizes, which at different times have been offered, for the encouragement of the long bow; it would be a very interesting and useful work.

There are a few societies of archers at this time in Great Britain; the Toxophilites, the Woodmen of Arden, and the Royal Company of Archers in Scotland, which last is said to have been instituted by James I. of Scotland, for the encouragement of archery. The majority, if not the total of these societies, however, are now merely societies for exercise and amusement, like cricket clubs: whether they might not be increased and made subservient to the national defence, is a question which we must leave to the discussion of others.

ART. XLIV. *The Parallel between England and Carthage, and between France and Rome, examined, by a Citizen of Dublin.* 8vo. pp. 47.

IT was hardly necessary to write a pamphlet to shew the absurdity of the vaunted parallel which France has made between herself and Rome, and between England and Carthage. It has given occasion, however, to some animated declamation on the part of a patriotic citizen of Dublin, who, if he speak with the same fluency and spirit with which he writes, might harangue an army on the eve of action with considerable effect.

ART. XLV. *A few Cursory Remarks upon the State of Parties during the Administration of the Right Hon. Henry Addington.* *By a* NEAR OBSERVER. 8vo. pp. 48.

ART. XLVI. *A plain Answer to the Misrepresentations and Calumnies contained in the Cursory Remarks of a Near Observer.* *By a more* ACCURATE OBSERVER. 8vo. pp. 83.

THE former of these pamphlets is an attack directed for the most part against the expelled chiefs of the anti-jacobin ministry, for their parliamentary conduct towards Lord Hawkesbury, Mr. Addington, and the other underlings of the party, who found themselves converted into ministers by the dismission of their masters. The charges and accusations here brought forwards are repelled, or attempted to be repelled, by the author of the latter publication.

Digitized by Google

The Near Observer begins by representing the late ministry as voluntarily seceding from their official situations at the most critical and difficult period of the war; when, abandoned by our allies, mortified by defeat, weighed down with accumulated taxes, our sovereign indisposed, and incapable of administering the affairs of his government, we were left to contend, single-handed, both with the French republic and the Northern confederacy. "At such a moment," says the author, "his majesty's late ministers thought proper to retire from his service," &c.

This charge is refuted by *the More Accurate Observer*, who affirms that Mr. Pitt and his friends had tendered their resignations "days and weeks" before the king's illness; and that at the time of doing so, Mr. Pitt made a distinct offer to retain his situation until the war should be concluded, and the country relieved from its most pressing difficulties, provided that, in the mean time, no attempt should be made to prejudge the question, a difference of opinion on which had led to his resignation. Although this offer was not accepted, the king's illness suspended the new arrangements, and Mr. Pitt actually remained in the full exercise of his official duties till the recovery of his majesty.

The second accusation relates to the violation of a solemn promise of support made by the old ministers to the new. "His majesty's most gracious offer of his confidence to Mr. Addington could not have been, and WAS NOT, definitively accepted until a solemn authentic pledge of honour had been given by the late ministers for their CONSTANT, ACTIVE, and ZEALOUS SUPPORT. I do assert that Mr. Pitt and Lord Grenville did sacredly and solemnly enter into this *exact agreement*, and in this *precise form of words*."

In reply to this serious charge, we find nothing satisfactory advanced by *the more accurate Observer*; he says, indeed, and says truly, that to give to any set of men a promise of constant support, let their conduct be what it would, is inconsistent with every idea not only of public duty, but even of common sense, or common honesty. This, however, appears to be rather an imprudent assertion, because, so long as the direct testimony of his adversary remains uncontradicted, it will follow from his own admission that Mr. Pitt and Lord Grenville are both fools and knaves.

The last important subject in dispute between the Near Observer and the Accurate Observer, relates to the negotiation between Mr. Pitt and Mr. Addington, on the readmission of the former to a place in the cabinet. This we shall present to our readers first in the words of Mr. Addington's partizan.

"This negotiation originated with Lord Melville, and was conducted by him; nor do I at all fear being mistaken in stating that the intentions and conduct of that noble lord were fair, honourable, and impartial.

"In the negotiation which his lordship conducted, I think it proper that it should be known, that there was no obstacle upon the part of ministry to his lordship's return with Mr. Pitt and others of his friends; I do not say upon a footing of equality with Mr. Addington and others of the present administration, but beyond it. It is proper that it should be known, that the treaty did not go off (as has been pretended) on account of the want of a message from a quarter, too high to be mentioned, a communication which would not have been wanting in due time, if the negotiation could have been brought to an issue upon the terms I have mentioned; but that it broke off upon the positive unalterable demand of Mr. Pitt himself, to bring back with him the Lords Grenville and Spencer, with other noble and honourable persons, who had disapproved of every measure of the government, who were in the habit of personal incivility and disrespect, and who were adverse to the whole spirit and principle of the administration."

The More Accurate Observer on the other hand, says:

"Towards the end of March, or at the beginning of April, upon the eve of war, after it was distinctly known to Mr. Addington that Mr. Pitt strongly disapproved of some of the leading measures of his government, and after an overture had been made on the part of Mr. Addington, too foolish, I had almost said, too insulting to be noticed, a distinct proposition (originating, not, as has been insinuated, with Lord Melville, but entirely with Mr. Addington himself) was made to Mr. Pitt, the object of which was his return to the official situation he formerly held in the administration; and as I understand, the arrangement was to have taken place whenever the negotiation then pending with France should have been brought to a conclusion. It was also signified, that vacancies would be made for the purpose of admitting Lord Melville into the cabinet, and some other of Mr. Pitt's friends

Digitized by Google

into different official situations. To this proposition Mr. Pitt replied, that he would not enter upon the question of arrangements, until he was distinctly informed by a message from the highest quarter, that his services were thought essential; that if so called upon, in spite of the precarious state of his health, he should not decline the offer of his best advice and assistance; that he was fully aware of the great and increasing difficulties of the country; and that he saw the necessity of a strong, vigorous, and efficient government. That if called upon by his majesty, he should feel it to be his duty to propose an administration consisting principally of the members of the present and of the late government; that in the general arrangement which he should submit for his majesty's consideration, he should, if they assented, include the Lords Grenville and Spencer, but that he should press no person whatever upon his majesty, only reserving to himself the power of declining the undertaking altogether, if he could not form such a government as would enable him, in his judgment, to conduct the affairs of the nation with a fair probability of success. No *sine qua non* was insisted upon, as the "Near Observer" alledges, with respect to the admission of Lord Grenville, or of any other person, into the cabinet. All that Mr. Pitt required was, that he should be at liberty to submit to his majesty whatever he thought best for his majesty's service, unfettered by any previous condition; and he positively declined committing himself upon the question of particular arrangements until his majesty's pleasure had been distinctly signified to him."

We pretend not to reconcile these palpable contradictions, nor to decide whether the ex-minister or Mr. Addington, by these their representatives, is attempting to impose upon the public: they have been both brought up in the same school of intrigue and falsehood, *et cantare pares et respondere parati;* but from the proverbial candour and veracity of Lord Melville, we may, no doubt, expect, at the proper time, complete satisfaction.

Art. XLVII. *Elements of Opposition.* 8vo. pp. 99.

THIS is by far the most acute party pamphlet that has appeared since the accession of Mr. Addington to the ministerial throne. It consists of fifty-three rules, by the due observance of which, the young senator may become a complete oppositionist: the examples are principally taken from the speeches of Lord Grenville, Mr. Windham, and the other leaders of the anti-jacobins, whose political profligacy and shameless inconsistencies are exposed with no inconsiderable effect. We select the following, as a favourable specimen both of the style and matter.

"Rule 29.

"*How to describe a new minister.*

"However, as the country may not like the exclusive claims of one family, and as another candidate has been proposed, it is every way fair and proper to state his qualifications. His particular friends, indeed, to whom he lends the weight of his talents, are content with promising the country that he is more fit for the eminent station of first minister, than any other person; that Mr. Pitt is jealous of his ascendancy; and that all the sound part of the nation look to him at this crisis, &c. This too is modest, and it ought to be shewn by particulars, how just, as well as disinterested, such a recommendation is. The qualifications, therefore, for a first minister ought to be the following:

"1. He should be himself alarmed, and fond of alarms in other men. Such a man will compliment Lord Mornington for having described things "in so masterly and alarming a manner." Accordingly we find, that these very words were used by Mr. Windham, Jan. 1794.

"2. Such a man, if accused of inconsistency, will immediately allow it, and disarm an opponent at once; for where is the use of urging a man upon a point which he readily grants, and about which he appears to be utterly careless?

'He had no objection to suppose inconsistency in his language on two occasions of a similar nature,' viz. voluntary contributions.

"He would not answer how far 'an eager desire to carry his immediate purpose might have hurried him in the assertions he made use of.' And, 'perhaps, in the eagerness of debate, he had employed expressions with inconsiderate warmth.' Mr. W. April 7, 1794.

"After this, Mr. Grey had no need to express the 'pain he felt, that a gentleman should treat even his own opinions so lightly, as to say he had inconsiderately taken up arguments which he could not justify, for the sake of carrying his purpose for the moment; and that he should do this at a solemn meeting of his county. And what must be thought of a gentleman acting with such levity?'

"Mr. Grey, we all know, is very properly tenacious of an opinion once expressed; But the future minister of this country is

Digitized by Google

well read in that great master of nature, Shakespeare, and acts upon the magnanimous plan of indifference to any thing he may have said or done. When Justice Shallow upbraided Falstaff with having broken into his park, and stolen his deer, 'I have, Master Shallow,' replied Falstaff, 'I have—so I hope that's answered.'

"3. Under the protection of this courageous indifference (a better protection than a 'sevenfold shield'), such a man will securely praise in 1795 a motion concerning volunteer corps, because it went farther than the former measures of 1778 and 1782, and 'made the force applicable to the defence of the whole of the country.' And in 1803 he will as securely condemn the measure which establishes and extends the principle itself of 1795, and will prove that the volunteer force is no better than an 'armed rabble,' fit only to 'consume provisions,' to 'choak up the roads,' and to 'stand in the way of the regulars *.'

"4. Such a man will say in 1803, that the country cannot meet France single-handed, for it is 'out of condition to go to war.'—March 9. Nor will he care if an opponent reminds him, that in Dec. 1794 he maintained, 'it was not the character of the English to despond. Perseverance and invincibility were their characteristics: they had met France single-handed in her proudest day.' Or that in Jan. 1795 he 'warned the house not to be led away by the motives that induced gentlemen on the other side to paint the situation of the country as they had done!'

"Let other men be sore when contradictions are proved upon them; nothing of this sort can move the man who has 'no objection to suppose inconsistencies in his language.'

"5. Such a man will say in 1803, that regular troops alone are fit to meet an enemy, and that 'the militia and other corps are no better than a mob' in comparison of them: nor is it any thing to him, if in Nov. 1795 he undertook to answer Gen. M'Leod's objections to his fencible troops, (viz. that they could only defend the kingdom from invasion, or preserve its internal tranquillity), and to maintain, that 'it might as well be asked, Of what use are any troops at all? They were of double use, because they might be employed against the attacks of a foreign enemy; and they might be raised with greater facility than other troops, because they were not to go out of the country.' And it is equally immaterial to him, that in Dec. 1797 he proved the fencibles to have also this advantage, that 'they partook more of the nature of a militia, than of regular troops!'

"But other men may contradict themselves, and forget it after a few years. The future minister of this country will, in the same year, and very nearly in the same debate, contradict himself, and forget it, or (which is the same thing) will care nothing for the consequences. He will talk of the merit of regular troops alone for all purposes, offensive or defensive; and in a moment these invaluable regulars shall be turned about their business. 'Nothing but the line can defend us, and all levies should be into the line.' But 'the best method of defending the country, is to fight like the Vendeans—that is, behind trees, and bushes, and walls!' Now, a common debater would endeavour to secure himself in the best manner he could, when pressed by an opponent under circumstances so unexpected and untoward. If upbraided with abandoning the country to the protection of bush-fighters, he would answer, 'All the world knows with what vehemence I dwelt on the exclusive advantages of the line.' And if attacked on this undue preference of the line, he would turn upon his antagonist, and briskly ask, 'Did I not extol an armed peasantry above the line itself!' And, to say the truth, it is convenient enough to set out with two principles of opposite natures, and to take refuge in either, as necessity may require. But the destined minister of this country scorns these subterfuges, which are more calculated for ordinary men. He has 'no objection to suppose inconsistencies in any thing he says: and though some people may not like inconsistency in a minister, surely much more is gained on the ground of intrepidity; a quality particularly acceptable in dangerous times like these.

"6. Such a man will go to war for any thing. 'Any spot upon the earth or sea, though fit only for the contention of seals and sea-gulls, may assume a much more important aspect, and become a legitimate subject of diplomatic interference, if honour is connected with it.'—Mr. Windham, Nov. 1801.

"And hence we may see how unreasonable Burnet was, in saying that it seemed an odd thing for France to go to war formerly about some old furniture of the duchess of Orleans. But, on the other hand, the future minister of this country shall say, whenever he pleases, that honour is nothing, and interest every thing; nor shall he care for the contradiction.

"I will put the point of honour out of the question. I will not push it to a wild, extravagant, and chivalrous excess; for national honour, when rightly understood, is, generally speaking, nothing more than national interest. In general, there is nothing dishonourable in giving up this or that, when it is not disadvantageous to the national interest.'—Mr. Windham, Nov. 1802.

"It is the privilege of greatness to be careless about itself, while it draws the attention of all towards it. Thus the destined minister

* 'I despise the rabble of volunteers.'—Pol. Reg. Sept. 17.

Digitized by Google

of this country talks as humour suggests; and all parties look to him as their patron. To the high-flying spirits he carries himself, as he well expresses it, in a 'wild, extravagant, and chivalrous excess.' And while he is in this humour, 'he will deplore neither the destruction of commerce, nor the decay of manufactures, nor the loss of resources, nor the total annihilation of wealth.' —*Mr. Windham*, 1797. Nor will he have any objection (if he is pushed upon the question) to hold out to his brave countrymen, the *inviting* prospect of a never-ending war, if the country should be so fortunate as to have him for first minister!

"It is asked, Are we, on the principles I have laid down, to wage an eternal war? —I answer, 'that, on the principles I have stated, it is clear that there is an eternal resolution on the part of France, to destroy this country: and I am unable to see any other alternative!'—Mr. Windham, Nov. 7, 1801. But, in a moment, this high strain shall stop, and to the money getters it shall be proclaimed, that the beginning and the end of all wars, is interest alone; for 'honour, when rightly understood, is nothing more than interest:' and the nation may give up any thing, when it is not 'disadvantageous to the national interest' to part with it. Who does not see, from all this, that Mr. Pitt has great reason to be 'jealous of the ascendancy of Mr. Windham,' and that the one gentleman, who 'alone is proper for the station of first minister,' is far exceeded by the other gentleman; who 'lends the weight of his talents,' and to whom 'all the sound part of the nation look, at this crisis, for their opinions' concerning honour, and interest, and everlasting hostilities."

ART. XLVIII. *Four Letters to the Chancellor of the Exchequer, &c. By* WILLIAM COBBETT, 8vo. pp. 72,

IF we were members of parliament, and as hearty in our opposition to ministers as the noted author of these Four Letters, we should not pursue the same line of criticism. Far from attempting to invalidate any flourishing statements of the revenue, we should not only admit, but corroborate, them. We should endeavour to indicate those items, which had produced more to the public than was accounted for by office. We should endeavour to detect those private subtractions from the receipt, which supply a criminal expenditure. We should hold up the increasing abundance of revenue as a reason for alleviating the harsher clauses of money-bills, and for selecting very critically the less grievous projects of taxation from among the superfluous claims of ministerial precaution. We should object to levying more within the year than the yearly demand requires. We should found on the boast of repletion, the expediency of abstinence. But discontent has always its routine; and ministers so well understand it, that the line of opposition expected is, in fact, a convenient hostility. By representing their resources as unproductive, they are assisted in heavier assertion: by announcing that their estimates of expenditure are deficient, they are propped in extravagant provision for them: by mapping the progressive scale of our outgoings, the public mind is prepared for the continuation of the habitual augment. The art of embarrassing cannot consist in repeating that catechism of objection, which has been said these twenty years, without producing embarrassment. The result of Mr. Cobbett's dissection of the financial statements of the minister is thus given:

"Total income of the Consolidated fund, in the year which ended on the 5th of Jan. 1808, including arrears of income-tax, &c. &c. - - -		£32,423,605
"Add, for further produce of new taxes, which were imposed last year, but which were under collection only part of the year - -		2,000,000
		34,423,605
"Deduct arrears of voluntary contributions	£5,000	
"— arrears of additional assessed taxes	47,125	
"— income duty*	2,305,267	
"— convoy duty	49,143	
"— corn bounties not paid out of the customs of last year, and, therefore, not to be included in the income of that year -	1,451,552	
		3,858,087

* Besides the three sums of arrears stated in the recapitulation of the preceding account, there are three other sums, stated under the detailed heads of income arising from the sources of 1798, 1799, and 1800. These make together 869,916l. which, added to the total of three sums specified in the recapitulation, produce a total of 2,305,267l. as is here stated.

" Total income of the Consolidated fund, in the present year, ending 5th of January 1804, unless increased by more new taxes - -	30,565,518
" Deduct total annual charge upon this fund, as the said charge is stated at the foot of the preceding official account	25,590,864
" Actual surplus of the Consolidated fund for this present year, ending 5th Janury 1804	4,974,654

" This statement, sir, is fair, clear, and correct. Every thing that you can possibly ask is allowed. I have taken your own figures, and by those very figures I have produced a result, which incontestibly proves the deception contained in your ways and means laid before parliament on the 10th December. In those ways and means for defraying the expenses of the army, navy, ordnance, and miscellanies for the present year, ending 5th Jan. 1804, you took credit for 6,500,000l., as the surplus of the Consolidated fund during the present year; and, unless your accounts now laid before parliament are false, or, unless you augment the income of the fund by new taxes imposed this year, I have proved, that the said surplus will amount to no more than 4,974,654l. a sum which falls 1,525,346l. short, not only of your estimate of the surplus, but of the credit which you took on account thereof, in your ways and means of the 10th December last. To this point, sir, I wish to hold you."

The postscript contains an amusing detection of those tricks of office, by which accounts, made up for the public eye, are swelled in conspicuous places. The sum of 20,170l. was taken from 1801, and included in 1802, in order *to turn the corner of the million*, as Mr. Cobbett phrases it, and to increase the round number from 26 to 27 millions.

ART. XLIX. *The Day of Alarm: being a progressive View of the Spirit and Designs of the leading Men in France, &c.* 8vo. pp. 178.

IN order to give a specimen of the argumentative character of this writer, we will extract a page or two.

" Full of that arrogant confidence which prompts them to assert the most palpable falsehoods, these shameless apologists have thought proper to record in lamentable strains what they denominate the massacre of Copenhagen. Who that knew not the real truth and nature of the event, to which they have affixed so shocking an idea, would not be led to imagine, that, in violation of treaties, and that against the common faith which ought to subsist between nations, and on which a peaceable and friendly neighbour depended for his security, Great Britain rushed upon him unaware, and shed his blood without mercy? Who that knew it not, would think that France, having succeeded by its intrigues in forming a combination of the three northern powers against Great-Britain, a British fleet sailed to the Baltic, and destroyed the Danish navy at Copenhagen, and would probably have done the same to the navies of Sweden and of Russia, had they not had recourse to a treaty, which put an end to the hopes of France from that quarter?

" When individuals take up the pen in defence of public measures, it is requisite to warn them, that without a strict adherence to truth, they will certainly injure the cause in which they are engaged. So infamous a perversion of facts as that above cited, is a notorious sample of French duplicity, and want of the commonest honesty; and ought to put upon his guard every man who seeks for information. The audacity of the French knows no bounds in these matters. It costs them nothing to invent the most atrocious, as well as the grossest forgeries. Thus they have lately ascribed to British malice and rancour, the assasination of their two deputies at the negociations of Radstadt, and have had the impudence to extend the like execrable insinuations to some of the vilest and most horrid events during the war.

" Happily for the British character, it is of itself a sufficient refutation of such abominable calumnies: they are believed no where, and the French have been universally branded as liars. But they are not to be daunted in the career of falsities upon which they have lately entered: they seem to think it in their power to distort the most authentic facts, for the purpose of deceiving nations and preventing them from forming just conceptions of the politics and transactions of France. They represent the wisest statesmen in the various courts of Europe, as uniformly of opinion, that the many alliances that have been formed with Great-Britain, have constantly proved pernicious to them, and serviceable only to Great-Britain."

Here is much declamation, but not the slightest attempt to apologise for the attack on Copenhagen. The author would do well to read Seidelin's account of the engagement. The Dane's broken English will amuse him; and he may perhaps begin to suspect that both the projection and the conduct of the enterprise are to incur the eventual censure of history.

Digitized by Google

ART. L. *Reply to some Financial Mistatements in and out of Parliament.* 8vo. pp. 68.

THE impudence of peculation which ad introduced itself among the establishments dependent on the admiralty, uring Lord Spencer's superintendance, ust have convinced ministers, as well the public, that enormous abuses freently prevail in subordinate offices, nd that vigilance in a financier is as roductive as a budget. We have little oubt that ministers are grossly deceiv- in the supposed produce of the seve- taxes; and that the revenue exceeds many millions annually the timid and ntilated statements which are shown out to excite our patriotic pity, when y come a begging to parliament.

O fortunatos nimium sua si bona norint.

It cannot be doubted that the public s in the habit of undervaluing its prosrity, and of thinking too meanly of its ources; because a portion of them ver meets the general eye at all, but ses from hand to mouth, without first ing dished out on the government le. This writer endeavours to infuse tional confidence; to cast up stock the nation on as favourable a footas if the creditors were to be called gether; to estimate our well-being by e weight of our burdens, and place, ke caryatids, our perfection in our supportance. For instance,

" The first point to be examined in this t of the subject, is the account of ships ilt and registered in Great-Britain, which r. Cobbett professes to have given in a mplete state in his Supplement. But, with- troubling our readers to refer to that rk, we shall completely dispel all the aprehensions they may have been disposed to rtain, by quoting the following very ort official abstract, signed by the register neral, viz.

" That the average number of ships built d registered in the different ports of Great Britain in three years, ending 5th January 1798, was 618, and the amount of their tonnage 60,949. That in three years, ending 5th January, 1802, the number of vessels was 817, and their tonnage 103,071. And that in the year 1802, the number of vessels was 967, and their tonnage 104,789."

" We could here, if it were necessary, pursue the comparison further, by examining the accounts of the different ports; but we think it will be more satisfactory to observe, that the number of vessels belonging to the British empire, which, on the 30th of September, 1801, amounted to 19,772, their tonnage being 2,037,000, and the number of men employed 143,987, had, in the year 1802, increased to 20,060 vessels, 2,078,561 tons, and 152,269 men, although the returns are stated to be incomplete. But Mr. Cobbett observes, that 'an account of the number of men and tons of shipping in the merchant service, sailing inwards and outwards during the aforementioned years, would have been more satisfactory, particularly if made up with a due regard to the spirit of truth; but, as no such account has yet been presented, we must, for the present at least, look upon that which we have just examined as containing a proof of a small positive decline, and of a very considerable comparative decline, in the mercantile marine of the country."

" As Mr. Cobbet must have known, long before his letters were reprinted, that such an account had been presented in the usual regular and official form, we must suppose that he objects to it as wanting perhaps that 'spirit of truth' which so evidently characterises his own publications. We shall, however, take the liberty to state the result.

" In the year 1802, the number of vessels and their tonnage, which entered inwards and cleared outwards, was as follows, viz.

" Inwards, 17,355 vessels, 2,273,594 tons.

" Outwards, 16,364 vessels, 2,087,789 tons.

" Whereas in the year 1801, as may be seen by a reference to the accounts for that year, they amounted only to 15,844 vessels, 2,158,775 tons, entered inwards; and 15,908 vessels, 2,150,501 tons, cleared outwards."

When one considers the easy taxability of the rent derived from all this shipping, and of that yielded by our lands, houses, machines of manufacture, and canal-craft; when one considers that coals, cattle, and many other objects of popular consumption, are not yet touched by the Midas fingers of the chancellor of the exchequer; when one considers that a land-tax, co-extensive with the whole mass of our colonial possessions, would be but a just retribution for the utility of our protection,—one is tempted to suspect that taxation is yet in its infancy, and that the sprawling arms of the full-grown giant will at once open loans in Calcutta, and budgets at Surinam.

Digitized by Google

ART. LI. *A Supplement to a comparative View of the Public Finances: containing an Account of the Management of the Finances to the present Time. By* W. MORGAN, F. R. S. 8vo. pp. 114.

THE financial writings of the acute and accurate Mr. William Morgan, which comprehend so admirable an hostile criticism on the conduct of Mr. Pitt, during his chancellorship of the exchequer, are here continued to an advanced period of the administration of Mr. Addington. They prove, that a precisely analogous system of management still prevails; and that whatever grounds of alarm or admiration justly operated before, are still entitled to agitate or tranquillize the attentive public. It appears to us, that Mr. Morgan appreciates, very equitably, the amount of the national incumbrances, but that he somewhat undervalues the national resources. Mr. Pitt's errors were chiefly two. During peace, he always endeavoured to raise the funds, by overstrained statements of the produce of the revenue; whereas he ought then to have depreciated them, in order to accelerate the extinction of the debt. During war, he often attempted to raise the supplies within the year; whereas a bolder system of borrowing, and a more lenient system of taxation, would have interfered less sensibly with the comforts of the people; and his loans, instead of being made in a five per cent. stock, redeemable at par, were mostly made in a three per cent. stock, likely to rise on a peace greatly above sixty, and thus to cost, for its redemption, vastly more than the capital advanced. An active attention to prefer those forms of taxation, which, like the land-tax, are reconvertible into capital, is another very important duty of the minister of finance; but the structure of our two houses of parliament renders the taxation of fixed property more difficult than it ought to be. The expenders of rents are the most unproductive and useless class of citizens; their income is a fairer object of erosion, than that of the industrious, commercial, productive, or useful classes.

The concluding paragraphs well merit the serious attention of every friend to British prosperity:

"It was my intention to have proceeded further with this subject, as well as to have noticed several other particulars connected with the present management of the finances; but the nation is involved in another war, and these, though in themselves very serious evils, are now rendered matters of comparatively little importance. The income tax, and all the other dreadful auxiliaries which the late minister successively tried to no purpose, are united in one general mass, and, as if his successor wished to exceed even the boldest of his attempts, the funds themselves are to become an object of taxation. If the war begins with an attack so direct and undisguised, upon all public faith and security, what limits shall be prescribed to the sacrifices which may be demanded during the course of it. But here I shall drop the subject. Having completed my account of the finances to the conclusion of the late war, and of the truce which succeeded it, I shall leave others to pursue the discussion through the present contest.

"In all my publications on this subject, it has been my earnest endeavour, as far as lay within my abilities, to warn the nation of the danger to which it was exposed, from the extravagance and profusion which have dissipated the public treasure:—and feeling, as I do, an ardent wish for its welfare and happiness, I am grieved to think of how little avail every effort has proved to check the growth of an evil which increases the distress and must terminate in the ruin of the kingdom. As I have already observed, the indifference of the nation in a season so big with danger, is truly awful and astonishing. Encumbered with a debt of more than five hundred millions, and just soothed with the hope of emerging from a war the most expensive and sanguinary, we can behold ourselves deprived of this hope, and plunged at once into another war, more dreadful and ruinous without the slightest murmur of apprehension or discontent. Whether the present is a just and necessary war, or not—whether it arises from the inordinate ambition of one party, or the wretched incapacity of the other, the consequences must be equally fatal to the credit and resources of the country. So long as the annual expenditure requires fifteen or twenty millions to be raised over and above the annual income, the pressure must in length accumulate till it exceeds the strength to bear it. The expedients which have been once tried without success for raising the greater part of the supplies within the year are again proposed, and will probably be adopted. But this attempt to relieve posterity by increasing the present burthens to raise a sum sufficient for discharging the principal, when it is hardly possible to provide for the interest of the debt, is absurd and imprudent in the highest degree, and can only serve to hasten the catastrophe which it is designed to prevent. The public, however, in their present state of insensibility, rather

Digitized by Google

e awakened by a sense of their danger, may hoose to confide in such expedients, and to uffer themselves to be lulled into security by lorid declamations on the commerce and pulence of the country. Under these cir-umstances, it will be lost labour to reason nd expostulate. But the period must come when this delusion will vanish away, and we shall be convinced by dire experience, that neither the prosperity nor even the existence of a nation can ever be secure, unless firmly established on the foundations of peace and economy."

ART. LII. *Royal Letters. Correspondence between his Majesty, the Prince of Wales, the Duke of York, and Mr. Addington, respecting the offer of Military Service made by his Royal Highness the Prince of Wales.* 8vo. pp. 16.

IN perusing these letters there are ree subjects that naturally present emselves for investigation. The first the general question, whether in a go-rnment, constituted like the British, is adviseable that the heir apparent to e throne should be allowed to occupy high military situation. The second elates to the particular subject of dis-ssion between the prince of Wales and e king; and the third consideration is, w far it would conduce to the public od, if, in the present circumstances the nation, the prince was appointed general command.

The idleness and dissipation of princes favourite topic of ignorant decla-ion: as if it were possible that a n, without professional employment, rived, for the most part, of civil political influence, and of the very hest rank, could avoid giving way, re or less, to that indolence and love pleasure, from which nothing, but necessity of active exertion and ab-e from the contagion of bad exam-can secure even those who are the carefully educated. The pursuits literature, of natural and experi-al philosophy, are by no means d to be the favourite and habitual es of a prince of Wales; they are er connected with the art of govern-nor do they encourage those habits tivity in the dispatch of business, it prompt decision which are so arly valuable in the character of a ign. The want of responsibility alifies the heir of the throne for ercise of any ministerial office, mention other equally strong ob-s: the only alternative left, there-the army or the senate. It is be expected, and perhaps not to bed, that the direction of the military force, or even a high in-ent command, should be entrusted sovereign to his future successor; it likely that the prince should be ed with one considerably inferior nt, by his birth, he might seem to be entitled; the business of an officer, also, during peace, is by no means sufficient to occupy the time duly and regularly; and the habits and avocations of a camp are but little qualified to teach that respect for the laws and civil authority, which ought to be always characteristic of a king of Britain. But in the regular and active discharge of those duties which his situation as a peer of the realm appears to demand, a prince of Wales may be both fully, usefully, and honourably occupied. The study and practice of eloquence, the investigation of general principles of policy, and their application to real life, are pursuits not only highly respectable, but strictly professional in the man who is destined by birth to fill the highest office in the state. Being possessed of no immediate patronage, his opposition could not thwart any wise and patriotic design of ministers, but would be a most valuable check upon any unwise or unprincipled projects. The proceedings of the house of peers would be viewed with more interest than at present, and their influence on the public mind would more nearly balance that of the house of commons. While the sovereign continued vigorous, and his ministers able, the weight of the prince would be comparatively small; as, on the other hand, in contrary circumstances, it would, as it ought to do, increase; and its advance or retrogression being visible to the nation, the improvement of the commonwealth must be the aim, and the public approbation the reward of both parties.

It appears from these letters, that the prince of Wales solicited the king in 1798 to be allowed to accompany the army on foreign service: this was refused, but a promise was made, that if any thing should happen at home, the prince "should be first and foremost." In consequence of this, his royal highness, upon the prospect of invasion, requested to be promoted in the army; naturally supposing that the heir to the throne was not in a situation to be "first

Digitized by Google

and foremost," while occupying no higher rank than that of a colonel of dragoons. This request was denied, because, according to the duke of York, it was expressly stipulated, when the prince received his regiment, that he should receive no further promotion in the army. This is denied by the prince of Wales, and here the matter rests for the present. On these transactions do not presume to give any opini but we think that the national inte are by no means endangered, in ref to entrust the command of an arm an officer who has never had an o tunity of being engaged in actual litary service.

ART. LIII. *Observations on the Temper and Spirit of the Irish Nation at the p Crisis. By* J. P. WINTER, *Esq.* 8vo. pp. 50.

THIS pamphlet is written with considerable elegance: our readers will be gratified by the following extract.

"Unfortunately there are men, whose chief object seems to have been to perpetuate discord; who, assuming to be themselves the support of government, have been at pains to deprive it of the support of millions. Yes, there are those whose loyalty is more fatal to the state than the treason of others. These men are not the advocates of power, that all may be secure under its protection; but they would fain ally themselves to power, that they may injure and defame with more audacity. In the midst of a populous nation, they have no country: they are but the members of a party. Reviling all who subscribe not implicitly to their opinions, continually repeating and perverting the tale of our calamities, they suffer not the better feelings of the country to prevail, and unite us together in amity. They seem fearful lest harmony and concord, established among all ranks and parties, should deprive them of their wonted gratifications, and, leaving them no object to vilify and insult, should leave their minds without occupation.

"Should any symptoms of discontent break out in the country, (and it is perhaps too much to flatter ourselves that there will be none) these men will immediately clamour for the adoption of the harshest and most violent measures, such as their intemperate zeal may dictate, and which shall give full scope to their vengeful passions. Let us, for the sake of the country and humanity, hope that their wishes will not be indulged, nor their suggestions listened to. It is undoubtedly reasonable, when the safety of the state is endangered, that the hands of government should be strengthened, and measures of additional security adopted. But there is a point, beyond which a just and honourable man will not go, even to protect himself from threatened destruction. These violations of order to preserve order; these outrages to restrain outrages; these short cuts of policy by which the innocent and the guilty are confounded, however they are pretended to be justified by necessity, do in fact originate in some vile and contemptible passion; in party rancour, which seizes the opportunity of gratifying its malignity, or in coward fear, which thinks every thing excused by its apprehensions of danger. The of true greatness of soul despises no les he abhors them. He prepares such of defence as justice and honour sanc and waits the event with calm intrep He maintains the justice of his cause firmness and resolution, but, rather stoop to be the doer of wrong, he perfe perish.

"Nor is this character of magnan less wise, in the main, than it is humane generous. It gives a lustre and respect cause, which do it much more effectua vice than the dishonourable precautions timid or cruel policy; which virtuous participate in with reluctance, or keep from with indignation.—It never surel be the interest of a government to con itself with the violators of law and the petrators of outrage. Thought it n necessary it should unsheath the swo never ought to throw aside the robes of tice. When it appears disarrayed an vested of the sacred symbols of its ri authority; when it enters the lists wi opponents in their own mode of wa and engages them with their own we we are puzzled at the scene before us: w longer recognize the depositaries of legit power and the public majesty; we see violence and faction, and scarcely k where to fix our hopes, or whether ground of hope remains. Such is the to which a country is reduced by intem counsels; but let us trust that we shall thus witness their fatal preponderance."

It ought to be the object of all p cal writers to define the remedies o wrongs they state; to recommend ness and conciliation is not enou Will any thing, ought any thing, s of catholic emancipation suffice to quiet to Ireland? What forbids emancipation? Is it the bigotry of church of England? Let the tole bishops be translated, and the lib clergy patronized, until the literary of the body changes. Is it a conspi of orange-men? Let the public ene be impeached. "The ancient cou ragement (says Pym, in his admir speech touching my lord of Straffo

Digitized by Google

men that were to defend their coun-
s, was this, that they were to hazard
ir persons for their altars and hearths,
their religion and their houses: but by
arbitrary way that was practised in
nd, and counselled in England, no
had any certainty either of his re-
on, or of his house, or any thing
to be his own. But, besides this,
arbitrary courses have an ill opera-
upon the courage of a nation, by
sing the hearts of the people. A
e condition doth, in time, beget in
a slavish temper and disposition.
e that live so much under the whip
the pillory, and such engines of
torture as were frequently used by the earl of Strafford, they may have the dregs of valour, sullenness, and stubbornness, and revenge, which may make them prone to mutinies and discontents: but of those noble and gallant affections, which put men on brave designs and attempts for the preservation or enlargement of a kingdom, they are hardly capable. Shall it be treason to embase the king's coin, though but a piece of twelve-pence, and must it not needs be a greater treason to embase the minds of his subjects, and to set upon them a stamp and character of disaffection?"

r. LIV. *Hints on the Policy of making a National Provision for the Roman Catholic Clergy of Ireland, addressed to J. Bagwell, Esq.* 8vo. pp. 48.

HE simplest method of making a
ming national provision for the Ro-
catholic clergy of Ireland, would
o repeal the act of uniformity.
e advowsons could then be pre-
d by catholic proprietors to catholic
s; and thus the established religion
d, in the country, every where co-
e with the actual distribution of
erty. In towns, the rights of pre-
tion might be purchased by pa-
; and an elective priesthood would
arise, coinciding in religious opi-
with the population.
Great Britain some changes of
her kind would take place. The
al petitioning clergy would castrate
liturgies, to suit the modesty of
creed. The dukes of Grafton,
other socinian noblemen (if others
be), would be able to present their
ices to the unitarian clergy. The
reships, and similar elective insti-
s in the large towns, could be con-
d for by calvinists, methodists, bap-
and others, who are now obliged to be
atists. Thus a practical comprehen-
of the dissentient sects would be
plished in the established church:
her words, a co-establishment of
nominations would, by this easy
s, be effected; and each sect would
e a share or interest in the eccle-
al property, exactly proportioned
numbers and its opulence. No
would have been disturbed in his
, or in his property. All would
to differ about doctrine, and would
about discipline or constitution.
equently, the perpetuation of the
nal church, and not its overthrow,
ld shortly become the object of all
sects universally. This would perhaps strengthen the church too much for the convenience of the statesman; but it would secure a religion progressive with the culture of the community.

Our author's proposal is rather different.

"Let the roman catholic clergyman be appointed by and provided for by government, and you lay the foundation-stone of Irish prosperity, of true catholic emancipation."

He thus proceeds in the sketch of his plan:

"If government pay the priest, it is but just it should appoint him. As to mere questions of faith, I see no serious objections to their remaining in the hands of the *old lady*, who now appears to have lost every spark of that termagant humour which once made her so very formidable to her neighbours. The appointment of bishops should exclusively belong to government; that of priests, perhaps, may be subject to a modified approbation of the diocesan, who, in case of objection, should state the same to government, which might then finally decide. It may be right to consider each priest in the light of a vicar, and never to admit a curate but in case of necessity, to be first allowed by the bishop. Moderate stipends will suffice men professing a life of celibacy. Accumulation for the support of a family can never be an object with them; and the dread of indigence in the decrepitude of age may be guarded against, by admitting substitutes under certain regulations. In endeavouring to avoid the dangerous extremes of penury on the one hand, and of affluence on the other, it will be satisfactory to contemplate the happy result of the equal and moderate system established in Scotland; a system which diffuses social order, industry, and content over the bleak and barren hills

Digitized by Google

of the north. There, if I am rightly informed, the parish minister enjoys an income of about 100l. per annum. Were the income of the parish priest in Ireland to be fixed at 80l. per annum, it may be found sufficient to raise him above the contempt of poverty, and to supply him with those comforts and accommodations essential to the independence and effectual performance of his clerical functions. In great towns, where the dearness of provisions and house-rent make a greater expence necessary, it may be right to advance the income to 100l. per annum. With regard to the bishops, who doubtless would be men of respectability, their revenues, perhaps, ought not to be less than 300l. per annum. A minute accuracy is not necessary in a general outline of a plan which I shall offer, merely to show the easy practicability of the proposed measure. I have endeavoured to be as correct as my materials would allow; at the same time I consider the establishment of the principle the main desideratum. Agree to the measure, and the means will suggest themselves. There are in Ireland about 1200 parishes, including unions, which are no more than extensive parishes. Now the number of parishes, multiplied by a hundred, gives 120,000l. This sum, divided by eighty, the average income proposed for each priest residing in the country, leaves 24,000l.; a sum which may be found sufficient to pay the bishops, and such additional priests as may be judged necessary for the very extensive parishes or unions. Now, to raise this sum I propose that a tax be laid upon all tythes, somewhat similar to the income tax, and to make up the deficiency by a rate on the neat or profit rent of land. Now, if 800 of the 1200 parishes be taken at 500l. per annum, a tax of 10 per cent. will give the sum of 40,000l. In like manner, if the remaining 400 parishes be taken at 300l. per annum each, they will give 12,000l. making together 52,000l.; which will leave the sum of 68,000l. to be raised by assessment, being 56l. for each parish—a very inconsiderable sum, compared to the poor-rates raised in the best-administered parishes of England."

This proposed taxation of the tythes will not be very acceptable to the established clergy; this poor's rate for a new priest will not be very acceptable to the parishioner; and the whole plan proceeds on the supposition of a rivalry or competition of religious in each parish. Why should the catholic priest stop at his ten per cent. on the tythes? Will not he perceive that it only depends on his zealotry and activity more to halve it? Let parishes be encouraged to buy in their advowsons, and make them elect teachers of any description; it is for the minority, if they choose a different faith, to provide for their own pastors.

It is much to be wished, that some person of weight in the religious world would formally propose a repeal of the act of uniformity.

ART. LV. *Hints for the Improvement of the Irish Fishery. By* GEORGE N. WHATELY. 8vo. pp. 45.

DICTYNNA, a nymph of Diana, in other words, an old maid, invented, if certain antients may be trusted, the art of making nets. She is said to have been beloved by Minos, the wise lawgiver, and had temples on the shores of Crete. To Dictynna then the human race is indebted for that vast supply of food, and demand for labour, which derive from the use of the fishing-net; nor should the modern legislator omit to offer homage to her art, or to collect on the shores of his empire the establishments of her votaries.

It happens however that many things are needful to make fishing thrive, besides the good-will of the magistrate and the coasters. A country must have become very populous, for the contiguous district to consume what the coast can catch, at a price worth pursuing. Sannazarius no where describes fishwomen indifferent about what their wares will fetch. The market of a large luxurious town should be, within reach. If fish are caught for distant markets and are salted up for exportation, the capital requisite to provide the salt and warehouses, the barrels, and the and shipping, is immense; and an established mercantile interest must exist to forward every thing to its destination. How should these be every where found in so rude and unsettled a country as Ireland? Though some evangelical christians will subscribe largely to buy in the produce of the fishery, and distribute it in gratuitous meals to any 4 or 5000, whom humanity, patriotism, or piety might convene, there is no prospect of an effectual demand. The artificial consumption of a certain religion, which sets apart a hundred days in the year for the eating of fish, is not sufficient to overcome the natural disadvantages. Until capital be more abundant and more diffused, St. Francis might plead for the improvement of the Irish fishery, and the fishes hearken unalarmed.

Digitized by Google

One important use, however, is likely
o result from directing to this branch
f industry, the literary patriotism of
e Irish: it will occasion the collection
d preservation of much information
ncerning fishery; it will secure the
cord of much traditional experience.
e produce of agriculture, on the
e extent of surface, is said to have
creased one sixth, since its practices
ve been published, commented, and
mpared: a similar result will be the
sequence of disserting on *marine agri-
ture*. The migrations of fish along
eastern coast, now take place nearly
month later than they did fifty years
o; but every observation favours the
spicion, that the same precise degree
temperature attracts them to the old
nks as before. The natural history
fish is an important study; it may be
rth while to offer national premiums
catching certain useless fish, merely
ause they interfere with the multipli-
ion of the useful kinds, as is done
wolves and moles.

The following is an important fact:

"The public is indebted for the introduc-
of the new mode of hake fishing by the
mel net*, to Thomas Walton, esq. of
ter-haven, near Kinsale. He conceived
it was practicable to invent an easier and more expeditious method of caption than by the customary one of lines. His reflection taught him to imagine, that the principle, on which the herring and mackarel nets are constructed, might be applied with equal success to the larger description of fish. He had a net so contrived, and the experiment surpassed his most sanguine expectations.

"The trammel in use is about 40 fathoms in length, and three in breadth with a mesh of five inches in diameter. Four of these nets, connected by a rope passing along the extremity of each, compose a set. This is sunk with leads to the bottom of the water. It is sustained in a perpendicular direction by means of corks affixed to the upper part of it. Thus, it arrests the progress of the fish, entangling by the gills and elsewhere, all those passing in its course; the smaller ones excepted. At each end of the connecting rope is fastened two heavy stones, which serve as anchors, besides two buoy-ropes, for the purpose of ascertaining its position."

In the present circumstances of the occidental island, it would perhaps be most expedient to institute a society for piscatory information. The means of transplanting shell-fish to an adapted beach, or of alluring whales to an airy bay, may, step by step, be ascertained, and England learn from Irish observers to pasture new fishes on her shoals.

Art. LVI. *Essays on the Population of Ireland, and the Characters of the Irish. By a Member of the last Irish Parliament.* 8vo. pp. 54.

THIS valuable pamphlet comprizes
dissertations; the one statistical,
he population of Ireland; the other
osophic, on the character of its inha-
ts.

he first is the more important essay:
plays greater research, and com-
s more valuable information. The
s of this writer's enquiries and spe-
ions are thus tabulated.

Assuming then that the people of Ire-
mounted, at the beginning of the last
y, to about one million, I find no dif-
in affirming, that on an average, since
r 1700, they have experienced an in-
of one-fifth or thereabouts every eleven
and that accordingly there were about

800,000	people in Ireland	in 1711
440,000	- - - - - -	in 1722
528,000	- - - - - -	in 1733
678,600	- - - - - -	in 1744
888,320	- - - - - -	in 1755
985,984	- - - - - -	in 1766
1183,174	- - - - - -	in 1777
1419.808	- - - - - -	in 1788
1559,769	- - - - - -	in 1799

would not, however, be understood to
that the increase of people in Ireland
was uniform throughout the course of the last hundred years. I have sufficient reason for suspecting that it was less remarkable for celerity towards the commencement, than towards the middle of the last century. I know that it was considerably retarded, during some of the above periods, by excessive emigrations. And I perceive ample grounds for entertaining an opinion that it has been much more rapid since 1777, and infinitely more so since 1785, than it was at any period anterior to the former year. The foregoing table therefore is not offered as an accurate exhibition of the periodical numbers of people in Ireland, notwithstanding its general and striking coincidence with the different computations that have been made; but merely as a useful guide, which certainly will not lead us beyond the truth, in our reasonings on the population of that country, so long as the political circumstances thereof continue in their present posture.

"According to Mr. Bushe's computation, which is now universally relied on, and which first served to dissipate a very great, and perhaps dangerous error, with regard to the subject on which I am writing, there were 4,040,000 inhabitants in Ireland in the year 1788. But that gentleman's computation probably falling short of the truth, as

* was not absolutely a trammel, although general report has given it that appellation.

Digitized by Google

is likely to be the case with most computations of a similar nature, grounded on taxes, and as indeed he himself expressly apprehended, we may take a medium between his statement and that in the table, and safely venture to affirm, that the number of people in Ireland, in the year 1788, was about 4,169,904.

"By the table it appears, that in the year 1799 there were about 5,159,769 people in Ireland. And it being a fact, ascertained by a variety of coincident circumstances, that the increase of houses from 1788 to 1799 was not merely equal, but greatly superior to that from 1777 to 1788, which last Mr. Bushe tells us was 173,058, we are thence abundantly warranted in inferring that there were at least 5,078,348 inhabitants in Ireland in 1799; the demonstrable excess of increase during the former period, beyond that of any preceding one, being more than sufficient to cover the loss incurred by the late rebellion. Or taking a medium, as before, between these two statements, consonantly to Mr. Bushe's sentiments, we may distinctly affirm that Ireland did contain 5,119,508 inhabitants in the year last-mentioned. And to exhibit the subject in a relative point of view, we may add, that the population of Ireland is actually superior, in point of density, to that of England; there being, according to Mr. Templeman's survey, 27,457 square miles in the former, the population whereof, including the increase by generation from 1799, does at present stand at about 5,497,500, giving about two hundred persons to every square mile; and, according to the same survey, 49,450 square miles in the latter, the inhabitants whereof, making suitable allowances for omissions in the late return, certainly do not exceed 9,444,950, giving about 191 persons to every square mile, or nine less than in Ireland.

"Were it necessary to have recourse to collateral proofs, in order to evince the rapid increase of people in Ireland, a very admissible one might be drawn from the importation of coals.

"In 1727 there were imported about 70,000 tons; in 1764, 161,970 tons; and, on an average of three years, to 1799, to the value of 322,588l."

It is not easy to persuade any nation that it gains by being judiciously taxed; and least so the very poor people of Ireland. Yet the fact is confirmed by universal experience. Taxation raises the price of spirits; suppose at the same time that it commutes part of the price of tea for a duty on windows. What is the consequence? The numerous classes are immediately reminded, that it is become expedient for them to employ less of their wages than before in the purchase of spirits, and more in the purchase of tea. Tea is drunk at home, spirits at the gin-shop. Hence an increased habit of domesticity sets in throughout the families of the poor. Tea requires a little apparatus of kettles, and cups and saucers. Hence an increased consumption of pottery, &c. by which the manufactures are benefited, and a greater habitual capital becomes vested in furniture: by which means the love of home, the fear of the workhouse, and the means of obviating a sudden pressure are all augmented. The worst taxes are probably those which endear objects of necessary popular consumption, as taxes on soap, candle, and sugar. Yet even these taxes, by raising the price of commodities, which must continue to be distributed in the same profusion, increase the returns of all the dealers in such commodities, and of course their gains. Those consumers who are chapmen, or who let their labour, make fresh contracts for their wares or their toil, and the eventual sufferer by such taxes is the idler, who lives on his rents, and whom it is an object to stimulate into employment. Taxes increase circulation, and circulation is the nourisher of every form of prosperity. To create and to destroy, to produce and consume in the greatest possible quantity, is the highest perfection of commercial community. Philosophers and paupers, who lead lives of privation, who have the fewest wants, and who accomplish the least expenditure, are the worst citizens of the commonwealth of industry.

In discussing the national character of the Irish, our author does not do sufficient justice to their placability. We as their bursts of indignation may, their reconciliations are so too; and government, which has recently quelled a rebellion, might with a few concessions rely on a glow of allegiance. Why not encourage the Irish to form volunteer associations? Pay their poor for coming to drill. Let them elect their own officers, and that annually. To these officers let government allow a liberal income. It would thus both know and conciliate the individuals on whom the obedience of Ireland depends; and would find the voluntary conversion of volunteers into regulars very easy. A country, where the commercial and settled classes are disproportionately few, where courage and enterprise abound, and where a hardier education peculiarly adapts the multitude for the life of the camp.

Digitized by Google

ART. LVII. *An Investigation into the Principles and Credit of the Circulation of Paper-money, or Bank Notes in Great Britain; as protected or enforced by Legislative Authority, under the Suspension of Paying them in Cash; in the Extent of such Paper-money, the Responsibility attached to it, and its Effects upon Prices of Commodities, individual Income, Agriculture, Manufactures, Commerce, and upon the Course of Exchange with Foreign Countries. Together with a Discussion of the Question, whether the Restraining Law in favour of the Bank of England from paying Notes in Money ought or ought not to be continued as a Measure of State?* By WILLIAM HOWISON, *Esq.* 8vo. pp. 75.

FORGETFUL of the old proverb, 'that good wine needs no bush,' Mr. Howison has given us an explanatory page, in which he has taken care to tell no subject which is discussed in the pamphlet.

The restriction bill, and the general principles of banking, have of late received a very ample and acute investigation from various quarters; as we stated our opinion at large on the nature of paper currency in our review of Mr. Thornton's "Enquiry, &c." (See Ann. Rev. vol. I. p. 384.) we shall not repeat here. Mr. Howison feels very sensibly the general alarm on the present alarming unlimited extension of paper credit, and reasons forcibly on the impolitic annulment of that law of William and Mary which prohibited the bank from advancing money to government, except on the credit of parliament. The restriction bill, if intended to be permanent, or even of indefinite duration, is merely to be reprobated; so long as it remains unrepealed, indeed, every bank of England note is stamped with a deliberate lie upon its face. The measure, however, from the circumstances of the country at the time of its enactment, was generally thought to be necessary, and therefore it was defended. The subject cannot long lie neglected: it must come before the public again, and will be discussed with a judgment matured by time and sanctioned by experience.

The following passage will suffice to shew the style in which these remarks are written:

"In the intercourse betwixt foreign countries every advance upon commodities must either be repaid in the course of exchange, or discounted on the price on going out of the country in which it is produced. For in as much as the money in any country is depreciated, the goods or merchandise of any other country sold to it, will be just so much raised in price on entering the country.

"Excessive circulation of bank notes beyond the only possible criterion, their convertibility into gold, which the restraining law has done away entirely, would, from the preceding observations, so far as they may be just, appear to be attended with much injury to the community at large in various respects; more particularly, first, in bringing the public under contribution of an annuity to the banks of a million and a half, equal to the interest of thirty millions of estimated circulating paper, without any value whatever—this sum in real money formerly would have been equal to the expence of a campaign in war: secondly, in the diminution of the fixed income of every individual in the state, of one half, or at least of a third; and of course in a proportional deprivation of his comforts; thirdly, in increasing the difficulties to agriculture, to manufactures, and to commerce, by enhancing capital and interest employed in them by raising the prices of labour and commodities, and by diminishing the consumption; fourthly, in encreasing the evils of an unfavourable course of exchange with foreign countries: and finally, in laying the foundation for, and leading directly to a general explosion of all confidence founded on paper credit; and which may be attended by the ruin of many individuals at least, if not by public confusion."

ART. LVIII. *Thoughts on the Restriction of Payments in Specie at the Banks of England and Ireland.* By LORD KING. 8vo. pp. 106.

WHETHER Lord King has yet acquired that celerity of thinking, which enables him to deliver off hand the inferences of his judgment, we know not. The speeches attributed to him in the papers, however honourable to the state of his acquired information, did not impress that degree of admiration which his written treatise is adapted to secure. Before Mr. Pitt to attempt so lucid a statement of the topics here discussed, he would most probably fail in the work. Perspicuity, precision, and that decidedness of practical counsel, which always accompanies clearness of intellect, are not apparently within his competence. But in Lord King's they are: and as this nobleman's views in finance are not at present inflected from the line of duty by any ambitious considerations of pen-

sonal expediency; by any disposition to prefer the interests of monopoly companies, of powerful combinations, and of leading individuals in the money-market, to those of the unprivileged, independent, and in the aggregate far more important commerce of the country, it would be reasonable to expect from his superintendance a wiser conduct of the exchequer. A pamphlet is the form in which a man of intellect may most unaffectedly advertise his power of mind, and his comprehension of science: it is then for his country to remark his expedient destination, and to invoke at the appropriate emergency his aid. Lord King ought to be heard in his own words.

"It must however be evident, that the advantages which thus result from the use of a paper currency depend altogether upon the fact of its exactly supplying the place of that coin which it represents; and this quality can only be possessed by a currency which is immediately convertible into specie at the option of the holder. So long as this power of conversion continues, the notes in circulation must be considered as equivalent to specie; since they exist only by the choice of the public, who, if they preferred gold and silver, might immediately receive them in exchange. But when the obligation to pay in coin ceases, the currency no longer retains this determinate value, but whatever may be the credit or solvency of those by whom the paper is issued, it becomes capable of being depreciated by excess of quantity. That the power of immediate conversion into specie is the only circumstance which can prevent this excess, or maintain the value of any paper currency, is practically shewn by the occasional discount upon exchequer bills and other government securities bearing interest, of which the payment is ultimately certain. A currency exposed to such fluctuations must evidently be a very unfit medium of exchange or standard of value.

"As all paper credit depends essentially upon confidence, it is one of the evils of the system to be exposed to great derangements in consequence of panics which produce runs, or sudden demands for cash, upon the banks which issue the paper. It now appears that for some time prior to February 1797, and indeed during the whole of the year 1796, the bank of England had been labouring under difficulties originating in an unfavourable exchange, but which were much aggravated by an extension of its issues to government, and an increasing demand for specie occasioned by public alarm. In consequence of this demand the directors found it necessary to diminish the issue of their notes, which in the beginning of the year 1797 were reduced from the average of between ten and eleven millions to nearly eight millions and a half. Had confidence been speedily restored, this reduction would probably have enabled them to survive the danger. But the executive government having for some reasons, thought it necessary to express their apprehensions of an invasion, and to take measures of precaution against hostile attacks, a general panic ensued, and a demand for specie from all parts of the country was made upon the bank of England. This brought affairs to a crisis: and the 25th of February 1797 the directors represented to government their inability to perform their engagements to their creditors, and their apprehension that, unless some immediate relief was taken for their relief, the bank would be exhausted of the whole of its cash.

"In this new and difficult state of things it is an important question to determine what is the system of conduct which true policy would have dictated. In cases of private commercial establishments of acknowledged solvency recourse is often successfully had upon such occasions, to associations of the principal creditors. It seems highly probable, that a similar measure would, in this instance, have been attended with similar good effects; and that the impending danger might have been prevented by an association of the merchants and bankers of London to support the credit of the bank, which would have been followed by other associations in all the great and commercial towns. Engagements of the same kind might have been entered into by the individuals of both houses of parliament, grounded upon such inquiries into the solvency of the bank, and the causes of its failure as those which in fact took place.

"If a positive law for the suspension of payments had been found unavoidable, it should have been limited to a peremptory time, under the most solemn parliamentary engagement that it should not again be renewed; and immediate provision ought to have been made for answering the demands of the public for gold by a new coinage to a considerable amount. Such a measure could not have been attended with any serious difficulty or expence; but had it even occasioned some degree of embarrassment, yet the sacrifice was too great for the support of commercial credit and national faith; and some struggle for such important objects might surely have been expected from that financial courage and fertility of resources, which upon occasions of a very different nature distinguished the measures of the late administration.

"Instead, however, of trying the effect of these natural and obvious remedies, recourse was at once had to the most violent means. An order of council was issued on the 26th of February for restraining the bank from payments in cash; and the restriction was confirmed by an act of parliament, which was afterwards renewed during the existing session.

Digitized by Google

"The bank of England usually issues its notes by discounting bills of exchange to merchants; and it has been supposed that, providing the bills are not fictitious, but relate to transactions between real debtors and creditors, the paper money which is thus issued can never exceed the amount which would necessarily circulate if the obligation to pay in specie existed. But the occasional convenience of the merchants has a very remote connection with the permanent demands of the public. Though we should suppose the bank to possess the means of distinguishing in all cases between real and fictitious bills; yet transactions may pass between individuals, and payments may be made by bills of exchange to a large amount, upon occasions and for purposes which have no reference to the number or amount of such transactions in the community at large. But it is certain that the directors of the bank have no such power of distinguishing between bills of different kinds; and that, in any general system of discounting, they must be liable to be imposed upon by what are called bills of accommodation. This uncertainty would occasion great difficulties and constant errors in the use and application of any rule for the regulation of currency founded upon the calls of the merchants for discounts.

"But a single instance of a great demand for discounts clearly unconnected with a general demand for currency may at once convince us that the rule itself has no just foundation. By the impolitic restrictions of the laws against usury, the bank of England, like other lenders, is prohibited from receiving an interest upon its loans of more than five per cent. But it may often happen that the rate of mercantile interest, and even that of government securities, exceeds this sum. Under such circumstances the merchants have a strong inducement to obtain money upon loans from the bank; and the demand for discounts in consequence of this inducement may be carried to any assignable extent. Demands originating in such causes have in fact frequently taken place at different periods during the late war; and the contrary effect of a diminished demand would naturally be produced by times of peace and prosperity when the rate of interest is low. Yet, at these periods, during which commerce is most flourishing, the currency and circulation of the country would naturally be the greatest.

"In real practice, it is well known that the directors of the bank do not consider the number or amount of good bills presented to them for the purpose of being discounted as furnishing the rule by which the amount of their issues is to be determined. Even since the period of the restriction, they have, on various occasions, thought it necessary to narrow their discounts. They are understood to give a certain limited credit to all the considerable bankers and merchants; and to discount for each a certain proportion of bills according to the extent of his credit. But so long as there is no obligation to exchange their notes for specie, it is evident that this proportion must be altogether arbitrary, and dependent upon the will and pleasure of the directors, not upon the actual wants or demands of the community.

"Some persons have thought, that the acknowledged solvency of the bank of England, and its ample sufficiency to pay the amount of its bills in circulation, are an abundant security against an excessive issue of paper; or at least that no danger is to be apprehended while the currency is confined within these limits. The fallacy of this opinion may be very easily shewn. It is perfectly obvious, in common cases, that the amount of a banker's capital, and his power of raising money, afford in themselves no proof or presumption whatever that he has the means of carrying his circulation to the same extent; and it is impossible to distinguish between the case of a common banker and that of the bank of England. A rule of limitation, therefore, founded upon the principle of solvency, would be still more inaccurate than a rule founded upon the demands of the merchants for discounts. By additional subscriptions the capital of the bank of England and the amount of its property are capable of being augmented to an indefinite extent; but no one will therefore contend that the national currency could be extended without limit, or that it would admit of any considerable increase without great depreciation. Of all possible securities for money the security of government has always been considered as the most solid and indisputable; yet navy and exchequer bills are often brought to a discount by excessive issues: and it is known by experience to those persons who conduct such financial operations, that no quantity of these securities can be forced upon the market beyond its actual demand, without producing a reduction in value.

"A mixed consideration of the price of bullion and the state of foreign exchanges would probably be the best practical rule by which the directors of the bank, during the suspension of their payments in cash, could regulate the issue of their notes; yet, in consequence of the irregularities which will hereafter be shewn to be produced by the balance of trade, it would on some occasions deviate from the true standard. But, whatever may be the principle by which the directors, since February 1797, have limited the issue of their notes, the following observations will prove that they certainly have not adopted this rule: though it is highly probable that a general consideration of the price of bullion and of the rate of exchange may have served to guard them against a flagrant and impolitic abuse of their powers.

"If the above reasoning is well-founded, it must follow that there is no method of discovering *à priori* the proportion of the circulating medium which the occasions of the

community require; that it is a quantity which has no definite rule or standard; and that its true amount can be ascertained only by the effective demand. In countries where the currency is carried on by the precious metals, the quantity is regulated, as in all other cases, by the skill and attention of individuals who are versed in this particular branch of trade; or, in other words, by the bullion merchant, who, in case of a redundant currency, withdraws the excess from circulation, and employs it in foreign commerce, or, in case of a deficiency, procures a new quantity of the metals to be converted into coin. Where the currency consists of paper convertible into specie, the excess or deficiency is in the same manner prevented by the demand of the public either for cash or notes as circumstances may require. A paper circulation which cannot be converted into specie, is deprived of this natural standard, and is incapable of admitting any other. The persons to whom the duty of regulating such a circulation is entrusted are in danger, with the very best intentions, of committing perpetual mistakes. The greatest possible degree of skill and integrity can only protect them against gross errors. They will not probably in one instance be exactly right.

"That the experience of the officers of the bank may in some respects have furnished them with the proper skill and knowledge of the regulation of such a currency (if it ought in any case to exist) it would be injustice to deny; but it may very reasonably be doubted, whether they possess sufficient firmness for the proper and independent exercise of so important and difficult a trust. Whatever respect may be due to the characters of the directors as individuals, it is impossible, after the transactions of 1796, to acquit them of blame in their corporate capacity. During the present restriction of payments in specie they are obviously exposed to great temptations. Political influence may occasion an improper increase of their accommodations to the executive government; and their direct interest in the profits made by the bank furnishes a constant inducement to the extension of their notes beyond the proper limits. It is the object of the following pages to shew, from indisputable facts, that there are strong reasons for believing that the directors of the bank of England, and, in a still greater degree, those of the bank of Ireland, have in reality yielded to these temptations, and that they have made an undue and improper use of the powers intrusted to them by Parliament."

It deserves notice, that in 1797 the circulation of English bank notes usually amounted to ten or eleven millions only: and that this circulation now amounts usually to fifteen or sixteen millions. The bank therefore circulates half as much again, in consequence of having obtained the patent for not paying in cash. The profits on an additional circulation of five millions of capital amount, at five per cent., which in discounting is the usual rate of interest, to two hundred and fifty thousand pounds yearly. It would be reasonable, that the bank should allow the country half this gain, as an indemnity for the risk which our whole public prosperity runs by tolerating the privilege. The bank would thus have to pay out of its profits, one hundred and twenty-five thousand pounds yearly in the form of a tax. Ministers have committed a dereliction of public duty in not obtaining some such allowance. A circulation adequate to the wants of London could probably not be furnished by any individual company, without the privilege of withholding specie. Were there no bank of England, but instead of it a great number of private banks, the circulation would indeed always be proportioned to the effectual demand. Where, on the contrary, there is only one company, panics may annihilate at once the only circulating medium, and withdraw exactly when it is most wanted, the whole pabulum of commerce. Against such panics the restriction is a real protection. So long as the system of a monopoly-bank is entitled to endure, long probably it will be found expedie to tolerate this portentous restrictio which embarks, on the reputation f solvency of one institution, the solidi of all the forms of metropolitan trade.

ART. LIX. *Remarks on Currency and Commerce.* *By* JOHN WHEATLEY, *Esq.* 8vo. pp. 268.

THE art of book-making improves by practice. It was formerly expected from an author, that he should collect his materials and draw his inferences in his closet, and present the result of compared facts and antagonist arguments to the public *after* the investigation. But now, the opinions intended to maintained, are first announced in crude pamphlet, then corrected in consistency by help of the hostile co mentaries of reviewers, and finally g nished with such corroborating facts, a few years of desultory reading can

fail to supply. Thus the Baconian method of philosophising is precisely inverted: instead of taking our conclusions from experience, we take our experience from conclusions, and invent a mass of *à priori* opinion, which Aristotelic philosophists would denominate truth.

We are told in the preface, that these remarks on currency and commerce are offered to the public, more as the prospectus of a future work, than as a distinct treatise in its present shape. They are subdivided into six chapters, of which the first proposes to demonstrate, 1. That an increase of the national stock of specie is an increase of currency, and not of capital; 2. That an increase of currency, is not an increase of wealth; and 3. That no one nation can possess a greater relative currency than another. The second chapter treats of the balance of trade; the third on commerce; the fourth on the depreciation of money; the fifth on the reformation of the paper currency of this country; and the concluding chapter, on the reduction of the national debt by the depression of money.

It is to the fifth chapter of this work that the public attention ought principally to be drawn; because the author has there ventured to found on theoretical principles, often equivocal and sometimes unintelligible, a most important and most dangerous practical counsel. In a season of alarm like the present, under ministers like the present, rash counsels may find admission; and the slowly accumulated prosperity of centuries may be annihilated at a blow. This author contends for no less than the total suppression of the country-banks; and for conferring on the bank of England a monopoly of the whole paper-circulation of Great Britain. We shall extract this prodigious speculation.

"In this review, I shall endeavour to prove that the paper of country banks must ever form an inefficient and dangerous medium of circulation, from its liability to sudden contraction in the period of alarm; and its tendency to as sudden an increase in the moment of security; and that its continuance is inconsistent with the stability of the national bank, and the general interests of the country.

"Between the termination of the American and the commencement of the late war, country banks were instituted in all the principal towns of the kingdom; and up to the year 1793, their notes had a free and easy circulation, without exciting much public uneasiness; though the bank entertained an early prejudice against them, from the difficulties which were likely to ensue to their own establishment. Upon the breaking out of the war, and the first tendency to alarm in the public mind, their stability was put to the test. The mere agitation occasioned by such an event, was sufficient to excite a suspicion of their credit: and, when once excited its suppression was impracticable: though at first partial and insignificant, it spread with irresistible rapidity, and increased in force as it increased in extent. The greater part of their notes was instantly contracted, and the currency of the country was reduced to such a degree, as to cause the utmost distress from an insufficiency of means to effect the customary payments. It is impossible for me to calculate the quantity withdrawn from the purposes of circulation: but I should not think that the reduction would be overstated at three millions. This sudden contraction of so large a proportion of our circulating medium, necessarily disabled the fulfilment of engagements, and produced an extent of calamity unparalleled in the history of this, or any other country. No less than one thousand three hundred and four bankruptcies were the consequence of the reduction.

"In this crisis, they made application to the bank of England for relief. But as the directors were alarmed at the difficulties that threatened their own institution, from the preceding issue of their paper, assistance was refused. The metropolis soon became distressed in the same proportion with the country towns; as great part of its currency was withdrawn to fill the chasm which had been made in the currency of the other parts of the kingdom. The mischief, already extensive beyond all former precedent, was likely to be productive of still greater calamity, had not government interposed to arrest its progress: the issue of exchequer bills was peculiarly necessary at this juncture, they provided the country with its due proportion of currency, and prevented any further extension of the mischief.

"Though many country banks escaped without injury in the general shock, yet none were free from alarm. None could tell how soon the blow might be repeated, nor what degree of injury it might be capable of effecting. As soon as the public consternation subsided, they took the only means in their power to provide against the evil which might result from its return, by securing a connection with the London bankers. By this connection, they were enabled to procure the support of the bank of England, notwithstanding its repugnance to assist them. Though, previous to the suspension of cash payments, no private London banker applied for assistance in his own name, as the application might have been deemed a reflection on his credit; yet assistance was easily procured, by requesting his customers to send

bills in theirs to be discounted for him. By this intermediate agency, the London bankers were capable of extending the loans of the bank to their country connections, and of giving them that support which had been refused to their direct application: they thus secured to themselves the power of offering a certain quantity of bank notes, or specie, upon any sudden aspersion on their credit.

"In the year 1797, another alarm gave rise to another suspicion of their stability. But by the measures which they had taken, the press was in reality directed against the bank of England instead of themselves. Immediately that a run was made upon them, a drain was made upon the bank for specie through their London connections, and vast sums were remitted for their support. In proportion as the alarm became prevalent, and paper became contracted, specie was the more and more demanded to supply the vacuum. The bank, apprehensive of being exhausted of its deposits, pursued its accustomed policy, and reduced the amount of its notes. By this diminution it augmented, in a greater degree, the general distress, without any relief to itself, as the smallest quantity of paper which it continues permanently in circulation would be sufficient, by frequent exchanges, to draw out any given sum of money, and eventually to drain it of its stores. As this policy, therefore, had no other effect than to aggravate the evil which it was intended to remedy; and as, by an increased demand for specie, great danger existed of a total privation of its deposits, it was reduced to the necessity of applying to government for support, and suspending its cash payments. But no blame is imputable to the directors; they found their house involved in difficulties by no imprudence of their own, and adopted the line of conduct which existing circumstances, in their opinion, demanded. No doubt whatever can be entertained, but that the order of council was necessary at the time to prevent worse consequences."

After some pages more of similar reasoning the author thus continues

"In order, therefore, to obviate the danger which threatens the bank of England upon a return of cash payments, and to prevent the probable recurrence of the calamities of 1793 and 1797, it appears to me absolutely necessary, that the circulation of country notes should be prohibited."

The facts adduced in this whole passage are most unfairly related. There were great failures at the beginning of the anti-jacobin war. Whence did they arise? A war always throws a great mass of capital into a new direction; there is a sudden progressive absorption for the public service, and a sudden speculative investiture in naval stores and other new objects of demand; of course many applications for payments are made at once pressingly and peremptorily in the commercial world. Whoever finds it difficult to be punctual becomes a marked man; whoever is really insolvent is at such times compelled to the acknowledgment. The war of 1792, terminated a commercial treaty which had introduced British manufactures to every corner of France: of course the intercepted masses of capital much belonged to merchants trading with the French ports, and to manufacturers who directly supplied the store-keepers of France. Manufacturers for the foreign market are usually principal creditors of the country-bankers: they can circulate much paper in the payment of their dependents, where they make it an object: and a banker willingly proportions the credit given, to the consumption of his paper. The country-bankers therefore were much inconvenienced by the diminished command of capital among the manufacturers, and endeavoured to get advances of their regular correspondents —the London bankers. On a system of open banking, this could easily have been accomplished; the houses in credit would have issued a greater quantity of notes, and have discounted the circulable securities of their provincial friends. But the bank of England, possessing in London a monopoly of discount, and wishing to employ its own capital rather in government securities than in private accommodation, refused to discount for the London bankers with the increased facility, which the provincial demand for capital required. The bank of England even narrowed its discounts at that time; and thus inflicted, in reality, much of the commercial embarrassment and misfortune of 1793. During the subsequent difficulties of the West India merchants, similar evils arose from the monopoly-bank, and government had to advance the defective capital in a manner very favourable to the corruption of mercantile political opinion; but very dangerous to the property of the nation, very hostile to the inculcation of prudence, and very needless and inexpedient on a system of open banking.

Digitized by Google

ART. LX. *A brief Treatise on the Law relative to Stock-jobbing, and other Transactions in the Public Funds. By* I. J. BURN, *Solicitor.* 8vo. pp. 96.

THE theorists, who have best discussed the doctrine of circulation, are accustomed to denominate that circulation useful, which adds a value to the commodity transferred; and that circulation noxious, which expends unproductively the labor and venture of transfer, and leaves the commodity transferred in its pristine state. Those who speculate in bullion, in cochineal, in corn, may gain or lose much by a fluctuation in the price of their purchase; but they restore it to the consumer unaltered; no addition of labour is consolidated with its value: it might as well have wandered to the goldsmith, the dyer, or the miller, without mediation, and have escaped the chance of an intervening rise or fall. It is probable, however, that such speculators find usually a profit accruing; they would not else invest capitals, which might quiescently produce an interest; they consequently tend to inhance the price to the ultimate consumer, and thus offer a bounty to the original producer. They stimulate the miner at Santafé, the nopal-gardener at Quito, the farmer on the Delaware, to increase his produce; and by securing a more abundant growth they eventually indemnify, and more than indemnify the consumer, for the added cost of his present purchase. But no apology of this kind can be devised for the speculators in the stock-market: the commodity is increased or diminished by war or peace, not by the value they withdraw or confer: the time, the capital, the intellectual effort they employ is all withdrawn from productive industry and expended on barren gambling: and the rank and comfort of innumerable families is staked on the caprice of a cabinet, or the arrival of a courier. Even Professor Büsch (Von dem Geldsumlauf; book III. section 43) who approaches Mandeville in the conviction, that whatever is, is right, declares against stock-jobbery, as he calls it, and pronounces it to be completely hurtful. Under this impression a law was made in the 7th year of George II., that all contracts made after the 1st June, 1734, for wagers relating to the public stocks, should be void:

May it not however be surmised that some advantages accrue to a community from a perpetual fund of ready money, which can be advanced at a moment's notice to the government, or to individuals? Does not a stock-exchange retain in this applicable form a mass of capital, which would else be vested in bonds, mortgages, or other slowly derangeable securities? Do not some advantages arise from the political vigilance of a body of jobbers much interested in the wise conduct of state-affairs? Do not the commissions levied by bankers and brokers on the amounts which change hands, belong to the class of productive circulations? Is there not an important consumption of stamps occasioned by these transactions? Ought all the prizes of life to be reserved for prudence, industry, frugality; has not a spirit of enterprize and adventure, bordering on rashness, also its value? "Nothing venture nothing have," may be no proverb in poor Richard's almanac; but if it does not suit an economic, it may suit an opulent society. Does not much of our most important commerce originate in, and owe its success to this liberal daring? Is not a stock-exchange a seminary and conservatory of courageous hazardy? Mutability of fortune is the parent of many virtues: there is more of courtesy, of attention to inferiors, of tenderness to the victims of adversity, in those who are much exposed to reverses of situation, than in those whose entailed acres defy imprudence itself. The stock-jobber is favourably circumstanced for discipline in such qualities: nor are his misfortunes wholly useless; the inequality of riches is surveyed with more complacence for being liable to capricious interruptions.

There is an old book of Mortimer's, Every man his own Broker. Cases of difficulty are since become more various and complex. Further elucidations and instructions were desireable. The present writer has collected with meritorious industry the principal trials which have occurred since the 7th of George the second, in order to compel the fulfilment of bargains, of which evasion has been attempted under that act. We think the act itself should be repealed; and indeed all the laws, which hinge gaming transactions on a mere principle of honor. They were originally made to privilege noblemen against bankruptcy:

they are in the spirit of feudal legislation: they legalize villainy, when they are obeyed: they secure a preference to the sharper and swindler, over the tradesman and the regular creditor, when they are disobeyed. They encourage gaming by taking out its sting: a man plays more boldly, because he knows he can take refuge in dishonour: but when he has lost, he chooses to quit the asylum, which during his frenzy he looked to as a refuge. The good sense of Lord Mansfield saw that these privileged frauds should be restricted within the narrowest possible bounds. He made the first inroad on the exceptionable act, which our author has recited: we shall transcribe the narration.

"Notwithstanding the plainness and precision with which the act was drawn, numerous cases have been argued and adjudged in the different courts respecting the extent of its provisions. The devices and subtleties that were invented to evade its obvious meaning, soon rendered applications to courts of justice necessary: and the first case of importance came on to be heard in the court of King's Bench before Lord Mansfield, in the seventh year of his present Majesty, which is hereafter stated.

"But as the act itself forms the grand basis upon which most of the cases have been decided, perhaps it will be the least perplexing method of arrangement to take them in chronological order, so far as the subject matter will admit of it: remarking, as we proceed, on the rules and principles arising out of them; and adverting to other cases relating to stock-jobbing transactions prior to the passing of the act, when they serve to elucidate any point of law. One decided advantage of this mode will be, that of carrying the reader along, step by step, in the history of stock-jobbing, from what may be called its legal birth, to its present state of maturity.

"It would appear that the act had the effect of curbing the then prevailing disposition for jobbing, as no case of importance seems to have been decided on it till the period above alluded to, when that of Faikney against Raynous and Richardson was heard, in which the court decided, 'That money borrowed to pay a stock-jobbing contract, though of the partner in the transaction, was not within the statute.'

"The case reported in the 1st of Blackstone, 633, is as follows:—To an action of debt on bond, dated the 23d February, 1765, for 8,000l., the defendant prayed oyer of the bond and condition, which was to secure 1,500l.—and pleaded, first, *Non est factum*, in which issue was joined: and, second, That since the statute, the plaintiff corruptly entered into several agreements for transferring sundry parcels of stock, on the joint account of himself and defendant Richardson, to be delivered at a certain time, called the Rescounter Day, in February following; and, in performance thereof, corruptly, and contrary to the form of the statute, paid 8,000l. to divers persons, for making up the difference in price, for not performing the said contracts, and that the bond was made for securing to the plaintiff 1,500l., being Richardson's moiety of the said differences; and for no other consideration, and therefore void in law.

"The plaintiff demurred; and defendant joined in demurrer.

"Lord Mansfield.—'I am clear that this is no defence, even allowing it to be well pleaded. Compounding differences for stock sold, is not *malum in se*, but merely *prohibitum*. Where a thing is prohibited by Act of Parliament, it is void as between the parties, and no court of justice will allow a man to recover for what is made unlawful to be done. But this case is not within the Act of Parliament.

"The bond is for money lent to another to fulfil a prohibited contract. If a man lends money to be lent upon usury, or to pay a gaming debt, can it not be recovered?—There is no difference whether borrowed of Faikney, or of any other person.'

"Judgment for the plaintiff, in which Yates, Aston, and Hewit, concurred."

We sincerely wish this pamphlet may be a mean of drawing the legislature to the immorality of the act of parliament, and that all bargains made at the stock-exchange may be rendered as legal, as valid, as open to recovery in the courts of justice and by the process of law, as the bargains of merchants on their Exchange. Principle is the victim, and fraud the gainer by a system, which has lately protected the dishonesties of opulence, and punished the honourable fidelity of mediocrity.

We shall state this author's highly proper and respectable counsel concerning a recent transaction.

"But a subject of considerable importance, and which has of late claimed much attention, continues still undetermined by any express decisions:—this is the validity of a bargain made at a time when false and groundless reports, raised and propagated for fraudulent purposes, materially affecting the price of stocks, are generally credited. Under such circumstances, some persons contend that a bargain made for the purchase of sale of stock, which has not been actually transferred, becomes *ipso facto* void; and that no legal claim can be maintained for any damage which the buyer or seller may thereby sustain. The same persons will admit,

Digitized by Google

notwithstanding, that a bargain really completed on the day when such false rumours arise and are refuted is good, and cannot afterwards be impeached.

"Others again contend, and with greater appearance of reason, that all such bargains, whether completed or not, where the party claiming the benefit of them is ready, and does all in his power to fulfil his part of the agreement, are valid and binding upon the other party.

"Nay, some have gone so far as to hold such bargains good, when one of the parties was aware of the fallacy of the reports at the time of making his contract.

"It is clear that some of these opinions must be ill founded.

"To establish the principles on which the question ought to be determined, it may be proper to advert to the real nature of the subject. Stock, it is well known, is perpetually fluctuating in price. Its value at all times depends on the state of public opinion, which is affected as well by false intelligence as by true; by changes, real or projected, in our domestic or foreign affairs; by victories or defeats; and by innumerable other causes which operate upon it. In ordinary cases, we never hear of doubts as to the validity of contracts, where the price of stock alters before they can be completely carried into effect. Even in what are called time bargains, no dispute is made on account of an unforeseen or material change in price, because both parties, in truth, may be said to speculate on a change, or, at least, to anticipate it in one way or another: and it will not be contended, that such changes invariably take place on circumstances always evident, but on those only that are generally credited at the time; for men argue differently, from natural phænomena and political appearances: they have different capacities, different degrees of knowledge, and different intelligence. But the means of information and judging being open to both, each professes to act from his own skill and sagacity; so that, at the most, it will amount to no more, on this view of the question, than the setting up of one opinion in opposition to another. We find, then, an uninterrupted and acknowledged assent by all parties to what may be termed the usual and ordinary fluctuation in the price of stock, which, it is presumed, will establish the law on the subject; and till the late barefaced imposition upon the public, in the notified peace, or settlement of differences with France (which may be called an extreme case), no doubt whatever appears to have arisen upon the mind of any one conversant in stock transactions, that bargains were invalid, because the intelligence, on which depended the price of the day, was false. Unless actual fraud can be charged upon one of the parties, as that he was a party to the deception practised on the public, in such cases, it seems evident that bargains so made are good, though not completed in all respects, provided the party claiming the advantage of them does all that is requisite on his part to carry them into effect."

It is a common remark, and we believe there is truth in it, that the worshippers of fortune are commonly lucky. The dabblers, the occasional buyers are mostly bit, we should say maimed; but the dabs, the persevering jobbers, seldom walk off lame. Probably chance has its general laws; there are seasons of the year, states of the money-markets, which bring on a rise and a fall foreseeable by that sort of vague instinct, which habit of business may tend to form. The practice of risking, may evolve a delicacy of observation, to which bystanders never attain; and thus success may be a species of sagacity. This would form an excuse the more for learning to be a player. The proportion is small who sink in consequence of launching their skiffs on the Euripus of funds and actions.

Servius Tullius built at Rome the first temple to *Fortuna publica*. Our temple to public fortune is the stock exchange: the goddess stands not on a wheel, but on the bank transfer books, which she does not open: her eyes are not bandaged, but occupied with the columns of a newspaper: her crest is a weathercock: a bull and a bear are pictured on the standards of her hostile sects of worshippers: a lame duck is the emblem of the excommunicated.

ART. LXI. *A Letter addressed to the Citizens of London and Westminster, suggesting Improvements in the Police; congenial with the Principles of Freedom and the Constitution.* By T. COLPITTS. 8vo. pp. 34.

THE subject which employs these pages is of the highest consequence, and cannot be too severely investigated: it is a well-known proverb, 'Set a thief to catch a thief,' and it is pretty generally understood, that the subordinate officers of justice in the metropolis, runners, constables, &c. &c., are not remarkable for the purity of their morals, or for any disinterested exertions in favour of public tranquillity. They have their little arrangements, and exercise vigilance too frequently in proportion to their fee; of which, if their employer disappoints

them, he has too much reason to apprehend revenge.

The business to which any man is brought up is certainly that in which he is most likely to excel; and the permanent police officers are conversant with all the tricks of rogues and robbers, know all their haunts, are singularly alert in the discovery of an offender, and acute in directing their suspicions to the right person. Mr. Colpitts, however, is strenuously hostile to this class of people: he considers it a reflection upon society that police officers should be living, perhaps upon terms of intimacy, with those very villains upon whom they pounce in an unguarded moment; he considers it also irreconcileable with the idea of a constitutional and effective police, that a part of society should be constantly under the suspicion of the police; that individuals having committed crimes, for which they cannot be punished *yet*, (being not ripe for punishment) instead of checking the dissoluteness of their lives, it should be the interest of these hired constables, rather to encourage them in their career of ruin, in order, that at some future time the conviction of their depredations may bring in a more fruitful harvest. Mr. Colpitts is also of opinion, that society does not gain much by the exclusive knowledge of these officers: if they know the depredators, the depredators know them; sagacity is opposed to sagacity, cunning to cunning, both parties live by the constant exercise of their wits, and vigilance in detecting, may be foiled by superior vigilance in eluding.

This is very true, but it must be recollected that the original cunning is in the thief; his will never be thrown off, and therefore it is necessary that he who watches him should be possessed of, at least, an equal degree of the same quality. How Mr. Colpitts' plan would operate, if—about which we have the strongest doubts—it could possibly be brought into operation, our readers will judge for themselves when we lay it before them. As to the disgracefulness of having one class of society constantly watching over the actions of another; it may be disgraceful that such vigilance is necessary, but so long as it is necessary, it must not be abated. Persons leading a notoriously reprobate and abandoned life, ought to be, and must be vigilantly watched, for the sake of public security; and jealous as we profess to be of our rights and liberties, we cannot enter into all Mr. Colpitts' alarm on the present occasion.

Mr. Colpitts proposes to have the present race of police officers disbanded, and the police placed in the hands of the citizens at large; he would have respectable inhabitants of the several parishes, take the acting part upon themselves in rotation, being annually elected. As to the present officers, they might be employed as tide-waiters when vacancies take place, or put into some vacant posts about the victualling-office or dock-yards; some few of them might be retained as messengers for removing prisoners to and from the country, to act subordinately to the elected constables, not between the magistrates and them.

"The district of each constable in the parish, ought to be no larger than he can conveniently superintend; and where it is larger, associate constables should be named to assist him; every inhabitant of such district, both male and female, above the age of childhood, ought to be known to him: for this purpose, every occupant of a house should be obliged annually to give in a list to him of his family, and every inmate in his dwelling, as they came and removed, without, however, being obliged to declare from whence they came, or whither they are removed, (unless such inmates themselves chose to declare it) or any other particulars respecting them, without they had absconded, and were charged with some crime. And for the purpose of gaining a personal knowledge of such inhabitants within his district as are unknown to him, he ought to visit each house as soon as he was indicted into his office; when such inhabitants of it should present themselves before him, and every new inhabitant and lodger, when they entered, both male and female, should present themselves before the constable of the district, accompanied by the landlord or letter of such premises, and their name and age only taken down; nor should it be allowed that any occupant of a house in London should take in a stranger, even for a night, without such stranger appearing before the constable, or his associate, or if too late to see either of them, before the superintendant of the watch, at the nearest watch-house, to whom he should declare his name and age, but nothing more."

Mr. Colpitts is not singular in his opinion of the necessity there is to revise the laws respecting the responsibility of proprietors and occupiers of houses, in order to prevent those infamous resorts of lewdness, which now infest almost

Digitized by Google

every street, and which the tedious process of indictment is found inadequate to suppress. In order to remedy this crying evil, Mr. Colpitts would arm the law with a power, which we confess we cannot contemplate without fear. Upon conviction of the offender, Mr. Colpitts would authorise the police of the district to enter into possession of the guilty house, retain it during three years as a punishment for the first offence; "letting it, and superintending the management of it in all respects, deducting one-fifth, or twenty per cent. per annum, from the annual produce of it, by way of fine, and for the trouble of superintending it, rendering the surplus to the owner; and upon a second conviction for misusage of such property, to enter again into possession of it, for the *natural life* of such person."

"It may be necessary also to place the pawnbrokers business under improved regulations, for it is through them that the great mass of stolen property is converted into cash; their interests upon the money lent ought to be reduced, and they should be compelled by law to give in to a proper office, (the police office of the district for example,) twice every day, triplicates of every articles taken in pledge in the course of that day. What harm could attend a disclosure of their business thus far to a proper office? This would often lead to an immediate detection of the thief, and would almost totally deter them from offering stolen goods for pledge. Would it not also answer a good purpose, in order to put a stop to chandler's-shops, and other petty traders, from buying stolen goods, to give a per centage upon the value by way of reward, for stopping the goods, and the persons offering them for sale? The thief would here be placed in the situation, when he offered stolen goods for sale, of offering a reward at the same time for his own detection."

Some excellent remarks occur on the subject of granting licences to publicans; some hints for the regulation of draymen, porters, hackney coachmen, coal-dealers, &c. &c., are well worthy of attention; they might be carried into effect without trouble, without expence, and we are persuaded the adoption of them would be advantageous to the community.

ART. LXII. *Observations on the Importance and Necessity of introducing Improved Machinery into the Woollen Manufactory, &c.* By JOHN ANSTIE. 8vo. pp. 99.

THE use of machinery in manufactures has often occasioned literary controversy, and popular turbulence. Some persons see in it an unkind contrivance to render human labour less necessary, to diminish the serviceableness, and abridge the comforts of the poor, and to metamorphose the starved population of villages into mill-horses and steam pumps. Others maintain, that to cheap production is to increase demand; that all the creations of machinery are put more within reach of the lowest inmates, and consequently increase the comforts of the multitude; that the pro economized maintain an increased proportion of the enjoying classes; that more is won for man by casting labour on nature; that if spinners are discarded in one neighbourhood, weavers are put under requisition in another; so that there is an eventual increase both of the quantity of work to be done, of the proportion of polished and cultivated existence maintained by that work, and of the fixed and taxable property responsible to the parish and to the state. To the latter set of arguments appear the more conclusive.

Mr. Anstie thus states his hesitations:

"In the further prosecution of the subject, the arguments used for proving the pernicious tendency of introducing machinery into the clothing business, may be comprised under the three following heads:

"1st, It has been frequently objected by intelligent persons, and even by some manufacturers themselves, that the introduction of machinery into the clothing business must be pernicious, as only a limited quantity of the staple article, wool, of our native growth, could be produced for our middling and coarser manufactures, and that the possibility of obtaining an increased quantity of fine wool of the growth of Spain, for our superior cloths, must depend on the demand for that wool from France, Holland, &c.

"The conclusion drawn from these supposed facts is, that machinery must be prejudicial, by diminishing the labour necessary for the employment of a great number of persons in making goods, without the possibility, as we do not, in the opinion of the objectors to the use of machinery, possess the means of increasing the manufacture, but in a very limited degree, even should the demand require it, consequently those persons could be no longer employed in the woollen business.

"2dly, The corruption of the morals of the people, especially of the children employed in the factories, in consequence of collecting them together, has been considered as a formidable objection to the use of machinery.

Digitized by Google

"3dly. From the general introduction of machinery, it has been confidently said, the staple manufacture of the kingdom is endangered, by its being so much more easily transferred to other nations.

"The advocates for restrictions assert, that the use of machinery, by rendering the superior skill of those persons, long accustomed to different branches of the manufacture, comparatively useless, it will become perfectly easy to form establishments for the trade in other nations, as only a few superintending persons will be wanted, who may be fully competent to the management of machinery."

In reply to the objection about the obtainable quantity of wool, why not repeal the laws against *owling*, transport our best breeds of sheep to Canada, and there grow the desirable profusion of clothing wool?

In reply to the objection about the morals of manufacturing children, is it not equally applicable to all opportunities of indiscriminate association, among the children of the poor; to Sunday schools, for instance, the purlieus of which are, in many large towns, lurking places of premature debauchery? If both sexes have separate playing-crofts, if they are attended during meals by a chaplain or pedagogue, if they always separate by day-light, and return at a known hour to sleep under the paren roof, the only precautions which state of society can insure seem to h been taken.

In reply to the objection of the tr ferrableness of machinery, let an ap be made to observation and experien Those manufactures, which require the tuition of human individuals, h often migrated, whenever intoleran religious or political, has expatriated few teachers. But those manufactu which are produced by costly estab ments of mechanism, have never mig ed: and for this reason, that when the demand slackens, the rent of the chinery abates; so that the article duced thenceforwards incurs a sm charge for the wages of enginery, (i may so word it) than it would ha incur, if new engines were to be const ed for its production. It must there always be cheaper to buy where there machines of long standing, which already overstocked demand, than w the mechanism is new, and has to the interest of its cost.

The postscript notices some laws cerning apprentices, on which it w be interesting to hear the opinions experienced a judge.

ART. LXIII. *Observations on the Propriety or Impropriety of exporting Cotton Twist the Purpose of being manufactured into Cloth by Foreigners.* 8vo. pp. 64.

IT has been thought an object by our lawgivers to compress, within the island, the largest possible resident population, without any regard to the quantity of subsistence which can be grown at home. For this purpose, raw materials are suffered to be imported with little or no burden of duty, manufactured articles are burdened with heavy duties, or wholly prohibited, and thus manufacturers of various descriptions are rewarded for residence. If there were no restrictions of this kind, and all exportation and importation was free, the consumer of silks would probably buy them from Lyons cheaper than from Spital-fields; and many weavers, who are maintained here, would be maintained on the continent. This is a sacrifice of wealth to strength, which was really expedient while the nation was underpeopled, but which is daily becoming less important.

If the exportation of cotton twist were prohibited, the article would sell lower, the weavers of cotton would be able to purchase it on easier terms, they would be able to offer goods at a lower price, and would sell more piece-goods th present. More resident weavers w thus be maintained here, and some o nental weavers would be thrown ou employ; but there would be a loss wealth incurred in the diminished va of the machines erected for spinning c ton.

It is probable that our mechanics w ere long, contrive to weave calicoes machinery, as well as to spin the co nent threads. It will then cease to the interest of foreigners to purch twist; because the second operation, well as the first, will be perform cheaper here than on the continent. The construction of such machin would be the best cure for the decre of business complained of by the bl chers, dyers, and printers of cotton stuf

Our author would have the legislat interfere, and interrupt, by a prohibito duty, the exportation of cotton twi We would have them let it alone. Th immediate loss to the spinners would b great, and the discouragement to ente prize immense.

Digitized by Google

CHAPTER IV.

GEOGRAPHY.

ART. I. *Modern Geography: a Description of the Empires, Kingdoms, States, and Colonies, with the Oceans, Seas, and Isles, in all Parts of the World; including the most recent Discoveries and political Alterations, digested on a new Plan.* By JOHN PINKERTON. Carefully abridged from the larger work. 8vo. pp. 708.

In our former volume (p. 437) we gave a detailed account of the very valuable original work, of which the volume before us is an abridgement: a short notice will therefore suffice on the present occasion.

The plan followed seems to be not so much that of general compression, of which the original would not perhaps admit, as of lopping off or considerably shortening particular portions, which, to common readers, and the young student of geography, are the least interesting and important.

Thus we find the introduction, which still consists of above sixty closely printed pages, is restricted to those topics which are immediately connected with geographical science. The antiquarian and historical criticism is reduced to a small compass; and the botanical sketches of the different countries which were loaded with Linnæan nomenclature, and of a length extremely disproportionate to the other matter, have been judiciously contracted and amended. The provincial divisions of the Europeau states, which are for the most part omitted in the quarto edition, are carefully inserted in the present; and the population of the counties and towns of Great Britain has been inserted on the authority of the late enumeration. There are other more minute additions and improvements, all tending to qualify the book for the particular use of schools and young people. The only objection that we have to make concerns the maps. These are too few, and much too general to be of great use: as far as they go, however, being abridged from those of the original work, they are much more correct than any of equal size that we have yet met with.

Digitized by Google

CHAPTER V.

BRITISH TOPOGRAPHY AND ANTIQUITIES.

THE publications that belong to this department of our work, are consider more numerous than those which were noticed in the corresponding chapter of former volume; in merit and originality, however, they are decidedly infe During the short interval of peace, many of our tourists were no doubt attra to Paris; and on the recommencement of hostilities, with the expectation of i nent invasion, were probably occupied by more serious concerns than ra about the country, in quest of picturesque scenery or sentimental adve Prudential motives, induced by the same lamentable event, have, in all likeli suspended the publication of some of the more expensive works in Topog and Antiquities, which, requiring the illustration of maps and plates, can expected to be carried on with spirit during the transition from a state of p tranquillity, and private adventure, to one of private economy and public l Instead, therefore, of giving a general sketch of the topographical and antiqu works which have issued from the British press during the last year, and w will be amply noticed in the following articles, we shall take the liberty of o a few remarks on the present state of British topography.

As geography, strictly speaking, means only a description of the great n features of the earth, and its principal civil divisions, so topography, treating particular country, or county, or hundred, or parish, ought properly to be con to a more minute investigation of the same general subjects. Hence it is impos by definition, to distinguish the one from the other of these branches of knowle and there are many publications which may, with almost equal propriety, be nominated minute geographies, or general topographies: of which Büsch Geography of Germany is a striking foreign example, and the "Beauties of land and Wales" is a domestic instance. While the geographer describes courses of the great rivers and of the principal chains of mountains, indicates leading territorial divisions, and points out the situation of the most remark towns and cities; the topographer follows the meandering of the smaller stre and their tributary brooks, marks the minuter undulations in the surface of soil, traces parish boundaries, and ascertains the position of villages and hamle of castles, cathedrals, and manor houses. Pure geography, however, to m persons, is but a dull study, and, in consequence, the generality of modern writ on this subject have incorporated into their works various particulars relative the natural, political, civil, and statistical history of the countries described. Pure topography, treating of the same subjects, but with much greater minute

Digitized by Google

ness, is still less qualified to excite much interest, except in those who are personally acquainted with the districts and places thus noticed: hence the topographer is indulged in a wider licence, and is allowed to ornament his collections by interweaving family history, biography, antiquarian research, architectural details, and almost every particular that he chuses, however slightly connected with the main subject. These digressions, if restrained within reasonable limits, and judiciously selected, confer a real additional value on topographical investigations. But when, from the minuteness or insignificance of the district which the historian selects for his illustration, a deficiency is experienced of proper topographical matter, (which is almost always the case in descriptions of single parishes,) it is scarcely possible to avoid giving an undue weight to these irrelevant topics: of which Mr. Gough's History of Pleshy, noticed in this chapter, is a very glaring example. In addition to the want of judgment exhibited by many of our topographers, in circumscribing themselves within too narrow a district, may be reckoned the exclusive and undue preference bestowed upon antiquarian subjects: an anecdote, because it is old, is not necessarily on that account worth relating; the half-defaced inscription on a tomb-stone, two hundred years old, acquires no greater value from this circumstance than one of modern date and perfectly legible; nor does the authenticated succession of churchwardens, parish-clerks, and sextons, contribute any thing to the illustration of our ecclesiastical history.

The general want of maps, and the extreme inaccuracy of those few which are annexed to our topographical histories, is another serious ground of complaint. Almost all the counties of England have been surveyed within the last forty years, and the maps drawn up from these documents, erroneous as they are in many respects, would, by the help of plans of estates, which are for the most part easily procurable, furnish ample materials for the construction of parish or hundred maps, adapted to the use of the topographer, and susceptible of gradual improvements as opportunities might occur. The splendid and accurate maps from trigonometrical measurements, executing under the direction of government, will take away all excuse from future topographers, who may neglect to avail themselves of this valuable assistance. The survey of Kent is actually published; that of Essex completed, and is only kept back, for obvious reasons, till the termination of the war; Devonshire and Hampshire are in a state of forwardness.

Engravings are too often reckoned mere articles of decoration; but when introduced in topographical works, they profess to be representations of real objects and actual scenery. This, however, is seldom the case: the pencil is either assumed by incapable hands, unable, though perhaps desirous, of delineating with fidelity; or an artist by profession is employed, who will, knowingly and without scruple, violate the truth of nature to produce what he calls picturesque effect. It ought to be inculcated on all topographers, as a serious duty, to sacrifice all those graces of painting which are inconsistent with perfect fidelity; and in the choice of scenery to select that which is most characteristic of the country, without considering whether it will please or disgust the professed artist, to whom individuality of representation is of no value.

One further observation, and we have done. Our tourists and county historians, in their descriptions of the houses of our nobility and gentry, think it

Digitized by Google

essential to pay particular attention to the statues and exquisite paintings wh they contain, and which, without these notices, might elude the enquiry of the pa ter or amateur. So far they have our praise; and it is to be wished, that th would extend their search to the libraries in which are deposited books and ma scripts of inestimable value, unknown to the literary public, and not unfreque even to their own proprietors.

ART. I. *Antiquities, historical, architectural, chorographical, and itinerary, in Not hamshire, and the adjacent Counties: comprising the Histories of Southwell, (the ad tem,) and of Newark, (the Sidnacester of the Romans;) interspersed with biograp Sketches, and profusely embellished with Engravings. In four Parts.* By WILLI DICKINSON, *Esq.* Parts I. and II. forming Vol. I. pp. 472.

THIS work is an altered and enlarged edition of "a History of the Antiquities of the Town and Church of Southwell, in the County of Nottingham. By William Dickinson *Rastall*, A. M." 4to. 1787.

The first was dedicated to the present Archbishop of York; but the work now before us is laid at the feet of the President and Fellows of the Society of Antiquaries.

The author observes, that it has long been considered a pleasant and useful inquiry, to determine the roads and stations of the Romans in this island; some of those are still buried in obscurity, others are the subject of conjecture; but "Southwell *certainly*, Newark with *great probability*, present a most exuberant field for examination." In this field our author has chosen to labour, hoping to produce a crop of conjecture, and certainly worthy the consideration and acceptance of the learned in antiquity. The stupendous church of Southwell was a primary object in the field; bearing "the distinguishing characteristics of Roman, Saxon, Danish, Norman, and Gothic architecture," in perfect condition, and pointing out the minutest gradations from each style to the next. This *may be* very true, though we strongly suspect it; but the treatise upon ecclesiastical architecture is totally distinct from Roman roads and stations, and ought not to have been "*agglomerated*" with a dissertation on them.

The author, having explained his intentions, wanders into a digression founded upon the contradictions of those authors who have written on antient architecture; and endeavours to reconcile what never was, and never will be reconciled, the discordant opinions of men upon any given subject; but the concluding paragraph of the preface is well expressed. "Through the whole e nomy of nature the same rule ever d and ever must obtain. The effort imbecility will always precede the e tions of maturity; conjecture is the step toward *(towards)* certainty, speculation the infancy of real k ledge."

The introduction commences with eulogium on antiquarianism; which Dickinson calls, not inaptly, the m of history.

From *antiquarianism* the author sp to architecture, which he supposes coeval with the globe itself. Und edly so, if we are inclined to perm covering of leaves, strewed on sticks upright in the earth, to be denomi architecture. But would not the gium on antiquarianism, and the o of architecture, however well wri have been more appropriately affixed the first volume of an archæologia, the works of Palladio or Vitruvius, to a search after Roman stations, a history of Southwell?

Another objection is still more power This introduction is increased enormo by the labour of others; for instance "In pursuance of my plan, then, outline of which I have already sugg ed, I shall place first, in my catalogue critiques on ancient architecture, the servations of Stephen Riou, esq. publ ed several years since, under the title "Historical Remarks on ancient Ar tecture." He accordingly quotes t quarto pages, adding two notes; one planatory, the other combating an in rence, that Gothic architecture was rived from the Arabians.

"So far this writer, who is at least e titled to great attention from the plausi bility of his account. We shall see wha others have said on the same subject. In Horace Walpole's celebrated work, he

fore cited on a different occasion, are the following observations," which are extracted to the amount of two pages and an half, and are accompanied by three notes; the first an ironical observation on the antiquity of free-masonry; the second on the distinction between Gothic and Saracenic architecture, marked by pinnacles in the former, and cupolas in the latter; and the last objects to the term "*undulating*, zig zags," used by Mr. Walpole. "I shall hereafter have occasion to observe, that all undulations, or ornaments, partaking of the sections of globes, cones, and cylinders, are of *Saxon extraction*, but that angular ones are to be attributed to some other people; they were certainly introduced into this kingdom by Norman architects."

We cannot avoid observing, on this part of the subject, that almost all our antiquaries prefer a circuitous way of obtaining information. Some travel through England, others through books; the buildings, in one instance, and prints in the other, exhibit a variety of ornaments; they cogitate on them, and form conjectures, without possessing one fact to direct their bewildered fancies. However, they must *say something*. Accordingly one is Saxon, another Norman, &c. &c. because Mr. —— chooses to think so. If the research is worth purchasing, why do not the Society of Antiquaries send experienced artists into Saxony, Normandy, Denmark, and Arabia, in short, into every country whose buildings could elucidate the subject, in order to make drawings of structures and ornaments? which, compared with ours, would decide the source of each style at once, and fix the dispute for ever.

To proceed in illustration of our charge, these *pages* are extracted from a work published twenty years past, describing the cathedral of Burgos; a *page and an half* from Bentham's History of Ely Cathedral; *two pages* from Grose; *six and an half* from Murphy's Description of the Alhambra; *two and one-third* from Wilkins's Essay on the Venta Icenorum of the Romans in the Archæologia; and lastly, *two* from Warburton; so that of an introduction, containing forty-two pages, twenty-four are quotations.

Mr. Dickinson then proceeds with combating the term Barbarians, affixed to the Goths by the vanquished Romans; and with a continuation of the conjectures commenced by preceding writers, which we think might be solved in the way above suggested.

He concludes with an odd method of appropriating styles in building, by comparing them with the constitutional habits of the nation who erects them, than which nothing can be more palpably absurd.

The oldest part of Southwell church is of Saxon architecture, erected, according to the tradition of the place, in the reign of Harold, to which Mr. Dickinson seems inclined to subscribe; but as there is not a record remaining of the foundation, tradition and conjecture must be the base of all his theories; they follow, therefore, as a matter of course, —The side aisles, he conceives to be "pure Norman; and, I should guess, about the time of William Rufus, or perhaps somewhat later. This opinion is founded on the essential differences to be observed between the style of the nave, and that of these aisles. The former has a timber roof, as has before been mentioned; and arches, of a species of workmanship, strongly indicative of ignorant times, and of the rudest notions of architecture. The latter have vaulted roofs, and those not of the earliest introduction, but supported by ribs, which form angular compartments at their mutual intersections in the centre."

That the church of Southwell was in a flourishing state, A. D. 1023, Mr. Dickinson proves from William of Malmsbury, and other writers, who assert, that Alfric, archbishop of York, gave it two bells; for the reception of those, he supposes, the tower (we suppose the center one) to have been built. Several pages of ingenious reasoning are appropriated to the establishment of his conjectures, that this church arose in Harold's time. They are supported by comparisons with other buildings, whose periods of erection are well known. The author then proceeds:

"To the Norman order of architecture (which, it seems, did not differ materially, at first, from the Saxon, in any of its most essential characteristic features, but was equally distinguished by circular arches, and massive pillars, with perhaps some little addition of sculpture, and, in some instances, vaulted roofs) succeeded what is generally understood, though some think improperly, by the denomination of Gothic; because, as Wren writes, 'the Goths were rather the destroyers than inventors of arts.' This style of building seems to have been introduced before the reign of King John, and to have prevailed very generally in that of Henry III. It con-

tinued with little variation till the time of Edward III. when a considerable alteration took place in the construction of the pillars and roofs. The latter began to be divided into several compartments, by kinds of ribs meeting in the center of the arch, and forming triangular spaces on each side. These ribs, and the junctions of them, were more or less ornamented, according to the affluence of the builder, the skill of the architect, the vicinity of the place to the seats of fashion and improvement, either metropolis of the kingdom, (London or York) and to the purposes of the building. The columns now began to take the form of a cluster of small pillars, closely united, and forming one compact and solid, but slender and elegant support.

"About this period, and before any great alteration began to prevail in the mode of constructing the windows, we might, from the general style of this fabric, if we wanted other evidence, pronounce the choir of Southwell church to have been erected; but this matter is placed beyond a doubt, by the licence of the King, (Edward III. printed in the Appendix, No. 1,) in the eleventh year of his reign, to the chapter, for the getting of stones from a quarry in his forest of Shirewood, for the building of their church.

"The heads of Edward III. and his queen, as also that of the Black Prince, support the ribs or springs of several arches in the choir. The prince's head, crowned with his three feathers, is particularly conspicuous on the north side; and over the center arch, on the south side, are the feathers only, neatly cut in the stone. By these numerous compliments to the prince, we may presume, this part was erected just at that point of time when, by his conquest in France, he was in the zenith of his popularity. In conformity with the general taste of that age, the windows are narrow pointed, unornamented, and without any division by stone *guts* or mullions."

We have given this specimen, by way of pointing out to the numerous authors, whose conjectures upon periods and styles of building satiate the public, that they may, in many cases, convert them into certainty by a little trouble and research, as in this instance. Mr. Dickinson's observations upon the mode of building used in the reign of Edward III. are read with interest, because we know that they are founded upon undoubted facts; and we further recommend to them always to keep such facts in their recollection.

We are sorry to observe our author has invented a new term for mullions, which he calls guts. Exclusive of the filthy ideas conveyed by this word, we cannot conceive the most distant resemblance between the intestines of a man or beast, and the beautiful pillars and ramifications of antient architecture.

Mr. Dickinson dwells with much pleasure upon the beautiful arch which forms the entrance to the chapter-house; it is certainly rich in ornaments, and he supposes it was erected in the reign of Richard II. But it will be impossible to disentangle the endless web of conjecture, (by an analysis of moderate length) which composes all the remainder of the second chapter. The reader, who delights in argument ingeniously supported, and who can bear a repetition of the arguments which form the subject of the introduction and chapter first, will read it with avidity.

The third chapter commences with the town of Southwell, which furnishes another field for doubt and conjecture. "At what period this place obtained its present appellation," says Mr. Dickinson, "it will be almost impossible to ascertain. That it has formerly flourished under other names, even at so remote an æra as that of the Roman government in Britain, there is strong reason for supposing; that it was a place of some note among the Saxons, we have authentic testimony for believing."

Speaking of the Roman roads and stations, "the principal route which I am now to investigate is, that from London to Lincoln; from which, as it has lately been observed by a very learned antiquary, 'there seem to have been others of inferior note (passing through Southwell) to Nottingham and Mansfield." He then quotes the tables of places and distances from the *Itinerary of Antonini;* all of which are appropriated but Verometum, Margidunum, Ad Pontem, and Crococolana.

"The first station then, after Ratæ or Leicester, which demands enquiry, is Verometum. Pursuing the Roman road, or foss, as it is still called, on the confines of Nottinghamshire, we come to a field at the brow of a hill, overlooking Willoughby brook; where, as Dr. Stukely, the industrious antiquary says, 'many coins and mosaic pavements have frequently been dug up, and leave no room to doubt its having been a Roman station.' The distance from Leicester answers very exactly to the Roman estimate; and fixes, with considerable precision, the ancient Verometum at this place*. Margidunum,

* On the Willoughby side of the road is a tumulus, called Cross Hill; and on the opposite

Digitized by Google

the next station, is equally ascertained. At the distance, where the Itinerarium fixes it, are the remains of a Roman camp. 'Many Roman bricks, says our last mentioned author, and other antiquities, have been found, particularly a coin of Vespasian.' This is called Barrow-field, and is in the parish of East Bridgeford. The same account of this place is also to be met with in Camden, Horsley, and other topographical writers.

"We now come to Ad Pontem, the post of difficulty. Many persons, deceived by the supposed etymology of its present name, have placed this station at Ponton, near Grantham; but the name is all that can be discovered to justify such an opinion: while the arguments are numerous which may be urged against it, among the rest, that there is no water, in or near Ponton, to require the accommodation of any considerable bridge; and it is not probable, that a small and inconsiderable one should have given distinction to a Roman station. But the most material objection is, that the town of Ponton lies so entirely out of any reasonable direction from Leicester to Lincoln, that it is almost impossible to conceive the Romans could make it a station in their route between these two places. Still, however, if there remained a doubt, the distance of Ponton from Bridgeford would decide the difficulty; for the Itinerary makes Ad Pontem only seven Roman miles from Margidunum; Ponton is nearly twice that distance."

We have selected the above observations, in order to shew our author's method of arguing, which we must confess is clear and conclusive: his succeeding remarks cannot fail to excite the attention of all who are fond of this branch of knowledge. An exceedingly neat plate is given of the remains of a Roman foss on Bridge-hill, Southwell, and a map of Roman roads and stations, equally well executed, which is explained in eight pages, closely printed.

The following paragraph must not be omitted:

"A very recent discovery points out a precise track which led to one of the other stations from Ad Pontem, viz. to Lindum (Lincoln Colonia). The want of this has always been the stumbling block to antiquaries in determining Southwell to be Ad Pontem: the discovery of it seems to put the question almost beyond a doubt. The remarkable months of 1792 and 1793 being extremely dry, the foundations of an immense bridge appeared in the river Trent (rendered low by the drought), near to the little village of Winthorpe, by Newark. On examination, there was every reason to think them as old as the time of the Romans; and a sort of negative confirmation of that opinion arises from there not being even the vestige of a tradition that any such bridge has been situated in this part of the river Trent, since the time of the Norman conquest. The scite of it, if more closely examined, presents even a still stronger argument for believing that this only doubtful part of the Roman iter has been, at length, ascertained by this accident. If a line were (was) drawn from Southwell to Brough, it would pass over a hill called (from time immemorial) Mickleborough; and also over this very bridge, whose foundations have so lately been discovered."

Most of the towns whose name terminates in borough, are known to have been Roman stations: many discoveries of Roman coins, tessellated pavements, and Roman bricks at Southwell, are undoubted proofs that some of those people were seated there.

The remainder of the first part treats of the name antiently given to this town, its importance, situation, soil of the neighbourhood, the air, foundation of the church by Paulinus, first archbishop of the north, and the registers of the chapter, with several other curious particulars.

"It may be difficult to determine, with precision, what was the constitution of the church of Southwell, at the time of its original foundation; with how many prebends it was endowed; or in what manner and proportion their revenues were distributed. It appears, however, that about the latter end of the reign of William I. there were at least ten prebends, viz. those of Woodborough, Normanton, North Muskham, South Muskham, the Sacrista, two of Oxton, and three of Norwell."

Mr. Dickinson cites the registrum album, or white register, of the foundation, now in the chapter's possession; a book of great antiquity, abounding in curious matter, and absolutely invaluable to all interested in the place: this "determines with certainty the respective times of foundation of the other six prebends, making in all sixteen, as they remain at this day." He confutes an assertion in Dugdale's History of the Church of Southwell, published 1716, that the church had antiently a dean and an archdeacon: "I find no mention

of it, at about an equal distance, are Upper Borough-town and Nether Borough-town, now the modern appellation of Broughton. This indicates the vicinity of a Roman fortification.

Digitized by Google

made of a dean or an archdeacon in any other place, nor is any authority cited for it by Dugdale."

The white book contains a collection of charters and grants from popes, kings, and other persons, to the archbishops of York and church of Southwell, from a period very little posterior to the conquest, to the time of Henry VIII. of which little use has been made by Thoroton and others. To this Mr. Dickinson is indebted for almost all his authorities, and better information could not be wished for or expected.

Particulars of the prebends which follow, are curious and valuable, because undoubtedly authentic, as are those relating to the pentecostal offerings, and privileges of the church.

"The lands belonging to the fabric lay chiefly in Southwell and Normanton. They do not appear ever to have been considerable, though at different times this revenue received almost innumerable small additions. But any more particular account of these will also be better reserved for that chapter of this work, which I have thought proper to appropriate exclusively to the purpose of recording the liberality of benefactors to this memorable monument of antiquity."

There were originally sixteen vicars choral, each canon appointing his own vicar, and paying him for his choral duty; queen Elizabeth ordained six for this church: the history of those is interesting and amusing.

The other members of the church are an organist, six lay vicars, and six choristers. Dr. Keton, 22 Henry VIII. founded two scholarships and two fellowships, which he placed in the gift of the master and fellows of St. John's college, Cambridge, for persons, "who shall have served as choristers of the chapter of Southwell."

The chantries are next noticed; after which our author adds,

"Southwell and Ripon are said to be the only churches in England, which are as well parochial as collegiate at this day; all the others having been dissolved by Henry VIII. or his successor.

"It now remains to say something of the different prebends, the places from which they have their titles and revenues, and the mode in which those revenues accrue."

Norwell church, dedicated to St. Lawrence, is large, and of the style of building prevailing in the days of Edward III.; it is situated about ten miles north of Southwell, and furnishes provision for three prebends. The reader will find many curious particulars relating to it, and a pathetic epitaph to the memory of Elizabeth, wife of Gervas Lee.

Oxton, or Oston, gives title to two more of the antient prebends of this church; the town is five miles west of Southwell, "and lately had two considerable halls, or family seats, the property of the Sherbrookes, who have been settled here ever since about the eighth of Elizabeth:" of this family Mr. Dickinson gives some particulars, and a pedigree; together with an account of Shirewood forest, within the limits of which it was originally situated.

Woodborough, a small village, nine miles south-west of Southwell, "furnishes one of those prebends which we find endowed at the earliest period of the church." The church of Woodborough has many remains of magnificence and painted glass; the chapel appoint to it, as a curacy, South Muskham, one of the original foundations. This place was chiefly the property of Galfrey de Scrope, an eminent judge in the reigns of Edward II. and III. and descended to the lords Scropes of Masham. The family of Willoughby, now barons of Middleton, have long had the principal property in this parish: Mr. Dickinson gives some account of them with their pedigree.

North Muskham.—The history of this prebend is accompanied by the pedigrees of Pocklington, Dickenson, and Welby.

Holme.—The chapel of Holme was erected by an ancestor of Sir Thomas Barton's, about the time of Edward III. A very beautiful view of it is given, from which we may infer, that it is one among the best of country churches: the account and pedigree of the family of Barton accompanies it, with a good engraving of an antient monument, on the north side of the chancel, where several of the families of Barton and Bella are interred, supposed to be for one of the former, from the tun at the feet of the effigies. Over the door of the south porch, which is very handsome, are several shields, with the arms of the families just mentioned. "In the center, as they *take it*, are the original arms used by the great ancestor of the Bartons, to which by way of supporters, are added a stag and a lamb, with full fleeces, indicat-

f the source (wool) from which the fa-
ily derived its wealth." The note at
e bottom of this page is curious.

" Over this porch is a chamber, called,
far back as memory or tradition reach,
an Scot's chamber. The story, of which
is lady is the heroine, has been handed
wn with a degree of precision and unifor-
ity which entitles it to more credit than
ost such tales deserve. The last great
ague which visited this kingdom is reported
have made particular havock in the village
Holme, which is likely enough to have
ppened from its vicinity to Newark, where
is known to have raged with peculiar vio-
ence. During its influence, a woman of the
me of Ann Scot is said to have retired to
is chamber, with a sufficient quantity of
od to serve her for several weeks. Having
mained there unmolested till her provisions
ere exhausted, she came from her hiding-
ace either to procure more, or to return to
r former habitation, as circumstances might
ect her choice To her great surprise she
und the village entirely deserted, only one
rson of its former inhabitants except her-
lf being there alive. Attached to this asy-
m, and shocked by the horrors of the scene
bout, she is said to have returned to her
eat, and to have continued in it till her
ath, at an advanced period of life! A few
rs since many of her habiliments were
maining in this chamber, as also a table,
e size of which evidently manifested it to
ve been constructed within the room) with
me smaller pieces of furniture."

In this manner the author proceeds,
th an account of all the remain-
prebends, occasionally interspersing
ches of families accompanied by
r pedigrees.——In his notice of
pton, twenty miles from Southwell,
Dickinson gives a good engraving
e antient gate, which is well worth
mination, though he says not a word
t it.

n the history of the government and
diction civil and ecclesiastical, Mr.
kinson informs us, that the arch-
op of York is the supreme head of
hwell church, and of the liberty of
hwell, as well in matters civil as ec-
siastical; and that Southwell is the
l or metropolis of a peculiar juris-
ion, both civil and ecclesiastical:
e two jurisdictions are not co-exten-
; twenty towns are in the former,
twenty-eight in the latter. The
pter exercises, in the person of their
r-general, all episcopal functions
in the peculiar, except ordination
confirmation; the archbishop ap-
ts to prebends, but the prebendaries
elect their vicar from their own body,
and they appoint all inferiors in the
church. The archbishop is visitor of
Southwell. When this place was the
residence of the archbishops of York,
they had four parks in the neighbour-
hood; of these an account is given, and
anecdotes of the successive vicars.

Chapter v. treats of the founders, be-
nefactors, and patrons of the church
before the conquest, and from that pe-
riod to the present time, divided into
portions, each containing a reign; of
those patrons, &c. many interesting par-
ticulars are given, which we recommend
to the reader's notice.

The ensuing extract must terminate
our survey of this work, which con-
cludes with an account of the archiepis-
copal palace; the tombs in the church,
antiquities in the neighbourhood, and
of almost every place having any con-
nection with Southwell: each article is
curious in itself, but their number for-
bids particular notice.

" The first species of antiquities which
claim our attention within the parish of
Southwell, are its four famous wells: from
one of which, as has been before observed,
the town takes its modern name, and for
another of which it has been scarcely less
celebrated. The former of these is situated
on the side of the hill to the south-east of
the town, and about half a mile distant from
it. The ground in which this spring rises
belongs to the archbishop of York, and is
part of what was called the little park, conti-
guous to the palace. From the circumstance
of its rising in the demesne of the lord of the
manor, it early obtained the name of *Lord's
Well*, by which it is still distinguished. This
was much used early in the last century
as a bath by persons afflicted with the rheu-
matism; and near it was erected a sort of
recess, or alcove of stone work, for the con-
venience of those that frequented it. This
has long been destroyed, and the well is no
longer frequented as a bath, but by the boys
of the town for amusement, though its
stream runs as pure and as limpid as in the
days of its pristine reputation. The second
well which demands our notice, was situated
in the inclosure on the right of the cloister
leading to the chapter house. Rising within
the precincts of the church, it obtained the
name of *Holy Well*. This has been long
covered over or filled up.

" Another of these wells had its name also
from its situation, which was in the church-
yard, immediately under the walls of the
choir, on the north side, near to the chapter-
house; this was called *Lady's Well*, the
church being dedicated to our lady (the
Virgin Mary) of Southwell, and the well

within the consecrated ground of the church. It is well known that there was no spring at the bottom of this, wherefore its supply, which depended wholly on rain, was very precarious."

Mr. Dickinson very charitably, and very justly, rejects the fables invented at the time of the reformation, which state that the priests used to make this well flow with blood on particular festivals. It was evidently intended as a drain for the water falling from the church. Mr. Fowler, father to one of the vicars, fell into this well on a dark evening, 1764, and was drowned. The chapter thus warned of *their own* danger, had it covered.

"The third well was at the extremity of Westhorpe, and was called St. Catharine's Well, from a chapel contiguous to it, which was dedicated to that saint. The waters of this spring are said to be nearly the coldest in the kingdom. Within a century they were much recommended for their virtues in the cure of several complaints, particularly the rheumatism. A house was built here by Mr. Burton, of Norwood-park, the proprietor, about 1720, for the accommodation of persons who came to bathe; and many additions were made to the well, both of convenience and of ornament: over the head of the fountain was a plate, on which some Latin verses were inscribed, much to the honour of the tutelar saint and the reputation of the water. The extraordinary *purity* of both was the subject of the panegyric, and a participation of *this* quality was the promise holden out to those who came to seek the protection of St. Catharine. The [illegible] still remains little injured in its appearance, not at all so in its salutary qualities; but the deity of the place is left to lament the absence of her high priestess fashion, and the consequent diminution in the number of her votaries."

The reader will find, upon comparing the two editions of this work, that the author has made many *additions*; some of which, particularly the *tedious* recital of conjectures upon styles of building, might have been greatly compressed; others are of undisputed advantage to the plan: to point out those, and by parallels, would extend this review to an unpardonable length, but we cannot dismiss the history of Southwell without our acknowledgments to the author for laying before the public a vast variety of original and authentic articles, unknown to them before: these are generally judiciously arranged, though not uniformly so. Mr. Dickinson's style is clear and nervous, with the exception of some inelegancies, which are perhaps common to all topographical writers, imbibed insensibly by constant reference to the obsolete language of our ancestors.

The two parts contain 23 engravings, the first of which is a portrait of the author, who has omitted that of his father inserted in the first edition, which contains 14 plates, re-ingraved in some instances for the present edition.

ART. II. *The History and Description of Colchester (the Camulodunum of the Britons, and the first Roman Colony in Britain), with an Account of the Antiquities of that ancient Borough.* 2 Vols. 12mo. pp. 536.

THIS work comes under our cognizance in a very suspicious manner. Without an author's name, advertisement, or preface, we were at a loss for some time how to treat this unceremonious intruder; and the wording of the title rather excited our suspicion than our curiosity. This was increased upon reading the two paragraphs in the *first* page, where the writer rather ambiguously expresses himself in the following terms:

"Those whose researches unavoidably lead them to trace the intricate and doubtful mazes of remote antiquity, have such frequent illusions present themselves, that it is not much to be wondered at if the path is often mistaken which leads from the confused labyrinth of events to times wherein conjecture and sagacity are equally [illegible]. Whoever becomes thus bewildered, and lost amongst the innumerable uncertainties which surround him, has no other way to extricate himself, than either to overleap or cut a path through his wanderings, and at once escape the *labour and difficulty* of *right judgment*."

This curious kind of sophistry is highly creditable to the author's talents or to his honesty: for wherever difficulty or labour presents itself, we presume he would give us some random remark rather than encounter any trouble to *investigate* a doubtful point of antiquity. Indeed this seems very evident from many passages in the work, where various transactions relating to the Anglo-Roman history are related with a degree of confidence and decision, which

record or chronicle of those early ...ts will justify.

...olchester certainly occupies the site ...grand Roman station; and that it ... named Camulodunum is admitted ...e best informed antiquaries, though ...e few contend that this station was ...aldon. One argument seems suf...nt to decide this point. Various ..., pavements, coins, and other Ro... relics are continually found at the ...er town, but neither pavement nor ...has been discovered at the latter.

Colchester," observes this writer, "is ...d upon an eminence, boldly rising from ...orth and east, its inhabitants enjoyed ...riety of an extended view, with a dry ... and to an elevation above the mists and ...ms of the half surrounding valley, they ...the additional advantages that no enemy ...d make an unperceived approach on ... sides, nor advance without the hazard ... easy repulsion. To render the ap...hes on the south and west equally dif... to invaders, vast works and intrench... were formed, effectually to prevent *attempts*" (no fortification can prevent ...*pts*, though it may *secure* a garrison) ...er openly to conquer, or assault by ..., the inhabitants of the small district ...had enclosed; and of which Colchester ... *it were*, the capital. These works, ...ther formed by the labours of the Bri...(why not Britons?) or Romans, convey ...most ample satisfaction of the import... of the place secured, and point out the ...quence of its possession to have been ...derable. Such great and visible evi...es, as these may be called, are no where ...so abundant: and one who has seriously ...ed over the whole scene, and formed his ... to a right understanding of the sub... cannot but receive a forcible impulse ...nds believing that the ancient state of ...chester has not been fabled. It is these ex...d evidences of its antiquity, joined with ...timony gathered from antient authors, ...has induced the learned to give it the ...ation of Camulodunum: a city, in its ...one of the largest in Britain, and the ...d of the Trinobantes. The coins of ...obeline, of which more have been dis...ed here, than in all the other parts of ...in together, point out this to have ... his residence; and after him, it may ...sumed, at least occasionally, of suc...g Trinobantian kings."

...e coinage of Cunobeline has fur...d a theme for much dissertation and ...roversy by different antiquaries. Mr. Pegge has written expressly on the subject, and Mr. Whitaker, in his profound History of Manchester, decidedly states, that Cunobeline "was the first monarch in the island that *minted* money*."

The author of the work before us enters pretty largely into the Roman transactions as connected with Colchester, and pursues them in a chronological series from the first invasion of the Romans to the time that they were superseded by the Saxons; Colchester then assumed a new character, and a new name; its form of government was also new-modelled, and partook of the customs and legal institutions of the Saxons. During the Danish incursions this town suffered repeatedly; and from its situation, strong fortifications, and vicinity to the sea, it became often the scene of siege and bloodshed. Indeed the history of this, and of most fortified towns, abounds with a horrid repetition of offensive and defensive operations. From the first landing of Julius Cæsar in Britain, to the time of Oliver Cromwell, our general and local histories record scarcely any events but those of a military and murdering nature, to which the principal contents of the first volume of this work bear ample testimony.

The siege of Colchester by Ireton, and the lamented fate of Sir Charles Lucas and Sir George Lisle are the most interesting of the military transactions. After the town had surrendered, these knights "were brought forth, and *without accusation, defence*, or *other preliminary* form, were ordered to be shot." Sir Charles was a man of extraordinary courage and fortitude; to all the insulting taunts of Ireton and his colleagues, he looked and acted with that intrepid freedom and magnanimity which can only be known to the man of great and good mind. Instant death was denounced and put in execution, though request was made to suspend the tragedy till the following day; "that they might have leisure for the performance of their religious duties, and to arrange their temporal affairs. This reasonable request was harshly denied, and Sir Charles Lucas sharply replied to Ireton, that he would not have him think the petition was made from any desire he had to

*The tenor of the history in Dio, p. 957—959, plainly shews Cunobeline to have ... king of the Cassii, as well as of the Trinobantis; and Camulodunum was the capi... of that monarch.

Digitized by Google

live, or escape the death designed him, for that he *scorned to ask life* at *his* hand, and should be soon ready for execution." After a short ceremony with Lord Capell's chaplain, the hour "drew nigh that called for a steady exercise of those principles of courage, indignant honour, and religion, which had led them thus far in their course without faultering. It was seven o'clock when they were led forth from the castle, and conducted to a green spot of ground a few paces from the wall on the north side of it. Here the three colonels, Ireton, Whalley, and Rainsborough, with three files of musketeers, had already arrived, and upon perceiving the knights advance, put themselves in order to perform their fatal work. Sir Charles Lucas coming forward took the appointed stand, at the same time saying, 'I have often faced death in the field, and you shall now see I dare die.'—Calmly kneeling down, he continued a few minutes in that humble posture of religious intercession, and rising with a cheerful countenance, hastily opened his doublet and pulled his hat on firmly. Then placing his arms at his sides, as in defiance, with a resolute indignation, called aloud, 'See, I am ready for you; now *rebels* do your worst.'—An instant discharge of the musquetry ensued, and four mortal wounds put an immediate end to his existence*." Sir George Lisle immediately suffered the same fate, and their bodies were afterwards interred in a vault at St. Giles's church, Colchester, where their coffins are now to be seen.

The second volume of this work contains the local and parochial history of Colchester; in which every particular circumstance relating to the churches, monasteries, castle, police, tombs, &c. is minutely detailed. Among this mass of miscellaneous matter, we find a few relations of an amusing, and some of rather an interesting, nature.

The following historical particulars of the Colchester oyster may be considered among this class, by those who have a *taste* for the subject.

"The oysters which are the produce of this fishery, being so famous, it may not be improper to mention some particulars relating to them. They are of several sorts, of which the Pye-fleet is most in esteem, being a small thick oyster with a deep transparent shell. The creek in which they are found proceeds from the river to the Street at the entrance of Mersea island. The number of oysters which are natives of this creek cannot be very great; neither can the whole produce of the river, with its various creeks, be anyways adequate to the vast quantities sold under the denomination of Colchester oysters. The great demand daily made for them has obliged the merchants to get oysters from other places, which they strew upon their layings; after these oysters have acquired a degree of fatness, they are not unfrequently vended as the native production of the fishery.

"Oysters cast their spawn in April and May, and about Midsummer and Michaelmas. This is called the spat by the fishermen, and cleaves to stones, oyster-shells, pieces of wood, and other things, at the bottom of the sea, all which they call cultch. The spat, when first cast, is like the drop of a candle, but no larger than a small spangle.

"It is conjectured that in twenty-four hours after, the shell begins to be formed. After the oysters have first spawned they are sick, but soon after begin to get well, and in August are perfectly so. The male oysters having a black substance in the fin, is termed black sick, and the female having a milky substance in the fin, they term white sick. When they take the oysters, they separate the small brood from the cultch, and then throw it in again; but if the spat is so small that it cannot be severed from the cultch, then they are permitted to take the stones the cultch the spat is upon. The spat and small oysters thus taken, are spread upon places called beds or layers, near the edge of the river, where they grow and fatten, and in two or three years the smallest become oysters of the legal size. The size, a brass oyster cast in brass, which is kept by the magistrates, or water-bailiff.

"When the oysters have attained the legal size, they are removed from their layings, or beds, into pits cut in the marsh where they fatten. Some of these pits communicate a green tinge to the fin of the oyster, which colour they acquire in a few days. The method of giving this quality to the pit is kept a secret, but there is little doubt to be made, that it consists in sowing the bottom of the pit with some vegetable upon which, when it begins to spring, the oysters feed. That this quality is communicated to the pit, and is not occasioned by the nature of the soil, is evident; otherwise it would not be easy to account why a pit within a foot or two of a green pit, shall not have the same quality. But it is owing to a cause not permanent in evident, as a pit after a certain time

"* An antient servant of Sir Charles Lucas, who was a sad spectator of this event surprised, through affection, with such passion for his loss, as earnestly to beseech at the hands of the soldiers. Loyal Sacrifice, p. 78."

Digitized by Google

e power of giving a green hue to the oyster. cannot be copperas, as some have imagin- ; for although copperas is green in the p, yet when dissolved its colour is dif- nt; neither, were it not, is it easy to ceive such a dangerous mineral should the food of an animal; or if it were, ld not be easily discovered in the effects ould produce on those who had eaten of yster which received its colour from so cious a substance.

" The culch being so necessary for the ers to spat upon, it is made felony to y it away after the month of May; and lties are laid by the admiralty court those who destroy or carry it away at any time. Notwithstanding which, while by the payment of a fine of five pounds or ten pounds the fisherman can carry out of the river, as much culch and spat as is worth one hundred pounds, which is not unfrequently the case, it is not likely that their honesty, either to those who are entitled to dredge with them, or to the corporation who grant them licence, will stand so much in their way, as to prevent a practice which, although descended from father to son, and has not yet met with its adequate punishment, can make no better claim to exemption from it, than many practices for which the culprit undergoes the severest rigour of justice."

. III. *The Student's Guide; being a concise Account of the honourable Society of Lincoln's Inn: containing the Forms of Admission, keeping Terms, performing Exercises, Call to the Bar, Admission to Chambers, of leaving the Society, &c. By* THOMAS ANE, *Steward.* 8vo. pp. 96.

THE society of Lincoln's inn has been celebrated for the antiquity he foundation and the eminence of rofessors; exclusive of the interest ed by magnificent buildings and e domains, disposed with the greatest t. Indeed the importance of the of court throughout London, has ently excited the attention of au- . Our excellent antiquary, Sir liam Dugdale, followed the indefa- ble Stowe in his researches, but as diffusion of knowledge was infinite- greater in the time of Sir William, ound more would be required than ere repetition from his predecessor, therefore commenced his *Origines idiciales*, which was published in folio, 6. This work goes to the very ng-head of law, and from that head has followed the course of the stream ll its meanders, till he accomplish- a beautiful plan, which has been d so correct and excellent that his successors in the pursuit have ted it as an unerring guide. Every ication treating of London, silent- acknowledges this fact, discerned ughout all the veils afforded by the position of words. His information be perceived lurking in " The ory and Antiquities of the Inns of rt," 8vo. 1780; and Ireland's " Pic- sque Views, with an Historical Ac- t of the Inns of Court in London Westminster," large 8vo. 1800, ains whole pages extracted from the *ines Juridiciales*.

The object of Mr. Lane was far dif- nt: he perceived, from his official ration, that many inconveniencies arose from ignorance of the preliminary steps in applying for admission to the society, and ascertaining the precise duties required from its members. The rules were certainly before the public in a variety of publications, but in every instance encumbered by matter totally irrelevant: his little work was compiled, therefore, to bring into one view all that the student should know; and this he appears to have done concisely and clearly, as the following extracts and analysis of the contents will shew:

" In the arrangement of the following information for students, its utility only has been consulted.

" Had the work required superior intelligence, or profound ingenuity, the writer is too conscious of his own deficiency in either to have attempted the task.

" Indeed, the rules, regulations, and customs, here introduced, require only that plain language, of which this work consists; nor could they be interspersed with anecdote to interest, without, in proportion, detracting from the main object in view.

" At the conclusion will be found a considerable list of persons entered at Lincoln's Inn, whose names are illustrious in the page of history, or venerable in the volumes of jurisprudence.

" To detail the signal benefits conferred on their country by those eminent characters, would as far exceed the writer's intention as it would surpass his humble capacity; but to enumerate the high stations awarded to their talents and virtues, may prove a stimulus to honourable exertion, and awake emulation in the mind of the student desirous of aspiring to similar distinction."

Authors so rarely estimate their own abilities in this humble way, that we are often under the necessity of checking

Digitized by Google

their vanity; but Mr. Lane is too fearful of presuming, and perhaps permits his fears to overcome a wish of extending his account of this honourable society. Such an account from a person of his abilities and peculiarly favourable situation, accompanied with biographical anecdotes, would undoubtedly be very acceptable to the public, who certainly would amply remunerate him for his expences and labour.

Mr. Lane enters into a short but satisfactory history of Lincoln's Inn, which is composed of the old buildings, the garden, Serle Court or New Square, and the stone building. "It is situated in a street anciently called New Street, or Chancellor's Lane, (from the rolls office being situate there) but now called Chancery Lane."

The order of black friers had a monastery in Holborn, which having fallen into decay, that and the palace of Ralph Nevil, bishop of Chichester, built on a piece of ground granted to him by Henry III. were converted into Lincoln's Inn.

"Afterwards Henry Lacy then Earl of Lincoln, became possessed of it, and resided thereon, and from thence it derived its name; for we learn, that about the beginning of the reign of Edward II. being partial to the study of the law, he first engaged its professors to settle here.

"The succeeding bishops of Chichester, whose inheritance it was, let leases to law students, reserving a rent and lodgings to themselves on their coming to London.

"Francis Syliard, a bencher in the time of Henry VII. had a lease thereof, when Robert Sherborne, then bishop of Winchester, granted a new lease to William Syliard his son, then a student, for ninety-nine years, at 6l. 13s. 4d. per annum, which ended in 1634.

"Richard Simpson, a succeeding bishop of Chichester, in 1536, passed the inheritance thereof, and of the garden called Cotterel garden, at Coneygarth,* to the said William Syliard and Eustace his brother, which grant was confirmed by the dean and chapter, William being then one of the ushers of Henry VIII.'s bed-chamber.

"Eustace, surviving Edward his son and heir, by deed of the 22d of Elizabeth, conveyed to Richard Kingsmill and other benchers, this house, garden, &c. in fee, whereupon a fine was levied by the said Edward and his wife.

"Thus far relates to the whole of the Inn, excepting what is denominated Serle Court, known by the name of the New Square."

The buildings of which this is composed were erected by the person just mentioned, on Fickett's Field, or Little Lincoln's Inn Field. Disputes having subsisted between this Henry Serle, Esq. and the then masters of the bench, articles were entered into by the parties, 9th Charles II. which set them at rest for ever: of those Mr. Lane gives an abstract.

"The buildings within the Inn which require particular mention are,—the chapel—the hall—the stone building—the library. The chapel was built by Inigo Jones, completed in five years, and consecrated in 16[illegible] by George Mountain, bishop of London. Internally it is decorated with painted windows, representing the prophets and apostles, the arms of a few noblemen, and the treasurers successively from 1680 to the present [illegible].

"The cloisters underneath are much admired, and have of late years been railed in. The ground, being the burial-ground of the society, is now reserved for the interment of the benchers only, by an order made in [illegible] 1791; the place being too small for a general burial ground. Here Thurlow, the secretary of state to Oliver Cromwell, lies buried with an inscription on a flat stone.

"The roof and Gothic window at the east end of the chapel, were completely renewed abont ten years since, and other repairs added, under the direction of Mr. Wyatt.

"In 1658, Henry Colfer, Esq. of this Inn, devised 12l. per annum for ever, for a sermon to be preached in Lincoln's Inn chapel, the first Wednesday in every month (which is regularly performed), and 6l. per annum for certain charitable purposes. In 1768, a lecture in the form of sermons was founded by the bishop of Gloucester (Dr. Warburton), late preacher to the society, proving the truth of the Christian religion from the completion of the prophecies in the Old and New Testament. To be preached the first Sunday after Michaelmas term, and the first Sunday before and after Hilary term, annually, (which duty is regularly performed) pursuant to the directions of the founder. A preacher and chaplain are appointed by the society, and divine service regularly performed

* "So called from the quantity of rabbits, for we find in the 8th of Edward IV. the 19th Henry VII. and 24th Henry VIII. strict penalties on the students hunting the same with bows, arrows, or darts."

Digitized by Google

m Sundays, as well as on the usual days ppointed by the church.

"The hall, sixty-two feet long and thirty-wo feet broad, was built in the time of Henry II. The interior is spacious and well-proportioned. At the upper end is a fine picture y Hogarth, (14 feet by 10 feet 6 inches) presenting Paul before Felix; and on the indows and pannels round the hall, the ms of the various law dignitaries (a list of hich is subjoined) former members of this ciety.

"Its exterior has lately been repaired, and mpletely covered with patent stucco composition, in imitation of stone.

"The stone building forms only part of more spacious design, by Sir Robert Taylor, ho was the architect, and under whose direction it was built in 1780. These chamers, from their magnificence, let and sell at igh prices; but very good chambers may e had in different parts of the Inn, (by apying to the steward) on very reasonable rms, either on purchase or to rent. The mbers in the stone building are held upon ses, dated June 1780, for 99 years and ree lives named at the time, with power to minate a fourth at the death of the last, nsferable during life on payment of a fine 10l. for each set of chambers.

"The rooms in the stone building comand a noble view of Lincoln's Inn Fields, e of the largest squares in Europe, conining about eight acres of ground, forming a size of the base of one of the Egyptian ramids, and is now laid out upon a very proved plan."

It is a singular circumstance, marking th the antient and modern history of s square, that every attempt suggested its improvement, by public spirited inhabitants, has been rendered abortive by rice, or want of taste in the trustees. ore dreary blank never disgraced an ent city than the area of Lincoln's Fields. This seemed to invite a build- of magnificent proportions, and such proposed more than one hundred past, to serve as a parish church; ailing, Drury-lane play-house might been transferred there, or St. Cle- 's church, from the strange situation in which it now stands; but No, no, no! has proved the invariable reply to every plan, till the auspicious year 1802 introduced a thousand diminutive bushes, and a number of circular and right-lined gravel-walks, which a singular fatality in the surface prevents the passenger from beholding, except in partial glances.

"The whole of Lincoln's Inn is extra parochial except a part of Serle court, and most (if not the whole of the chambers) entitle the proprietor to a vote for the election of a member of parliament for Middlesex or Westminster."

"The library occupies an elegant suite of apartments on the ground floor of No. 2 in the stone building, and is open from ten o'clock until two every day for the use of members of the Inn. The collection of books is extensive, containing about eight thousand volumes, and which are increasing annually. It has many valuable MSS.; is ornamented with a few very good pictures, among which are landscapes on copper by Brughel, and portraits of Lord Chief Justice Hale, and Lord Chief Justice Rainsford; there is also a fine marble bust of Cicero."

Furnival's Inn is an Inn of Chancery, and an appendage to Lincoln's Inn: it was purchased by the society 1st Edward VI. and let on a lease which is now nearly expired.

Thavies Inn belonged to Lincoln's Inn, but was sold in 1769, afterwards burnt, and rebuilt like a street.

After giving a general account of the place, Mr. Lane proceeds to the principal object of the work, which is too dry for amusement, but extremely useful to any person wishing to enter the society.

The commons, or public dinners, are provided every day during term in the hall, where students may dine for 1s. 9d. each, who receive a black gown from the porter in the lobby, paying 2s. 6d. for it the first term, and 1s. each term afterwards.

The meat and vegetables are served in messes for four persons. The students sit at the side tables, and the benchers and barristers at the cross tables.

IV. *The History and Antiquities of Plesby, in the County of Essex, the Seat of the Lord Constable of England. By* RICHARD GOUGH. 4to. pp. 195. Appendix 152.

HEN we take up the production author, whose life has been princi- devoted to *one* particular branch of and also know that he possesses mbined advantages of an ample e, a learned education, a profuse y, and all the desireable adventi- requisites to produce an excellent, nearly perfect book, our expecta- tion and curiosity are greatly excited; we eagerly anticipate an intellectual feast, and prepare the mental appetite for a rich repast. But, if instead of the anticipated treat, we become nauseated, our disappointment and displeasure excite complaint and reprehension. The former of these sentiments was excited upon our first view of Mr. Gough's his-

Digitized by Google

tory, and, we are sorry to acknowledge, that a tedious perusal provoked the latter. This learned author possesses all the advantages above enumerated, and the public are entitled to expect greater excellence from him, than from the generality of topographers: but when an author sacrifices his public duty, to his private partialities, then his writings abound with theory instead of fact, and dissertation instead of description. The works of Stukeley, Rowland, Borlase, King, Gough, and a few others, are notorious examples of this. In the writings of the latter antiquary, are displayed an extensive knowledge of his subject, much reading and research, but a deficiency of that taste and judgment which adorns and enhances works of genius and talent. Like many enthusiatic antiquaries, Mr. Gough has been often the dupe of imposture, and given currency to fabricated stories. Some of these have been confuted in the Gentleman's and European Magazines; and others will be detected by future topographers. Though we wish to guard our readers against the fallacious statements of Mr. Gough, yet we readily and gladly allow him much merit in the execution of his "British Topography," and his splendid, ponderous, and expensive "Sepulchral Monuments." The latter will prove a lasting memento of his perseverance and research, and also of his excentricity and credulity.

In the History and Antiquities of Pleshy, we expected a long account of some curious, or important remains, which characterize this part of Essex; but the reader will readily judge of our disappointment, when we inform him that not *forty* pages are strictly appropriated to local description. Nearly the whole of the volume is occupied with anecdotes of, and observations on the life of Thomas of Woodstock, Duke of Gloucester, sixth son of Edward the third, high constable of England, and who occasionally resided at Pleshy castle. This noblemen is made the hero of the volume, and as all heroes are generally drawn with every advantage of light and shade; so is this of Mr. Gough's. Contrary to the evidence of all our English historians, he is here represented as a "patriot, a magnanimous and generous councillor," &c.; and his merits and virtues are the theme of 144 quarto pages.

In the small portion of this work which bears any relation to the title, it is stated that Pleshy was "no inconsiderable *roman station*." Unfortunately for the antiquarian discrimination of its author, neither the character of the castrametation, the discoveries made, the roads, or remains, will justify the assertion. If antiquaries thus indiscriminately appropriate encampments, or fragments of antiquity to the Romans, we may as well give up research and investigation, and unequivocally pronounce the character and era of all ancient remains.

Having said thus much of our author in general terms, we now bring him before the reader in the following extracts from the *preface*, which is the best part of the work, being written with more care, and containing more unequivocal information than all the subsequent part of the volume.

"It is impossible," says Mr. Gough, "to view the site of PLESHY, or to trace its history, without entering into that of its lords; and the history of THOMAS OF WOODSTOCK is a history of the first twenty years of the unfortunate reign of his nephew," (Richard II.) "and a key to the misfortunes which overwhelmed him in the two last. We behold, in Gloucester, a stern *inflexible patriot*, who, if he panted for the fields where much glory had been won from France by his father and brother, was far less blameable than those whose ambition engaged the country in expeditions of conquest against Portugal and Aquitaine, and wasted the ill-gotten treasure in unjustifiable claims of other sovereignties; while the war with France and Scotland was still on their hands and rebellion advanced in the centre of the capital. The minor king's high conceit of his own abilities, were heightened by the flattery of favorites, and drowned in extravagant parade, which swallowed up his revenues. These favourites were Alexander Neville archbishop of York; Robert de Vere, earl of Oxford, a young man of spirit, misled in debauchery; Richard de la Pole, son of a rich merchant of Hull; and judge Tresilian, who never wanted reasons to countenance the king's wishes. These rose upon the king's liberality, and were amply rewarded for their insinuating counsels, while those who managed public affairs, and bore the weight of government, were slightly compensed. Not that Richard wanted liberality whenever it was called upon, but he was inspired with jealousy against his best friends, and recurred to the basest expedients to deliver himself from their remonstrances. Lancaster's conduct had not ingratiated him with the people, while the *firm patriot* Gloucester, recommended him powerfully to them, and while he, on the other hand, supported their remonstrances. It is easy to conceive how such a man must be lost

on in the flippant, unsteady court of Rich-
, in which French counsels gained a com-
te ascendancy.

That we have few historians of Rich-
's reign, is ascribed by Hearne,* to the
ence of the House of Lancaster in the
n of Henry VI. A monk of Evesham is
principal writer of his life taken singly;
enough will be found in the general his-
es of Walsingham and Froissart, to jus-
the opinion of the weakness and folly,
to say the wickedness of his conduct.
t he might have been trained by Sir
on Burley and the Earl of Warwick, to
e most accomplished prince of his time,
that his person rendered him the *pret-*
gentleman, is allowed on all hands: but
e wanted stability, understanding, and
ple, is too notorious to be denied;
he would have been easily led, had he
n into good hands, is confirmed by the
dancy which evil counsellors gained
him. Holinshed is almost the first his-
n who speaks favourably of him; but
as reserved for those superstitious ido-
s of kingly power, Hearne † and Carte,‡
tol his understanding, sagacity, and pe-
tion, at the expence of his uncles and
ers.

Perhaps no contemporary historian has
n actions in a truer light than the lively
inquisitive Froissart, who omitted no
tunity of satisfying his curiosity, and
e impartiality has been proved beyond
adiction.§ In this view large extracts
e been here made from his history, which
I am sorry to say, has been so disfigured in all the editions hitherto printed, that it was necessary to have recourse to a beautiful manuscript copy of it, in the Royal Library now in the British Museum, in six volumes, folio, marked 14 D. I—vi., and illustrated with several beautiful illuminations, (of which two are here engraved from drawings made by the late Mr. Joseph Strutt, when he was selecting his Royal Antiquities from that valuable collection,) and from another beautiful manuscript, marked E. 11. in the same library, bound in green velvet. It is by no means improbable that these volumes were part of the antient library of the king of France, in the Louvre tower, collected and augmented by John, Charles V. and VI., and in 1425, when the English made themselves masters of Paris, purchased for 1200 francs, by the duke of Bedford, regent, to be carried into England.‖

"This manuscript deserves to be carefully collated with the latest edition, by Sauvage, Paris, 1574, folio;¶ where among many other inaccuracies, the proper names of persons and places in Great Britain, are grossly misrepresented, and equally so those of other nations.

"The original orthography is retained in the manuscript, and the only difference is in the division and titles of the charts, a difference which Le Carne observed in the different manuscripts in the French king's library. The hope of seeing a correct edition of this historian from his countrymen, and a faithful translation from one of our own, for-

* Preface to the Monk of Evesham. † Ibid. ‡ History of England, ii. 640.
De la Carne de St. Palaye, Memoires on his writings, particularly his judgment on
istory, p. 322. Mem. de l' Acad. des Insc. and Belles Lettres, xx. p. 288. 340. 360.
o.

‖ See Abbé Bignon's Memoires on the ancient library of the Louvre. Mem. de l' Acad.
Insc. and B. L. iii. 508. 511. 120.

¶ Froissart's History was first published by Anthony Verard, at Paris, without date,
volumes, folio; by Michael le Noir, Paris, 1505, two volumes, folio; by Galleot du
Paris, 1530, three volumes, folio; by John de Tournes, Lyons, 1559, 1560, 1561,
volumes, folio; revised and corrected by Denys Sauvage This last was exactly copied
e at Paris, by Gervais Maillot, 1574, three volumes, folio. To these editions, Mr.
es adds others in his own possession. 1. By Guill. Eustace, Paris, 1514; 2. an
n by Denys Sauvage, printed by Michael Sommes, Paris, 1574. This I have, but the
es are rather books making one sizeable volume. 3. Another edition, by D. Sauvage,
d for Michael de Roynev, Paris, 1574.
auvage acknowledges that he printed from the three first black letter editions, and two
cript abridgements, making some alterations from better historians, "to give a mean-
passages which were in want of it," placing the original reading in the margin, and
g names of persons and places unaltered; "from the impossibility of correcting them
success." With regard to the language, besides his intention never to change any
of the antient words, he accompanies them with an explanation whenever he thinks
not sufficiently intelligible, not always indeed successfully, but illustrating his chro-
y, geography, and facts, in notes from historians, maps and records. In the public
y at Paris, are upwards of thirty folio volumes, containing separately, some one of the
books into which this history is divided; some illuminated with miniatures. Many
cripts have been written in England, or destined for that country; since the author is
ented as offering his book to its king and queen.
Mr. Johnes observes, p. 206, "M. de S. Palaye is ignorant how rich this country is in
uscripts of Froissart. There are many magnificent ones in the British Museum, at
ford, Cambridge, and in other public and private libraries. I have in my library not less
an six, but not one is a complete history."

Digitized by Google

bids me expatiating any further on this head.

"FROISSART appears to have been a man of gaiety and curiosity from his earliest youth. He had scarcely attained his twentieth year, when he was engaged by his dear lord and master, Sir Robert de Namur, Knt. lord of Beaufort, to write the history of the wars of his own time. Four years afterwards he went to England, and presented part of his work to queen Phillippa, sister to the wife of his patron, who made him clerk of her chamber, and encouraged him to travel to various parts of Europe for information. He appears to have been in England in 1361 and 1363, six months in Scotland, and part of the time in Wales. His royal patroness died 1369, while he was absent, and he did not return to England till twenty-seven years after; viz, in 1395, taking advantage of the truce between the two nations, and furnished with letters of recommendation to Richard and his uncles. The former he gratified with an amorous novel, splendidly bound and illuminated; and received from him in return, 100 rubles, equal to about 25 guineas of our present coin, in a goblet of silver gilt, weighing two marks: the king having previously proposed to continue him of his household; while the nobility and persons about the court, took pains to inform our traveller in the transactions of the reign, particularly the conquest of Ireland. In relating the melancholy end of Richard, 1399, he acquits himself most gratefully to his prince, by the affecting manner in which he laments his misfortunes. At the same time he remarks, that in this event he saw the accomplishment of a prediction which had been made at his birth at Bourdeaux; and also of a prophecy in the romance of Brutus, by Wace, which pointed out the prince that would destroy him. He does not seem to have long survived, dying within two years after, at the age of sixty-four, having been born at Valenciennes, about 1337; and having been priest, canon, and treasurer of the collegiate church of Chinay, and rector of Lestine, where he frankly confesses the tavern-keepers had 500 francs of his money, during the short time he held this valuable benefice. He was an amorous poet, a pleasant, but often too credulous historian, and a jolly priest. His history extends from 1326 to 1400, and comprehends the events of his own time in every part of Europe, and even of Turkey and Africa: divided into four volumes, and these again into chapters; and in some manuscripts, the first volume is divided into four, six, or eight parts. Froissart's materials for the history of England, were of the most genuine kind. He lived in habits of intimacy with John earl of Hainault, who had afforded protection to the queen of Edward II. when her own brother, Charles the Fair, king of France, was obliged to order her out of his dominions, and her son, afterwards king Edward III., married the daughter of her protector, which princess afterwards became patroness of our historian, who had the additional advantage of being eye-witness of many of the facts he relates, and has been charged with partiality to England, and hostility to France; from both which charges he has been vindicated by his biographer, Palaye, an agreeable abstract of whose work has just been published in English, by Mr. Johnes.

"Froissart was a favourite book of Mr. Gray, who thought it strange that people who would give thousands for a dozen portraits (originals of that time) to furnish a gallery, should never cast an eye on so many moving pictures of the life, actions, manners, and thoughts of their ancestors, *done* on the spot, in strong, though simple colours.* He considered him as the Herodotus of a barbarous age; *had* he but *had* the luck of writing in as good a language, he might have been immortal. His locomotive dispositions (for then there were no other ways of learning things) his simple curiosity, his religious credulity, were much like those of the old Grecian."†

The following passage, from the first page of our author's history, will shew that fancy and conjecture are substituted for judgment and discrimination.

"Among the various monuments of antiquity, which abound in these kingdoms few perhaps afford so much scope for fancy as well as matter of history, as the venerable site of Pleshy castle. The stupendous keep, amazing ditch, and magnificent bridge of one brick arch, must strike the most superficial spectator."

Don Quixote's dulcinea had, to his a thousand charms, and a thousand beauties, which no other person could discover. Pleshy seems to be the dulcinea of Mr. Gough; we are therefore, surprised at the hyperbolical terms he employs to characterize it, when we assert that its "magnificent *bridge*," is a plain, unornamented, simple pile of *arched brick*, and that the "amazing *ditch*" is a mole hill, compared to those at Marlbrough, at Old Sarum, Oxford, and many other places we could mention; our readers will agree with us, that great reliance is not to be placed on such descriptions. Let us see the continuation of the passage.

"But on a closer inspection," observes Mr. Gough, "this spot will be found to furnish some new lights for the illustration of our national antiquities. We may pro-

* Mason's Memoirs of Gray, p. 275. 4to. † Ibid. p. 392.

Digitized by Google

ere trace the progress of fortification among
s, from the Roman to the Norman times.
f the particular enthusiasm with which I
el myself inspired, when

On pilgrimage Time's traces I pursue
The relics of these traces for to see."

"I will be bold to affirm, that few places
ford more ample speculation to an English
tiquary, than this residence of our High
onstables of England, for four centuries
om the conquest."

Having described, what the author
lls, the roman fortification; and stated
at some "human bones, a *bit of iron*,
tone coffin, a glass urn with bones in
, and some *tessela* of pavements," have
en found here: he proceeds to des-
be the proprietors of the manor, to
illiam Mandeville, 1180. "From
is time," says our antiquary, "we
st *probably* date the Norman fortifica-
n of this place. A simple vallum and
ch *had rendered* this station tenable
inst the *savage natives* in the Roman
es, when it probably made a part of
hain of stations through the heart of
county from the sea." If the
thor knew any thing of this *chain*, he
uld have pointed out a few links of it,
tisfy the readers curiosity; instead
hich, this gentleman, with the gene-
ty of topographers, principally nar-
s a catalogue of names, of *marriages*,
intermarriages, with births, baptisms, and
s.
imilar matter continues to the tenth
, when we take leave of Pleshy;
the history of Thomas of Wood-
, sixth son of Edward III. com-
es, and occupies the intervening
, to 155. In delineating the cha-
of this nobleman, our author has
olours which we presume will not
the test of investigation; but like
of the experimental colouring of
at Sir Joshua Reynolds, will eva-
with time. The duke of Gloces-
ough possessing considerable abi-
lities, and ambitious of popularity, was of a turbulent, crafty, haughty disposition: Dr. Henry, in his History of England, says, "He seldom came to court, but to insult his sovereign; not to council, but to thwart his measures. Though he had received grants of immense value from his nephew, (Richard II.) he was constantly engaged in factious machinations, to disturb his government," &c. This character from the Doctor coinciding nearly with those given by other historians, make us suspect, that partiality, not judgment, has guided the pen of our antiquary. In giving an account of his murder at Calais, he has quoted copiously from Froissart, Bourchier, Sandford, &c., and has had a print engraved, representing the event. According to Froissart, the Duke was strangled with a towel "twisted round his neck, and drawn at each end by two men." He was afterwards "honourably embalmed, and put into a lead coffin enclosed in another of wood, and thus sent by sea to England." The corpse was landed at Hadleigh Castle, in Essex, and buried, *first* in his collegiate church, at Pleshy, afterwards removed to Westminster, before 1399: for in that year his "dutchess, by will, dated August the 3d., desired to lie by him." In a subsequent page, Mr. Gough says, "the dutchess survived her lord about two years, and made her will on the 9th day of August, 1399." The latter is the *date* of her will, as recorded in the collection of royal and noble wills, published by J. Nichols. Our author proceeds to relate the marriages, connections, &c., of the duke's children.

A long appendix of 132 pages, contains copies of grants, licences, statutes of Pleshy college, deeds, and other instruments. The volume "is embellished" with fourteen plates, which for drawing and engraving, would even disgrace Mr. Grose's Antiquities.

V. *The Gazetteer of Scotland; containing a particular and precise Description of Counties, Parishes, Islands, Cities, Towns, Villages, Lakes, Rivers, Mountains, &c. &c. of that Kingdom, with an Account of the Political Constitution, History, Extent, Boundaries, State of Agriculture, Population, Natural History, Buildings, Seats of Nobility and Gentry, Roads, &c. illustrated with an elegant Map.* large 8vo.

gazetteer is, without exception, that has ever come under our ance, and we feel much pleasure ing testimony to its general merits tility. *Good* gazetteers and *good* dictionaries are among the greatest desiderata of literature; they are the grand repositories of collected facts, and registers of unequivocal information. Thus completed, the learned may resort to

them with confidence, and the young student with constant advantage. The most learned authors have usefully applied their time and knowledge to the compilation of orthographical dictionaries; but no able writer has ever yet executed a geographical or topographical dictionary. We know it is an arduous and tedious task, which would scarcely remunerate a man of talent for his time and exertion; and when completed, would be characterised by the fastidious critic, as a work of mere compilation and mechanical drudgery. It therefore gives us pleasure to see the work before us executed so respectably; and if we cannot give it unqualified approbation, we shall be very lenient in censure. The topography and antiquities of Scotland have been more fully described than those of England, Wales, or Ireland; consequently the task of arranging the whole in alphabetical order is greatly facilitated. The laborious and circumstantial statistical history, edited by Sir John Sinclair, with the many scientific and miscellaneous works, exclusively written on Scotland, constitute a substantial and permanent basis for such a publication as the present. And it is no small degree of praise to say, that the editor seems to have made a judicious use of these materials.

The gazetteer is preceded by a long introduction, in which the editor has concisely narrated the most prominent and characteristic circumstances, relating to Scotland in general. From this part of the work we intend to make different extracts, which will serve to exemplify the writer's style and manner, and also afford much condensed information concerning this part of Great Britain.

"Scotland is bounded on *all sides* by the sea, *except* on the S.E. where it is joined to England." This is rather an unpropitious beginning, where the writer *contradicts* himself in the first sentence; but many *fine* writers are guilty of this vulgarism.

"Scotland is about 280 miles in length, from the Mull of Galloway to Cape Wrath; and at the greatest breadth, from the Point or Ru of Ardnamurchan to Buchanness, 180 miles; but the land is so indented by arms of the sea, that the breadth is exceedingly various, and no part is distant above 40 miles from the coast." Next follows a particular description of the coasts, including some account of the friths and bays. By this we learn, that the northern coast [illegible] nerally "bold and dangerous, [illegible] out into formidable rocky promon[illegible] and divided from the Orkneys by [illegible] row and tempestuous sea, nam[illegible] Pentland Frith. The whole of th[illegible] tern shore seems torn and shatte[illegible] the fury of the waves, and is every [illegible] indented by extensive arms of th[illegible] while in every part innumerable [illegible] are seen, which appear as if the[illegible] been detached or torn from the [illegible] land by some convulsion of natur[illegible]

In describing the *surface* of Sc[illegible] the writer says, it is estimated [illegible] tain an area of 27,794 miles; w[illegible] the report lately made to the b[illegible] agriculture, comprehends 1[illegible] acres of cultivated, and 14,218,[illegible] of uncultivated lands. The r[illegible] of the surface is occupied by l[illegible] rivers. Scotland is naturally [illegible] into the two great divisions, o[illegible] and *lowlands*, (of which particu[illegible] counts are given in the gazette[illegible] is also divided into three parts, [illegible] the north, middle, and south d[illegible] whose boundaries are strongly [illegible] by nature.

"In the northern division, the fa[illegible] country presents nothing to the eye [illegible] assemblage of vast mountains; b[illegible] however, on the N. N.E. and E. c[illegible] vales and level tracts of considerable [illegible] The middle division also contains ma[illegible] ranges of mountains, particularly the[illegible] pians, which extend from Aberdeen[illegible] a S. W. direction, to the Atlantic. [illegible] two divisions, which comprehend m[illegible] two thirds of Scotland, the arable [illegible] bears but a small proportion to the [illegible] tainous regions; of which the rugged[illegible] sterility will ever in a great measure [illegible] efforts of human industry. The co[illegible] the eastern coasts of the middle divis[illegible] in a great part of the southern, bein[illegible] resemblance to England, and the prop[illegible] of the cultivated to the uncultivated [illegible] third. In the southern division we fin[illegible] sort of rural variety."

Some account of the *mountains*, *rivers*, and *forests*, follows. Und[illegible] latter head we find, that the ancie[illegible] rests of Scotland have been gre[illegible] minished, and few plantations subst[illegible] in their place.

"Of the antient *Sylva Caledonia*, or [illegible] donian forest, the most considerable re[illegible] are in the districts of Marr and Glentan[illegible] Rannoch, in Glenmore, and Strathspey[illegible] n Alfary, in Ross-shire. The fir is the [illegible] common wood; but the oak and elm

duous trees are not wanting. These forests, some of which extend no less than 30 or 40 miles in length, would doubtless be a source of great riches to the proprietors, and to the country at large, did not the want of roads, and the distance from the sea, preclude the possibility of land carriage; and the plan of floating down the rivers is not so practicable, owing to the risk of being shivered by the frequent and high falls. Notwithstanding these obstacles, however, several companies have succeeded in floating down the Spey and Dee, by cutting canals where the falls are so high as to injure the wood."

The climate, soil, water, and vegetable productions, are described under separate heads; and we are pleased to find, that the Scotch nobility and gentry have emulated their English neighbours, in establishing "the Highland Society," for the promotion and encouragement of agriculture.

Premiums are given for the cultivation of waste lands, for advancing the breed of black cattle and sheep, and for promoting other important objects appertaining to agriculture. The nobility and yeomanry of the country, not only set laudable examples of improvement, but encourage it in others. "Still," says the editor, "from the well known principle of human nature, the reluctance to change old customs, and to relinquish habits sanctioned and established by time, an almost insuperable obstacle is presented to *general* improvement. This aversion to new plans, or, as they are termed, 'innovation of established customs,' is *now* wearing off; and it is hoped, from the improvements already introduced, and the exertions of the board of agriculture lately established, that a spirit of improvement will be diffused, which will surmount any obstinacy that remains, and make the practical farmers open their eyes to their true interests. Let them be taught, that the number of true citizens, and not the extent of territory, is the true criterion of national wealth; and that the increase of population can be supported only by resources drawn from their own territory, raised and augmented by the improvement of agriculture." In speaking of this subject, we could almost adopt the words of the late author, in a survey of a county given in to the board of agriculture:—"Had I," says this almost enthusiastic writer, "the powers of persuasion equal to the conviction I have of the importance of the maxim, I would proclaim it to my country, from the Point of Shetland to the Land's-end of England, until it were heard and understood, and felt by every man that eateth bread, that he who makes two ears of corn grow where only one grew before, does more good to mankind than the whole race of politicians together*." The soil of Scotland produces wheat, rye, barley, oats, peas and beans, flax, hemp, hay, potatoes, turnips, carrots; and, in general, all the sorts of crops which are raised in the southern part of the island. Of late, many extensive tracts of waste land have been planted. In every district, the candid observer will find proofs of the illiberality of Dr. Johnson's account of Scottish trees, which has certainly been founded in ignorance, dictated by prejudice, and written without consideration.

The mineralogy of Scotland is concisely described, and the principal mines and minerals are mentioned. Though there are not many precious metals obtained from this part of the kingdom, yet, when "James V. married the French king's daughter, a number of covered dishes, containing coins of *Scottish gold*, were presented to the guests by way of desert; and it appears by the public records, that in one year there was coined in the mint of Scotland 48,000l. sterling, of Scottish gold." There are no silver mines at present, but much of this metal is obtained from the lead mines. "Of late, a very rich mine of antimony has been opened in Westerkirk, in Dumfriesshire, supposed to be richer than any at present known in the world. The other metallic substances hitherto discovered are cobalt, bismuth, manganese, wolfram, plumbago, and mercury; the latter in very small quantities. Limestone, freestone or sandstone, and slate, are found in *every* district in the greatest abundance. Of late too, some attention has been paid to the marbles, which prove *no way inferior* in colour or polish to those of Italy." These latter assertions savour too much of national partiality, which also depreciates many other parts of the book. A political or a geographical historian, should have a mind free from local and general prejudice; for wherever either appear, it excites suspicion and mistrust. Dr. Johnson, as already observed, and some other writers, have

* Dr. Robertson's Survey of Perthshire.

Digitized by Google

caricatured Scotland and the Scots; and the latter endeavouring to vindicate themselves, have been rather free in egotism and praise. Either extreme is equally disgusting.

Under the heads of education and literature, we find some particulars, which account for the prevalence of school learning among the Caledonians. "The attention of the Scottish legislature was, at a very early period of history, called to the means of extending the views, and increasing the knowledge of the inhabitants; but the intentions of the government were greatly retarded by the influence of Romish clergy. When the reformation emancipated them from papal subjection, the inhabitants were soon distinguished by their enlightened sentiments and growing knowledge. The civil revolution, which took place shortly after, contributed to the same happy end. By these events, the means of instruction were laid open; many institutions were established for the improvement of the poor; and many benefactions were bestowed to reward the teachers, and to support the scholar." In the second session of William and Mary, an act of parliament was passed, "that there be a school and schoolmaster in every parish; his fee not under an hundred marks, nor above two hundred." These plans produced very beneficial consequences, and civilization and knowledge spread their benign influence through the country; schools became numerous, and the salaries tempted many to become masters. "The parochial schools, academies, and universities of Scotland, are comparitively cheaper than those of England," and learning and literature are more generally cultivated. This is a pleasing theme to the editor, who boastingly records a long list of eminent writers, all of Scottish origin. "Previous to 1763, literary property, or authors acquiring money by their writings, was hardly known in Scotland; but of late, the value of literary property has been carried higher by the Scots, than was ever known among any other people. David Hume received 5000l. for the six last volumes of his History of Britain; and Dr. Robertson received 4500l. for his Charles V. Dr. Blair received the highest price for his sermons, ever known to be paid for that kind of writing, the merit of which produced him a pension from his majesty of 200l. per annum. Even among the lower ranks, literature is not a stranger; the cheapness of the fees in the parochial schools, and the facility with which education can be had in Scotland, give the peasantry a manifest advantage over the peasantry of England."

In describing the *commerce, fisheries, and manufactures* of Scotland, the author says "they have for many years been in a improving state." To elucidate this, gives a concise history of the Scottish commerce, from the union to the present time. The *constitution* and civil government are more fully detailed, and the "introduction" is terminated with notices some of the most considerable military and religious antiquities in that country. Among them Antoninus's wall, and numerous Roman camps are specified. The latter, says this writer, are "generally distinguished from those of the Danes and Saxons, by being rectangular." This opinion, we believe, to one of the common errors of antiquaries. It appears to us very improbable, that the Romans would occupy their time, in the midst of war, to form a *square* encampment, if a circular or oval one was already prepared to their hands. But some antient writers have said, it was the *usual* practice of these warriors to throw up their earthworks in a *certain form*; and later authors made that a uniform system which must evidently be governed by circumstances. The concluding sentence of the introduction has our warmest wishes, for a speedy accomplishment. "The intercourse between England and Scotland, is every day growing more frequent, to the mutual advantage of both. This has the effect of rendering the manners, dress, language, and, indeed, every particular alike; and of course we may anticipate, at no very distant period, the time when national distinctions and prejudices shall be known no more, and BRITAIN will form, as it ought to be,—only ONE NATION."

Having, in the preceding passages, given an abstract of the historical introduction to this volume, it will be sufficient to observe, that under the respective alphabetical heads, will be found a pretty circumstantial account of all the subjects enumerated in the title. Some of the articles indeed, we think are rather too minute for a work of this nature; and in describing objects of British, Roman, and architectural antiquity, we remark a want of discrimination and precision. At the end of the volume, is an

Digitized by Google

account of the population of each county and each district in Scotland; from which we are informed, that the whole amounted, in 1755, to 1,265,380; in 1790-8, it increased to 1,527,892; and in 1801, to 1,604,826; making an increase, in 46 years, of 339,446 persons. To this are added, a chronological table of kings, the peerage, the districts of royal boroughs which send members to parliament, the real and valued rent of Scotland by counties, the principal roads and fairs arranged under each month.—"The elegant map," announced in the title-page, is very badly drawn and badly engraved. We often sought in vain for places mentioned in the description, and found that the spelling of places in the map and in the gazetteer, was often at variance; a circumstance which should be more strictly attended to by editors.

ART. VI. *The History, antient and modern, of the Sheriffdoms of Fife and Kinross; with a Description of both, and of the Firths of Forth and Tay, and the Islands in them; in which there is an Account of the Royal Seats and Castles, and of the Royal Burghs and Ports, and of the religious Houses and Schools, and of the most remarkable Houses of the Nobility and Gentry. With an Account of the natural Products of the Land and Waters. By Sir* ROBERT SIBBALD, *M. D.* A new Edition, with Notes and Illustrations. 8vo. pp. 468.

SIR Robert Sibbald has had the honour of leading the way in the arduous undertaking of elucidating the history of his native country. That he has produced a work worthy of its patronage is implied by the republication of the volume at the present more enlightened period; he introduces the following words in his epistle to the reader.

"This history and description of Fife and Kinross, courteous reader, is a specimen I have desired to give of what I had done by command of King Charles II. in the description of North Britain, ancient and modern: it was not my blame that it is not accompanied with maps of them, but theirs who ought to have seen that done. I have supplied that want as well as I could, by a particular description of the most remarkable places, and by lists of the heritors ancient and modern."

The work contains four parts, and an appendix. The first describes the antient extent of the shire; its antient name; description of the country in the time of the Romans; a character of the Caledonians termed Dicaledones and Vecturiones, and whence they emigrated; the language of the Picts; their manners, policy, and religious rites. The "actions and exploits" of the Romans in Scotland, and the wars of the Danes in the shire.

The second part treats of the firths of Forth and Tay, the islands of the firths, the animals, the sanguineous and exsanguious animals, and the minerals of both the firths, and the plants found in the firth of Forth, and some within the high-mark; the natural history of the shire, the state of the christian religion, and an account of the Culdees who first introduced it, "shewing how the Culdees were deprived of their rights," and of the religious houses and hospitals in these shires.

The third division concerns the shire of Fife; the jurisdiction; the earls; and officers: Macduff the first earl, and the privileges he obtained of king Malcolm Kanmor; a list of the earls; the civil jurisdiction; list of bishops and priors of St. Andrews; of the clergy, nobility and gentry; officers of state of Fife; and an account of the university of St. Andrews. Next follows a history of Kinross-shire.

Part fourth. The coast from the western boundary to the river Leven, thence to Fifeness, thence to the river Eden; a description of the inland country east from the Lomonds, of the Strath of Leven, of Lochorshire, of the western parts inland of the plains of Eden, and of the northern parts inland.

The appendix contains the natural history of Fife; particulars concerning some natives of this shire eminent for learning and arts; antient heritors of the shire; new list of the principal heritors, and of those of Kinross; Gordon's list of those of the former shire; houses of the nobility and gentry; the valuation of Fifeshire, 1695; list of the parishes, as divided into presbyteries, with the names of patrons and incumbents; list of the British kings; and, lastly, an account of the arrival and treatment of some ship-wrecked mariners and soldiers of the Spanish armada, at Anstruther.

The editor of this edition has collected a vast number of notes, which are in-

serted at the bottom of almost every page, from the most valuable authors who have written on Scottish history or antiquities, some emendatory, others illustrative and explanatory.

The reader who can understand the obsolete Scots idiom of the reign of Charles II. will meet with many curious and interesting particulars from the labours of the industrious Sibbald, who wrote many other works of value besides this history.

Of the author and this work, the editor gives the following account.

"The style of Sibbald is inferior to his matter. Both in his Latin and English works, it is very often embarrassed and slovenly, to a degree that surprizes in a literary character of such eminence. He evidently wrote in haste, and was attentive in general rather to ascertain and state facts, than studious about the language employed in communicating them. Of his works, the History of Fife is one of the most esteemed. To the subject he was naturally partial, and on the illustration of it he bestowed more than common labour. He seems to have examined every authority, printed and manuscript, within his reach, which was likely to throw light on any branch of his work. And there is a profusion of extracts in Latin, copied at length into the text, which, though it gives his pages a deformed and motley appearance, manifests his fidelity. In the modern part of the history, his own personal knowledge of the county, and his opportunities of obtaining information from his numerous friends and relations, who lived in it, and the exactness with which he has described such objects as are permanent, or that have happened to remain, give us perfect confidence of his general accuracy. Two editions of this work were printed at Edinburgh, in the author's life-time; and from the most correct of these, in 1710, the present one is carefully taken. It was thought proper (except where there is obviously an error of the press) to preserve the original spelling, which is by no means correct or uniform, as a mark of the unfixed state of this branch of literature in Edinburgh in the beginning of the 18th century."

The volume is embellished with four neatly engraved plates by R. Scott.

ART. VII. *Memorabilia Cantabrigiæ: or, an Account of the different Colleges in Cambridge; biographical Sketches of the Founders and eminent Men; with many original Anecdotes; Views of the Colleges, and Portraits of the Founders. By* JOSEPH WILSON *Esq.* 8vo. pp. 358.

THERE has ever existed some degree of rivalship and jealousy between our two national universities. This has been strongly displayed in the contention about their respective claims to antiquity. Yet the unsophisticated page of history is sufficiently decisive to impartiality. Those who have written expressly about Cambridge university, (though very few) have thought they gave consequence to their subject, by referring its origin to a very early period. That it occupies the site of a Roman station, or *castrum estivum*, of that people, is more than probable, but that its first college was erected and endowed previous to any at Oxford is a subject we submit to the investigation of those who have particularly studied the subject. Oxford has certainly many advantages over her sister university; and her history and antiquities have been more copiously and satisfactorily developed. Among the writings connected with that university is, Wood's Athenæ Oxonienses, which contains anecdotes and memoirs of all the learned and celebrated men, born or educated there. To imitate that work in a humble degree is the object of Mr. Wilson, in this *hasty* little volume.

The author very humbly appeals to his readers, by stating,

"It is not without the greatest diffidence that I submit this work to the public eye. I am fully aware that an Athenæ Cantabrigienses would have been too arduous a task for me to have attempted, notwithstanding the abundance of materials which may be found for such a work, in the volumes of collections of Mr. Baker, Mr. Cole, &c. and the MSS. of Mr. Drake Morris, in the Harleian library, which seem tolerably complete, so far as relates to the archbishops and bishops who have finished their education at this university. That such a work, considering the copious fund of amusement and instruction it would afford, if properly executed, has never appeared, may indeed excite much surprize and regret; as no university has possessed a greater number of men more fully adequate to such an undertaking than Cambridge. That Dr. Richardson, Mr. Baker, and Mr. Cole had the will is evident from their collections, and it is to ever be lamented that men so eminently qualified did not live to complete it."

Knowing the vast mass of biographical materials collected, and left

Digitized by Google

these gentlemen, we are much surprized and dissatisfied with the meagreness of the volume before us. Mr. Wilson has no justifiable apology for rejecting the stores that are laid open to him. The great collections in print and MS, by Mr. Baker, are readily accessible at the British Museum; where are also those amassed by Mr. Cole. The latter were bequeathed upon the condition of their not being made public till twenty years after the donor's decease. That singular injunction being fulfilled, the whole, consisting of sixty volumes, were lately opened for the inspection and advantage* of those persons who wished to benefit by them. We fear Mr. Wilson is not one of them, or his memorabilia would have been more copious, more satisfactory, and more interesting. "All that I can hope on the present occasion," he observes, "is, that I have executed at least a more complete and entertaining guide to the members and visitants of the university, than any which has yet appeared." That this work may be a *little* superior to the common "*Cambridge Guide*" we readily grant.

The contents of this volume may be divided into the four subjects of history, topography, description, and biography. In the three first it is unsatisfactorily concise, and often erroneous in dates and spelling. Its only claim to novelty or utility lies in the biographical sketches, wherein we occasionally distinguish a few touches of the improving pencil. Petit views of all the colleges, with slight portraits of the founders, are given in the volume; but the *whole of them* bear such striking marks of forgery, that they must not pass current through our hands. They are mere "*shadows of shades*," or, to express it more technically, they are slovenly *copies of copies*.

ART. VIII. *The Swansea Guide; containing such Information as was deemed useful to the Traveller, through the Counties of Glamorgan and Monmouth: from the Exemplifications of antient and modern Authors.* 18mo. pp. 198.

THIS little Cambrian guide contains a concise account of all the principal towns, villages, castles, abbies, and seats, with the natural and artificial curiosities, included within the two counties mentioned in the title. Of the latter county, the public have already had ample information in the history of it, by Mr. Williams, in Coxe's Tour, and in several smaller books; but the history and antiquities of Glamorganshire are but little known. What is contained in this small volume appears to be the result of personal investigation; therefore, though short, it becomes very useful. The author has not avowed himself, but we are informed he is the Rev. Mr. Oldisworth, Master of the Free Grammar School of Swansea; whose name we announce with some degree of pleasure, from the modesty and unaffected simplicity which prevail through the book. We trust the sale of it will tempt its author to make considerable additions to his account of Swansea, and to the whole of the county, but for the reasons above stated we would recommend him to omit the notices relating to Monmouthshire. From this guide it appears that Swansea is a flourishing town, and has greatly augmented its commercial consequence, and its local trade within the last century. This has partly arisen from the various mines of coal and culm in the neighbourhood. The vast increase of its shipping will be seen in the following statement; —"Number of vessels in the year 1768 were 694, or 30,631 tons.—Ditto, in 1790, 1697 vessels, or 74,926 tons.—Ditto, from September 29, 1799, to September 29, 1800, 2590 vessels, or 154,264 tons."

Among other subjects of notice and celebrity, appertaining to Swansea, is Richard Nash, or Beau Nash, as he was commonly called. He was born here on the 13th of October 1673, and in a very early part of his life gave proofs of that volatility and gaiety, for which he afterwards became so distinguished. The writer of this Guide has related many anecdotes and particulars of this "king of fashion," exemplifying his polite urbanity of manners, which obtained him numerous friends, though his governing passion was gaiety and dissipation. At length settling in Bath, which even at the end of the sixteenth century was extremely poor and unfashionable, he accidentally obtained the

* See an account of them, with the character of the collector, in the Monthly Magazine, vol. xvi. p. 23.

Digitized by Google

patronage and friendship of some of the *beau-monde*, who, in 1710, elected him master of the ceremonies at a small ball, then established in that city. It is curious to trace the history and connection of places with that of individuals. Bath is a remarkable instance of a city's attaining extraordinary fashionable celebrity, thro' the character and conduct of a single person. From the time of Nash's settlement there till his death in 1761, that city annually increased in buildings, visitors, conveniences, and luxuries, and his memory is perpetuated by a statue, inscription, portraits, &c. Swansea is also ranked among the list of summer bathing places; and, according to the number of lodging-houses, &c. we may conclude it is much frequented. "The bay," observes our author, "is universally allowed to be singularly beautiful, and the shore very commodious for bathing, as the great influx of company for many years for that purpose sufficiently evince. The town, in consequence, has undergone many capital improvements; and the new pier, as it is of admirable advantage to the harbour of Swansea, so it is with the adjoining barrows, a most pleasant promenade, comprehending much beautiful scenery."

Among other subjects particularised in this town is, "the Cambrian pottery" established here, on Mr. Wedgewood's plan. Its mode of manufacture is described in the following terms. "The clay made use of is brought from various parts of England, which is afterwards mixed with flint very finely ground; and after it is well blended in water it is passed through sieves till all the coarser particles are lost, then exposed to heat, which evaporates the water and leaves the clay (after it has been well beaten for the purpose of pressing out the air) of a consistency for working. A piece of clay is stuck upon a circular board, which has an horizontal rotation, and a vessel is almost instantaneously formed by the artist; then follows the more perfect operation of the work, the processes of colouring, glazing, painting and stamping; the drying or baking kilns complete the work."—This little Guide may be consulted with advantage by those who wish for information relating to Swansea; and points out candidly and honestly all those objects in the county of Glamorgan, which an antiquary or tourist would most probably enquire for.

ART. IX. *The Gloucester New Guide; containing an Account of every Thing worthy of Observation, respecting the City, its History, antient and modern Trade, Buildings, and particularly the Cathedral; together with a Directory of the principal Gentlemen and Tradesmen in the City and its Environs; also the different Routes and Roads through the County, with Observations intended to amuse and inform the Traveller.* 12mo. pp. 138.

LOCAL guides of this description, when written by well-informed liberal minded residents, are not only pleasant and engaging to the curious traveller, but prove very useful auxiliaries to general topography. These little *vade mecums* have usually been made up by some illiterate printer, and consequently have been unworthy the perusal, or criticism of the veteran antiquary. Many of the English cities and towns have "guides" of this description; but scarcely any have been honoured with a learned, local historian. Dydes's liberal and ingenious History of Tewkesbury, Warner's History of Bath, Coates's circumstantial History of Reading, and the present little manual, are interesting exceptions. The latter, though printed anonymously, is, we are assured, the production of the Rev. Mr. Rudge, a respectable clergyman of the city, who has announced for publication a History of Gloucestershire.

In an advertisement to this Guide, the author gives the following very modest account of his book. "The following pages being designed principally to point out to the hasty traveller such things and places in Gloucester and its neighbourhood, as are most deserving notice; the reader will not expect to find all that an antiquary would enquire after, or a minute investigation of events which occurred in periods far remote from present times. The editor only means to bring forward to immediate view the most prominent features, among which he ranks the cathedral." In the description of this noble and interesting structure he has borrowed liberally from the preceding histories by Bonner and Dallaway; and we are sorry to observe that he has not improved much on his precursors; yet he apologizes for his "prolix" account of the cathedral. This was totally unnecessary; for we are per-

suaded that a full and circumstantial description of this grand pile would be *highly interesting* to most readers in the closet, and to almost every visitor. This cathedral presents a singular and curious series of architectural examples, wherein are combined different styles that characterised different periods of the art. Hence a particular exemplification would be highly gratifying and interesting.

Our author, however, is not very assuming, for he acknowledges at the end of the advertisement, that he "puts in very little claim to originality; he has made free with whatever authors came in his way, and selected from them whatever suited his purpose. He flatters himself that he has added something to the original stock, but in doing it he has not sacrificed truth to an affectation of novelty. He has lopped off many redundancies without omitting any thing material. In short, he is not without the hope, that the Gloucester New Guide will supply, even to the native, some information he was not in possession of before, and relieve the traveller from a considerable portion of that tædium, which usually accompanies a temporary residence at the hotel."

The subjects of this Guide are:—*very concise* accounts of the situation and antient state of the city; its present and antient trade, wherein is a *short* account of the pin manufactory; the present state and government of the city; the appearance of its environs; a history and description of the cathedral and its appendages, with the other churches of Gloucester. An account of hospitals, schools, and meeting-houses succeeds, with a few particulars of the other public buildings and offices of the city. Next follow some memorandums of the gentlemen's seats in the vicinity, and an interesting description of the river Severn, its navigation and fishery.

ART. X. *The History and Antiquities of the County of Dorset: compiled from the best and most antient Historians, Inquisitiones post mortum, and other valuable Records and MSS. in the public Offices, and Libraries, and in private Hands. With a Copy of Domesday Book, and the Inquisitio Gheldi for the County: interspersed with some remarkable Particulars of Natural History; and adorned with a correct Map of the County, and Views of the Antiquities and Seats of the Nobility, Gentry, &c. By* JOHN HUTCHINS, *M. A.* The second Edition, corrected, augmented, and improved. In 3 Vols. *folio.* Vol. II. pp. 620.

IN the year 1774 Mr. Hutchins, who was a native of Dorsetshire, and rector of a parish in Wareham, published a history of that County in two folio volumes. That "being out of print," and consequently rather scarce, Mr. Gough undertook to edit another edition, two volumes of which are now published; and as the editor informs us, are "corrected, augmented, and improved." The first volume was published in 1796, and the second in 1803. If another seven years elapse before the concluding volume is made public, we presume that many gentlemen of the county will rebate its tardy progress. In one of the volumes we expected to meet with an advertisement or preface, but this very necessary explanation is withheld till the conclusion of the work, when the editor promises to give "a map of the county, a preface, and the life of the author, with some additions to the letter-press, &c." About this preface we cannot easily enter into an investigation or history of the volumes, not knowing the respective portions of each editor. We must therefore content ourselves (for the present) with a concise analysis of the introduction, and a few remarks.

The first volume commences at p. xxi, with an essay called an "Introduction," which continues to page cxii. This contains some dissertations on the etymology and ancient history of the county, its boundary, first inhabitants, and antient monuments. Among the latter are enumerated the Roman camps, roads, and barrows; but in describing these relics of antiquity we find the same confusion of ideas, and of objects that characterise the writings of Doctor Stukeley, whose work on Stonehenge is frequently quoted and referred to. Many of the encampments called and described as Roman, may with equal propriety be ascribed to any other warlike tribe who possessed this part of the country. On this subject, with that of barrows, and what the author calls druidical remains, we find the descriptions and opinions very unsatisfactory and trite. With antient authors and their works the editors are much better acquainted, and we peruse

Digitized by Google

with satisfaction and pleasure their accounts of Richard of Cirencester, of Antoninus, of Ptolemy, and the anonymous Ravennas. The writings and literary characters of these authors are ably discriminated, and those parts of each that particularly relate to Dorsetshire are critically examined.

Under the head of "Ecclesiastical History," is given a concise and well-written account of the introduction and establishment of christianity in this country; and its influence in Dorsetshire is manifested by the foundation of churches, the erection of bishopricks, and by the effects produced on the inhabitants. The next division of the work refers to the civil history of the county, and includes a history and lists of sheriffs, from the beginning of Henry the second to the time of publishing the first volume. Tedious lists of all the civil officers of the county follow, and these are succeeded by "some observations on the maritime affairs, on beacons, the population, a list of market towns, seats, public and civil buildings, &c." The natural History of Dorsetshire is but slightly touched on. This very interesting branch of topography was scarcely noticed by many of our former county historians; and some of the present day either totally neglect it, or treat it so very superficially, that their dissertations prove more detrimental than beneficial to the subject. A long account of the agriculture, &c. of the county is extracted from Claridge's report, and the introduction closes with an essay on coins, or provincial tokens, which we think almost unworthy of notice in the history of a county. In describing Dorsetshire the author has divided it into districts and hundreds, and subdivided these again into parishes, manors, hamlets, tithings, &c. Each of these furnishes matter for a separate history, and, as is commonly the case in similar works, the reader is obliged to labour through a vast mass of uninteresting, dull narrative, for the purpose of catching a few glances of curious or engaging information. It has not been the fortunate lot of many county historians to excite much interest in their works, or render them amusing and attractive to the general reader, to foreigners, and such persons as wish to be acquainted with the local history and topography of our island. To effect this we know is no easy task, but we believe it to be attainable, and hope that some men of genius, talent, and science, will exert their powers to rescue this branch of literature from the opprobrium of soporific dulness and insipidity, which it has long laboured under. As the work is very incomplete we suspend our final opinion on its general character and execution, and delay any further account of its contents, till the third volume is published. It may however be proper to observe, that the volumes are printed on three or four different sorts of paper, which gives them a disreputable appearance; and the plates are more diversified than the paper. Some of the are tolerably executed in their drawing and engraving, but the greater part are insignificant and bad.

ART. XI. *The History of Cornwall, civil, religious, architectural, agricultural, commercial, biographical, and miscellaneous. By the Rev.* R. POLWHELE. Vols. I. II. 4to. pp. 436, in both volumes.

WE presume that the writings and literary character of Mr. Polwhele are well known to most of our readers. He has long laboured in the literary vineyard, and though we cannot compliment him on the success, or felicity of his topographical publications, yet his industry and general talents will ever demand our respect. Some of his poetical writings are highly honourable to his feelings and fancy; and in the poem of the "Old English Gentleman," we are delighted with the judicious discrimination of character, and with the nice delineation of manners and customs which were formerly the pride and boast of Englishmen: but if we critically examine his *fragments* towards a history of Devonshire, and these first volumes of a history of Cornwall, we discover too much of the poet in the historian, and too much of the theorist in the antiquary. Having said thus much of Mr. Polwhele's literary character, we proceed to lay before our readers the leading features of these two volumes of the history of Cornwall, reserving our decisive opinions on the work till the next time we meet him in our annual journey.

The first volume commences with a dedication to the prince of Wales, which

Digitized by Google

in the author acknowledges, that in the execution of his extensive plan, he is "conscious there *are great defects*. But as this plan is chronological, it may be justly deemed an outline to be improved hereafter, as opportunity may offer, and to be continued through future times."

This chronological plan of Mr. Polwhele's is certainly very different from that of any other county historian, but we fear this difference will not obtain it much *pre-eminence*: for though we approve of some parts, yet we must decidedly reprove others, and particularly its execution. The labour of searching after the various memoranda relating to one place is endless, and the *long* quotations, and frequency of repetition, become extremely tiresome. Thus, in narrating the history and description of certain ancient town, castle, &c. we find some particulars, or rather dissertations, on it, under the British period; again, in a subsequent part of the volume, under the head of civil and military transactions of the Romans; some of this is again repeated with unconnected scraps, under the respective dynasties of the Saxons, Danes, Normans, &c. And if the author completes a parochial history of the county, most of them must be *again* related, or his readers will have the painful task of referring to *several* distant parts of the book to obtain the particular history of a single place. The plan thus marked out by our ingenious author is subject to many objections; and for a county history of local information and reference, cannot obtain the suffrage of topographers and antiquaries. But these are not our only objections to Mr. Polwhele's history: his manner of surcharging it with long, inapposite extracts from other printed books; his predilection for theory and dissertation; his ready acquiescence in and vindication of the fables of Borlase; his *very* bad prints, are all defects in his work, and such as become doubly reprehensible in a man of genius and talent.

The first book of his work is occupied with dissertations on the civil and military transactions which relate to Cornwall from the time of Julius Cæsar to Athelstan. Of this period we have scarcely any records, and therefore Mr. Polwhele acknowledges he must be content to connect "a few scattered facts by the links of probability." This is unavoidable occasionally, but it should be adopted with great caution. In a subsequent part of the work, the author observes, that "*tradition* will often throw great light on the obscurity of history. Tradition, with no presumptive proofs from history to precede it, is little to be regarded. If we allow it to lead the way, it is ever a fallacious guide: but when we can introduce it as an auxiliary, its claims are certainly to be heard." An instance of Mr. Polwhele's ready admission of tradition occurs in the following narrative: "There is a strong tradition in the parish of Bishop's Lydiard, that lies under the Quantock-hills, relating to a *Roman* battle. On a farm in this parish (say the country people) was fought the last battle between the Western Britons and their enemies of Rome. The former were totally defeated, and the farm has ever since been called *Conquest Farm*. The tenant is ready to point out to enquirers the *very situation of the armies*: and near the fatal spot is a circular camp, of about twenty acres. This surely is remarkable; and *here* I can readily *see* the spot where Vespasian routed the Britons before he proceeded on his march towards Exeter."

The second chapter applies to the geography of Danmonium, and the original government of its inhabitants, with some account of their civil and military constitution.

"With respect to the geography of Danmonium," observes Mr. Polwhele, "I shall quote the descriptions of Ptolomy and Richard, as far as they relate to the western part of the island. Ptolemy of Alexandria, who flourished under the emperors Trajan, Hadrian, and Antoninus Pius, is one of the most ancient geographers, whose works are extant. It may be proper to premise, that there are two general errors in Ptolemy, which affect the whole geography of Britain: this writer has made all England decline from the true position as to the length of it, and entirely changed the position of Scotland, representing its length from east to west, instead of from south to north; and he has placed the whole of South Britain too far north by two or three degrees."

The inaccuracy of all ancient maps of Britain is not at all surprising, when we recollect the relative state of society and science; but we are surprised that modern writers place so much dependence on their authority, and the position

of places, &c. marked on them. The above errors of Ptolemy are not his only geographical defects: Baron Clark considered him among the most incorrect of all ancient authors; and Mr. Horsley has demonstrated his inaccuracy by giving another more rectified map of Britain, from a comparison with which the futility of the former becomes more apparent. Knowing this, and similar instances in later accounts and more recent maps, we cannot too strongly recommend to topographers and antiquaries, the necessity of visiting and examining places and things. Had Mr. Polwhele been more attentive to this part of a topographer's duty, we should have felt more satisfied with his descriptions and inferences; but observing his ready acquiesence in other's opinions, and his copious quotations from Borlase, Hals, Tonkin, and other speculatists, we follow him with great caution, and suspect many of his deductions. In the following quotation, this will be clearly exemplified:—"Pryce," Mr. Polwhele observes, "states, that '*Redruth--Dreduith*--signifies the *Druid's town.*' And of this he is assured, 'from its vicinity to *Karnbre*, that celebrated station of druidical superstition, where are to be seen a *multifarious collection of monumental druidism.*" Before we proceed with this extract, it may be necessary to inform the reader, that Mr. Pryce was an apothecary of *Redruth*, and having, like his countryman Borlase, amused himself with reveries on druidism, at last fancied every heap of stones a druidical monument, and Karnbre, which is a large granite hill covered with detached masses of rock, he hyperbolically pronounces, "a multifarious collection of monumental *druidism.*" Mr. Polwhele, imbibing a little of his predecessor's spirit, remarks on this passage.

"At all events, there is *no doubt* but Redruth, in the vicinity of Karnbre, was one of the chief towns of the druids of Danmonium; and at Plas-an-guere, in Redruth, there were very lately the remains of an amphitheatre. This is evident from the very name. But the amphitheatres of St. Just and St. Piran, bear evident marks of the judicial court in this canton of the Carnabii. The amphitheatre of *St. Just*, in the hundred of Penwith, situated near the church, is somewhat disfigured by the injudicious *repairs* of late years; but by the remains it seems to have been a work of *more than usual labour and correctness.* It was an exact circle of 126 feet diameter. The perpendicular height of the bank, from the area within, is now seven feet; but the height from the bottom of the ditch without, at present ten feet, was formerly more. The seats *consist* of *six steps, fourteen inches wide, and one foot high*, with one on the top of all, where the rampart is about seven feet wide. That plays were acted here, I have not a doubt: but I concur with Mr. Whitaker in thinking that these circles were designed for British courts of judicature."

From the tenor of this extract, a reader would conclude it was dictated from personal inspection, and that "the amphitheatre" is now in the state described by the author: but upon referring to Borlase's account of it, we find *the same words* adopted. Had Mr. Polwhele acknowledged his authority we should have been satisfied with him, though perhaps not equally so with the original author. From the description of a correspondent in Cornwall, we learn that the monument above described is merely "a simple raised bank, or vallum, running round a flat area. The bank has *no indication of seats or steps*, nor is there the least appearance of regularity. In describing many encampments, cromlechs, circles, &c. we observe a similar practice in our author; and as the practice conduces to perpetuate and propagate falshood, and tends to depreciate liberal antiquarianism, we must discountenance and reprove such conduct.

In the third chapter Mr. Polwhele takes a review of the religion of the Danmonians, as influenced by druidism, by Roman paganism, and by christianity. Among the objects of religious veneration of the pagan Cornish, the serpent was, according to our author, the most pre-eminent. "To the famous anguinum they attributed many virtues. The anguinum, or serpent's egg, was a congeries of small snakes rolled together, and incrusted with a shell, formed by the saliva, or viscous gum, or froth of the mother serpent. This egg, it seems, was tossed into the air by the hissings of its dam; and before it fell again to the earth (which would be defiled) it was to be received in the sagus, a sacred vestment. The person who caught the egg was to secure his escape on horseback; since the serpent pursued the ravisher of its young even to the brink of the next stream. Pliny, from whom this account is taken, proceeds with an enumeration of other absurdities relating to the anguinum. What will naturalists say to this

Digitized by Google

lous story, but that the inventor and lator of it ought to be classed with e species of animals denominated—*sturak.*

The fourth chapter embraces what r author calls a review of "the civil, litary, and religious architecture of rnonium;" in which he has inded some long digressions on the Roa roads, stations, and camps in Deshire and Cornwall. This volume, ugh entitled a history of the latter nty, may be considered almost equal- history of the former; as its princi- historical dissertations apply equally oth. It is certainly no easy task to rate the two in their early historical tions; but as Mr. Polwhele has alady written largely on "the historical rs of Devonshire," he should rather e taxed his own exertion and patience in that of his readers, in separating wo.

he remainder of the first volume is propriated to the subjects of "woodd, pasturage, agriculture, and gar- s to mining, manufactures, and merce: to language, literature, and ed men: to population, manners, sages." These latter subjects are ed in a very concise manner; and volume is terminated with twenty- e prints of monuments, antiquities, rs, &c. Some of them are copied m Borlase's very inaccurate prints, the others are so very indifferent, they rather disfigure than ornament book they accompany.

he first volume professes to embrace historical subjects included in the od from Julius Cæsar to Vortigern; in the second part the same subjects reviewed in their progress and imrement, from Vortigern to Edward First. This portion of the work omes more interesting than the for, as it is founded more on the evie of fact and record; yet the first of it is much depreciated with the s of the renowned Arthur, and some r British champions. The ravages piracies of the Danes are particuy detailed. Long genealogies of e Cornish families, with accounts of princes and dukes of Cornwall, py many pages. The notes, which numerous, and very copious, are printed in small letter, and in many instances fill whole quarto pages: but as they are generally extracts from other publications, they do not occupy much of the author's thinking time.

With the following extracts, descriptive and historical, of St. Michael's mount, we take leave of these volumes and our author for the present.

"St. Michael's mount is one of those rare and commanding objects which arrest and fix the attention the moment they are seen. Its peculiar situation, and the sublime character it assumes, from appearing to rise immediately from the waves, singularly interest the imagination of the observer; though when viewed from the land, its real magnitude is apparently diminished, from the vast extent of the horizon and the expanded tract of water which surrounds its base. 'It is a scene (says Mr. Britton*) singularly calculated to inflame the enthusiasm of the poet; and a mind of no common mould has thus poured the note of sublimity from the vocal shell, on contemplating the beauty of the prospect, and revolving the events which the traditionary lore of past ages represents to have occurred on this spot.'

"Majestic Michael rises: he whose brow
Is crowned with castles, and whose rocky sides
Are clad with dusky ivy; he whose base,
Beat by the storms of ages, stands unmoved
Amidst the wreck of things;—the change of time.
That base, encircled by the azure waves,
Was once with verdure clad: the towering oaks
Here wav'd their branches green; the sacred oaks
Whose awful shades among, the Druids stray'd,
To cut the hallowed misletoe, and hold
High converse with their gods."
H. Davy's MOUNTS BAY."

Another poet of genius has also characterized the mount in the following terms.

"Mountain, the curious muse might love to gaze
On the dim record of thy early days;
Oft fancying that she heard, like the low blast,
The sounds of mighty generations past.
Here the Phænician, as remote he sail'd,
Along the unknown coast, exulting hail'd;
And when he saw thy rocky point aspire,
Thought on his native shores of Aradus and Tyre.—

* By a subsequent part of this extract, it appears to be taken from 'The Beauties England and Wales,' a work which bears the joint names of Messrs. Britton and Brayley and therefore Mr. Polwhele should have mentioned *both* names, or *neither*.

Digitized by Google

Thou only, aged mountain, dost remain,
Stern monument amidst the delug'd plain:
And fruitless the big waves thy bulwarks beat;
The big waves slow retire, and murmur at thy feet.'

Rev. W. H. Bowles.

"The first of these extracts has reference to the popular belief of St. Michael's mount having, in the remote ages of antiquity, been situated in a wood; a circumstance to which its name in the Cornish language gives a considerable degree of plausibility. This tradition is partly confirmed by the testimony of Leland, who remarks that 'In the baye betwixt the mont and Pensants, be found neere the lowe water marke, rootes of trees yn dyvers places.' And Borlase, in a paper published in the fiftieth volume of the Philosophical Transactions, strengthens the evidence, by relating the discovery of the roots and trunks of trees; some of them embeded in the natural soil, but covered with sand, and submerged by twelve feet of water every flowing tide. Ptolomy calls the mount *Ocrinum*; but soon after the sixth century, it seems to have received its present name, from the apparition of St. Michael, whose appearance, according to the monkish legends, to some hermits on this mount, occasioned the foundation of the monastery. The place where the vision sat was a craggy spot, in a dangerous situation, near the upper part of the rock, which in the time of Carew, bore the name of *St. Michael's chair*; but that appellation has since been transferred to a more accessible, but equally dangerous, spot, on the summit of one of the angles of the chapel tower. Though little credit can be attached to this wild tale, yet it is certain that the mount became hallowed at a very early period; that it was renowned for its sanctity, and was for a time an object of frequent pilgrimage. The superstition paid to it by the mistaken devout, is alluded to by Spenser in his Shepherd's Calendar, and in terms sufficiently explicit to mark its fame.

'In evil hour thou lenst an hond
Those holy hills to blame,
For sacred unto saints they stond
And of them have their name:
St. Michael's mount who does not know,
That wardes the western coast?"

ART. XII. *A Companion and useful Guide to the Beauties in the Western Highlands of Scotland, and in the Hebrides: To which is added, a Description of Part of the Land of Scotland, and of the Isles of Mull, Ulva, Staffa, I-Columbkill, Tirii, Coll, Egg, Skye, Raza, and Scalpa. By the Honourable Mrs.* MURRAY, *of Kensington.* Vol. II. 8vo. pp. 436.

In the year 1799, Mrs. Murray published an octavo volume, as a "Guide to the Scottish Scenery," &c. That having met with some success, and been spoken highly of by two or three reviewers, she has extended the work by publishing the present volume, which refers principally to the scenery and character of the western islands of Scotland. These wild and interesting regions had previously attracted the curiosity of Dr. Johnson, Dr. Garnett, Faujas St. Fond, &c. each of whom has communicated his observations to the public. The opinions of the first tourist are replete with prejudice, whilst those of the two latter gentlemen, though not so generally known, are much more scientific and important.

The work is humbly entitled, "a Companion and useful Guide," &c. and the first part is simply occupied with directions about inns, roads, travelling and accommodations; all these are required to be known by persons making the tour, and a knowledge of them must facilitate their progress, and add to their comfort. "This Guide," observes Mrs. Murray, "points out to the traveller what is worth noticing in his tour, with the distances from place to place; mentions the inns on the road, whether good or bad; also, what state the roads are in; and informs him of those fit for a carriage, and those where it cannot go with safety. In these respects, the present work differs from any other publication of the kind; for no writer of tours has hitherto taken the trouble of ascertaining what may be seen worthy of notice in the course of a travelling journey, and it very often happens, that he passes within a mile or less of very great natural beauties, without either knowing or having heard of them; and the country people seldom or ever name to strangers what they think nothing of, because seeing them every day they regard them not as objects of curiosity."

These are facts well known, and often lamented by the curious traveller who loses the sight of many singular and interesting objects, for want of knowing their true situation and real character. A faithful guide is therefore a valuable travelling companion, and such we believe is this before us.

The first part of the volume contains

Digitized by Google

a simple guide or directory to Edinburgh, to the beauties in the western highlands, to the isles of Staffa, I. Columbkill or I-Ona, Mull, Ulva, Tirii, Coll, Eigg, Rum, Canna, Skye, Raza, and Scalpa; and in the main land, through glen Elg to fort Augustus; also, to a part of the eastern coast of Scotland, Braemar and Rothiemurchus. In the second part these places are described, and various intermediate objects and circumstances descanted on. Some of the relations are extremely interesting, and our sympathy and curiosity are held in continued suspense. We feel for the situation of the tourist; and contemplate, in imagination, the various incidents of her journey, and also the wild scenery of the country she passed through. As many of the narratives are peculiarly interesting, we intend to make two or three long extracts, for the gratification of our readers.

The first we select will be an account of her excursion through the island of Mull. This will at once characterise the style of descriptive writing, and the order of mind displayed in our female tourist.

"On the 31st of July, 1800, I set off from Ach-nacraig, for a ride of forty miles, from one extremity of Mull to the other, through the heart of the island.

"The reverend minister's house, for which I was bound, is about thirty-four miles from Ach-nacraig, and six or seven miles short of the point of Ross, the land's-end of Mull.

"I was informed that there was a gentleman's house in the way, at about twenty-four miles from Ach-nacraig; so that, if I could not reach my friend's habitation, I flattered myself, from the well known hospitality of the country, that I should not be in any great distress. Fortunately for me, the day continued wonderfully fine to the end of it.

"The cavalcade set forward exactly in the same style it left Aros for Torloisk*, and I immediately began to mount a very steep hill, by a terrible rough track. Over the summit, and down its precipitous side, to one of the bays of Loch Spelibh (sounded Spelive,) there is no track at all, and I was continually saying I should be thrown over the head of my horse, down a rocky high bank, bounding a roaring stony bedded burn, close over which the guide was leading me. Before me were lofty mountains, and deep glens between them, which attracted my notice; and my fears were lessened by my admiration of the sublime scenery towards one of those mountains, the name of which Dugall, my leader, told me was Ben Buy; and he continued in his broken English to relate the legendary history of other days, concerning that and its neighbouring hills."

Some of these legends relate, that the mountains and glens of this district were inhabited by a race of giants, whose battles and wonderful exploits are the theme of "many a gossip's tale;" and Mrs. Murray's guide, Dugall, informs her of the extent and character of these traditions. With the relation of these superstitious stories, the time is beguiled till they arrive at Loch Spelibh, where the ground is boggy, dreary, and wild, though the sides of the lake are covered with woods.

"On leaving Loch Spelibh," continues Mrs. Murray, "I followed a river running to it out of Glenmore, and soon entered that glen, and a wilder and more Alpine region cannot be imagined. Some hills are rough and rocky, others green to the very summits of them; particularly one, a higher hill than any in Mull, except Benmore, which stands insulated by narrow glens, and from the bottom to the top of it I never saw finer sheep pasture.

"I journeyed on for many miles through this Alpine scenery, till I came to a diminutive plain, with three tracks from different glens leading to it. I was then riding on the brink of a river, and about two miles before us I observed a terrible steep zig zag track, up an almost perpendicular face of a mountain. That, said Dugall, is our road; and when we came within half a mile of it, we steered our course over a boggy piece of moor, the remembrance of which almost makes me tremble.

"When we arrived at the foot of the zig zag ascent, I got off the horse; had I not done so, I verily believe I and the horse should have fallen back down the precipice, dragging Dugall, the leader, after us. It was one of the hottest days I ever felt, and the labour of scrambling up the steep road amongst loose stones, for two miles, was dreadful. Dugall said it was only one Mull mile, which is fully two measured miles. The people in Mull jocosely say of their miles, that they make up in measure for what their roads want in quality.

* This she describes in the following terms: "Mrs. Murray appears dressed in a red [illegible] cap, trimmed with brown fur, and a habit of tartan, such as is worn by the 42d regiment of highlanders. She mounts a white horse, with a Fingallian stick in her hand, cut out of the woods in Morven: her horse led by an honest highlander. Then comes a shelty, with creels (panniers) on his back, containing the baggage, on which sat a highland lad. Thus moved Mrs. Murray's first cavalry expedition in the island of Mull, and laughable enough it was."

Digitized by Google

"When I reached the summit of the hill, I looked around me, and to my sorrow perceived before me Benmore, in its fair day's glory, with its lofty top piercing the clouds, and at its base Loch-na-keall. I exclaimed, Dugall, we are wrong: how shall we get back again down the dreadful zig zag? Dugall hung his head, and confessed he had never gone the horse tract through Glenmore, but he had often travelled (walked) over the hills to the west side of Mull.

"We kept along the ridge of the hill for another highland mile, and then descended to a glen, in which is a small lake, and a hut or two at the end of it.

"I was rejoiced at the sight of any human trace, and sent the boy to enquire, if the track we were in led to Penny Cross. It did, and we made what speed we could through the rugged glen. We were told by travellers (walkers) whom we soon after met, that if we did not travel very hard, we should not reach Penny Cross by sun-set. We had lost our way once, and were not very clear about that we were pursuing; therefore the intelligence received from the walkers was not very agreeable.

"After going through beds of rivers, and in every imaginable uncouth track, we came within sight of a hut, at which Dugall said, 'eatables might sometimes be procured; but he did not think what we should there find would be worth seeking, particularly as it would delay us, it being somewhat out of our road.'

"Other burns and rough passes were to be surmounted: at last we came to a spot, from which two tracks branched; one, I believe, leads to Moy, at the head of Loch Buy, the other to the head of Loch Scridain. The pass to Moy being in shade, appeared tremendous, amongst lofty black crags. Ours, although in sunshine, was terrific enough. It was along the side of a precipice, (which we had to climb and descend,) worse than the pass, already mentioned, on the bank of Loch-na-keall; and it had no trees or shrubs to cover its coarse terrific nakedness.

"I got off my horse for safety and rest, and sat down on a piece of rock projecting from a lofty range of broken cliffs above and below me, at the foot of which is a wild plain, with a river flowing towards Loch Scridain. I had but a short portion of provisions with me, not foreseeing that I should lose my way, nor knowing Glenmore to be a wilderness of considerable length, through which I was to wander.

"On the pommel of my saddle hung a bag, containing drawing implements, in which I had brought three or four biscuits from Aros. In a small mahogany case, containing hartshorn and lavender drops, and a cure for bruises, I had some wine, also a tumbler glass, spoon, knife and fork. I produced my slender repast, which required none of the latter articles, and shared it with my guides. The poor beasts were left to nibble what they could find; alas! they looked for grass, and found nothing but stones.

"I walked down the terrific precipice, and advanced, not without doubt whether we were in the right road or not. At length, we came to a few huts, where women came out to gaze at us. I beseeched Dugall to enquire of every human form he met, if we were in the road to Penny Cross. When I heard something like the sound of pshe, (it is,) in answer to Dugall's interrogatory, I was rejoiced, for I began to be very weary, and the sun was fast declining. Notwithstanding my fatigue, the scenery before me of Loch Scridain, and the bold mountains on the back ground of Kilfinachen, pleased me exceedingly. Loch Scridain is sometimes called Loch Leven, from the elms which formerly grew on its banks; but I suppose, now the elms are gone, Scridain may be more applicable to it. In my wearied state, when I arrived at the head of Loch Scridain, how thankful should I have been to the Duke of Argyle, had his grace established an inn there."

The want of inns in this island is particularly regretted by our tourist; who says, that it would be impossible for persons less *enthusiastic* than herself, to "get a view of the numberless curiosities in the isle of Mull; and that most travellers execrate the island as a barren dreary, dreadful district," though in the interior and southern parts of it there is much "interesting and delightful scenery."

"As I proceeded along the margin of Loch Scridain," continues Mrs. Murray, "the road became very rugged, or perhaps my extreme fatigue made me think it worse than it really was. About two miles before I came to Penny Cross, I rode through the channel of a burn, the bed of which was full of large stones, brought by torrents from a lofty chain within sight, the hollow sides of which must, in hard rains, exhibit magnificent cascades; but they were not in beauty then as I passed near them, and it was well for me they were not; for had they been

——— "Grumbling,
And leaping and tumbling,
And hopping and skipping,
And foaming and dripping,
And struggling and toiling,
And bubbling and boiling,
And beating and jumping,
And bellowing and thumping*,

I should not have been able to have crossed

"* Part of an impromptu taken from a book at the inn at Lanark, where those who visit the falls of Clyde insert their names, and observations too, if they please."

Digitized by Google

the burn, which rises to an enormous height after violent rains.

"At last, on turning a promontory of rock, I saw my long wished for goal, Penny-cross-house. I had no letter of introduction, nor was I known to the family; but I depended on the character of the inhabitants of the country, and rode up to the door of the mansion as boldly as my exhausted strength would permit. I enquired if Mrs. M'Lean was at home. She appeared, and I thus bespoke her charity. Madam, my name is Murray. I am a stranger, and in my way to Mr. Campbell's, the minister; but I am so fatigued with a ride of ten hours through Glenmore, that I cannot proceed: will you have the goodness to give me shelter for this night? 'Madam, your being a stranger is a sufficient reason for me to pay you every attention in my power; I beg you will come in."

The next morning Mrs. Murray took leave of her hospitable friends, with many thanks, and proceeded to Mr. Campbell's. This journey proved extremely wet, and at the completion of it he was drenched with rain: nor was his the only unpleasant event in the tour; for the road between Penny-cross and Lunnesain, is more dangerous for a horse than any track she had before entered. The following singular occurrence, related as a fact, might be dramatised with very powerful effect by a skilful writer.

"In former times one of the M'Leans of Duart, whose castle (now in ruins) stands on a promontory in Mull, in nearly an opposite direction to the Lady's Rock, married a sister of Argyle. The lady was handsome and amiable, but unhappily she was barren. In those days it was a high crime in the eye of her husband, when his wife bore him no children. Duart hated his hapless lady for that cause, and determined on her destruction. To accomplish it with ease, and, as he imagined, safe from detection, he ordered ruffians to convey her secretly to the bare rock, near Ulva more, and there leave her to perish at high tide. The deed was executed to Duart's wish, and the lady left on the rock, watching the rolling tide rising to overwhelm her.—When she had given herself up for a lost thing, and expected in a very short time to be washed from the rock by the waves, she fortunately perceived a vessel sailing down the sound of Mull, in the direction of the rock on which she was sitting. Every effort in her power was exerted, and every signal in her possession was displayed, to attract the notice of the people in the vessel. At length they perceived her, and drew near the rock. She made herself known, and related, that it was by the order of her barbarous husband she was left on the rock, and thus reduced to the wretched state in which they found her. The mariners, ever a generous race, took compassion on her, received her on board their vessel, and conveyed her safely to her brother at Inverary.

"M'Lean Duart made a grand mock funeral, for his much-loved, much-lamented lady, whom he announced to have died suddenly. He wrote disconsolate letters to her relations, particularly to Argyle; and, after a decent time, went to Inverary in deep mourning, where, with the greatest shew of grief, he lamented to his brother-in-law the irreparable loss he had sustained. Argyle said little, but sent for his sister, whose unexpected appearance in life and health, proved an electric shock to her tender husband.—Argyle was a mild and amiable man, and took no other revenge of M'Lean, but commanding him to depart instantly; at the same time advising him to be cautious not to meet his brother Donald, who would certainly take away his life, for having intended to destroy that of his sister. Sir Donald Campbell did meet him many years afterwards, in a street at Edinburgh, and there stabbed him for his crime towards his sister, when M'Lean was eighty years of age."

The succeeding narrative of Mrs. Murray's* voyage to Staffa, and the description of the island, cannot fail to interest every class of readers; and, we presume, the extent of the extracts will not satiate or fatigue the mind. She left Torloisk in a very small boat, having four rowers, and some provisions in the head of it; also, a young man as an interpreter.—Thus provided, she launched on the Atlantic Ocean. The tide and weather were favourable, and the voyage proved extremely pleasant. At about half-a-mile distant from Staffa, it appeared a very common-looking rough island, or rather a huge rock, with perpendicular cliffs to the summit, rising high above the ocean. "I began to think," says Mrs Murray, "I had ventured on the Atlantic for a curiosity much exaggerated by my adventurous predecessors; but as I drew nearer to the north point of the island, I soon saw, what cannot be described to be clearly understood by any but those who have had, like me, the happiness of beholding Staffa.

"In the Highlands, local names are very expressive of shape or situation.

"Why Staffa is thus called I cannot say, unless there is any word in the Danish lan-

* This tourist says, in another part of her volume, that she was the ninth "female stranger who had ventured to Staffa; but none of them had gone valiantly alone as I did."

Digitized by Google

guage signifying staff or pillar, from which the word Staffa can be derived. Its Gaelic name is Slothfuidh, literally expressing a surf beneath. It seems a mere stretch of the imagination in calling the wonderful cave at Staffa, Fingal's Cave.

"The father of Ossian, in the English translation of his poems, is styled Fingal; in Gaelic, he is called Fhion, or the fair.

"When Fingal's Cave is spoken of in the Erse language, it is called, in the genitive case, Uamh Inn. Fhion's Cave; it bears also another name, Uamh Bhinn, the melodious cave.

"After we had doubled the point of Gometra, the tide turned against us, and the wind in some degree got up, which occasioned waves and hard labour for the rowers; but when we came to Staffa not a breath of wind blew. The sea was as smooth as glass, which enabled the boat to get quite close to the shore, tacking continually amongst innumerable small rocks separate from Staffa, lying on the west side of it. Every length the boat made, new wonders came in view. On the north-west point, rises to a great height a small promontory, almost perpendicular from the sea to its summit. The base of this promontory is rough and irregular for perhaps more than half its height, and where the uneven rock ends, the most beautiful perfect uniform pillars rest upon it, in a convex semi-circle; and were it not for their stupendous appearance, it might be thought that the finest statuary ever existing had stretched his chisel powers beyond human art in forming them.

"Advancing from this beautiful convex circle of pillars, I observed creeks and caves, and perpendicular rocks of great variety; but when I came within sight of the very regular pillars and elevated dome over the great caves, I was in an extasy.

"Conceive, if you can, an infinity of small pillars, thrown together in every direction at a very considerable height from the eye, bearing the resemblance of architecture, executed in the most masterly style, and highly beautified by various tints made by time and weather, composing an irregular and continued façade to magnificent domes, from which descend perpendicular, compact, smooth, prismatic pillars, some resting (particularly those at the Boat Cave, and on the west side of Fingal's Cave) on rough, irregular, sound masses of basaltes washed by the sea. Others morticed in the angles of stumps of pillars once entire, the uppermost joints of which have separated from the main mass of pillars forming the island.

"It is said that the Boat Cave is much larger than Fingal's, but it is very little known, owing to ideal or real danger in going into it. The mouth of it is far from striking or beautiful, its form somewhat resembling a barn-door; but the dome or outside roof, resting on the perpendicular prisms, with the symmetry of the pillars, ranged in a compact form all along that part of Staffa, as beyond all description beautiful, even more so, if possible, than the outward parts of Fingal's Cave. But the striking *coup d'œil* of them is lost to all who approach Staffa by the south-east side of it; and it is not seen at all, if the boatmen do not choose to be at the trouble of rowing to the west.

"What is very uncommon, and which gives a very singular beauty to the south part of Staffa, is, that from the commencement of its grand dome or crown, on the west side of it, till near the landing place for cattle on the east side, not a fallen or loose piece of rock or rubbish of any kind is seen.

"I was almost overcome with astonishment and delight, on viewing the parts around the outside of the Boat Cave; and I remained in silent amazement at every succeeding object that met my eye, till I came to the entrance into Fingal's cave, which I did not perceive till I was nearly close to it, occasioned (as we were rowing very near the shore) by a round projection of most beautiful compact prisms, descending from the magnificent crown or dome of small pillars in every direction (beautified as before-mentioned, by the softest mellowest tints that time and weather produce) to a solid rough base of basaltes.

"When I faced the mouth of the cave what I could see of the inside, and what I gazed at on the outside, made my blood thrill through every vein; but when I got within it I forgot the world and every thing it contains. The omnipotence of the Deity filled my soul. I was lost in wonder, gratitude and praise. My nerves were so wound up that the smallest sound distracted me. Never shall I forget the sublime heaven-like sensations with which Fingal's Cave inspired me.

"From the grand works of nature, my mind has often been raised in adoration to the Author of them, and they have been to me the best of sermons; but Staffa produced the highest pitch of solemn, pious, enthusiastic sensations, I ever felt, or ever can feel in this my house of clay."

"It has not been longer than twenty-eight or twenty-nine years since the island of Staffa has been noticed as an object of curiosity; for, previous to the year 1770 it was avoided rather than sought after. It does not lie in the direct course, going through the sound of I-Colomb-Kill, from the south to the north; nor indeed is it in the way from one island of the Hebrides to another, but stands in the middle of an extensive bay, formed by islands, in the Atlantic, and completely open on the sea to west to that ocean; and from that point of the compass Staffa bears the storms and tempests from America, for not a foot of land lies directly between it and that continent. This may be the reason why such heavy seas are commonly around Staffa, and what cause it to be avoided by sea-faring people.

——Necessity never obliges any vessel

Digitized by Google

steer for Staffa; and as its curiosities were unknown, it was never visited, till within the last thirty years, by any but herdsmen, who probably ran their boats into the creek, where they landed their cattle, and then sailed off again as quickly as possible, without being at the trouble of going either to the south or west sides of the island; or if they did go thither, in all probability they only execrated the useless rocks, and the rough and dangerous sea around them, without conceiving that those billows surrounded the most wonderful productions on the face of the earth, which they had neither sense to feel, nor understanding to comprehend.

"Dr. Johnson had not the happiness of visiting Staffa. What a loss he sustained! The wonders of that island were very little known at the period he passed near it, in his way from Ulva to I-Ona.

"Fingal's cave, and Staffa's bending pillars, might have been doomed to waste their beauties in the desert ocean, had they not been brought to light by the account of Staffa published in Mr. Pennant's tour, which was sent him by Mr. (now Sir Joseph) Banks. Mr. Pennant, like Dr. Johnson, did not go near Staffa; he only saw it at a distance, (as I was told), and his draftsman took a view of its general appearance on the east side, where there is the least to be seen.

"The views in Mr. Pennant's tour (I have been informed) of the Clam-shell and Fingal's cave, are engraven from drawings sent to him by Sir Joseph Banks, with the discoveries he had made at Staffa.

"The view of the Clam-shell cave, gives a faint idea of the bending pillars around it; but as for Fingal's cave, it is impossible to delineate precisely either its form or solemnity, or give any idea of its beautiful grandeur.

"Sir Joseph Banks acquired his first knowledge of Staffa from a speculative gentleman from Ireland. In Mull, he went by the name of Leach, but it was thought it was not his real name. His speculation in the Hebrides was farming; and whether by accident or on a new speculation, no matter which, he landed on Staffa. He explored its wonderful caves, and had taste and judgment sufficient to comprehend the value of all he found on that astonishing island. Sir Joseph Banks met Mr. Leach, at Dremin, in Morven, from whom he learned what a rare jewel had unknown and unnoticed in the Atlantic, and offered to accompany him to it; an offer not to be refused by a philosophic mind, the philanthropy of which had carried him round the terrestrial globe.

"It has been by a few imagined, that the summit of Staffa is supported by pillars resembling a colonnade. A man, not long since (I will not say of what nation) arrived in Ulva, on purpose to see Staffa, with this imagination full in his mind. He ordered a boat to be ready the next morning to carry him to Staffa; but unfortunately for him, he made all the enquiries he could concerning the pillars of that island, and when he was assured that he could neither sail nor row between the fine basaltic pillars, which he had been informed (he said) supported Staffa, he in a pet retraced his steps to Aros and Oban, without going thither; for he declared he would not give a straw to see that island, unless he could sail or row through it, under a colonnade of angular pillars.

"Staffa rises perpendicularly from the sea at every part except at one creek, running some way into the island, on the east side, where few visitors reach; it is there they land what cattle and sheep are grazed on the summit, and it is the most sheltered spot around the island."

"There can be no doubt but Staffa is a huge bunch of prismatic pillars, nicely and closely fitting each other in every part, having its high summit covered with soil and grass. The pillars are jointed at unequal distances, and frequently the sections at the joints are concave on one side and convex on the other. This may be plainly seen in the inside of Fingal's cave, by noticing the stumps forming the pavement, and their corresponding parts in the arched roof over them. From this circumstance some imagine the enlargement, if not the whole of this cave to be formed, by the joints near the roof having been loosened, the under parts sunk perpendicularly to an irregular depth; but the most natural cause seems to be, that time, or decomposition of the cement in the fissures of the angles, and between the joints of the pillars, having loosened their hold on the main mass or bunch, the violent surge has carried off the joints, one after another, as the cement which held them together became weakened. Thus, too, must have been formed the pavement on the outside of the cave, with this difference, that in the inside of the summit, joints, and angles have been strong enough to retain their union with their neighbouring pillars, and thereby have formed the roof of the cave. The summit on the outside, exposed to open air, has been too feeble to resist storms, consequently those pillars with the crown and soil summit, have been swept clearly away by the violence of the sea, whenever a decomposition of the cement has taken place.

"If an uneven transverse slice of a honeycomb were petrified, slightly polished, and of brown colour, it would give a faint idea of the appearance of the pavement within and without Fingal's cave."

The author next visits and explores that cave, which she attempts to describe; but her feelings of admiration and wonder seem to deprive her of the power of description, for she becomes ambiguous and tautologous. She visits many other parts of the island, and endeavours to delineate its most prominent

Digitized by Google

features. Some of these sketches are touched with spirit and truth, but others are too faint, or confused, to be easily comprehended. With another short extract we must take leave of our entertaining tourist, whose work has certainly afforded us much amusement. If she intends to publish again, we recommend her (with sentiments of true candour and friendship) to cultivate brevity and perspicuity of description, to study a little of natural history and antiquity, that she may thereby extend her enquiries, and give more interest to her productions.

The Clam-shell cave, with its large bending pillars, convex horizontal prisms, &c. are described, and Mrs. Murray states, that she appropriated this singular spot to "a dining room." "When I had finished my luxuriant feast," she observes, "particularly of mind, I began my march over the horizontal pillars, which lay like numerous keels of huge men of war, petrified in one mass, and jointed like masonry. By scrambling over some horizontal, some bending some upright pillars, I at length gain the plain at the summit of the isla This plain is about one mile by th quarters, having a thin strata" (stratu "of soil over the great caves, but on north side of the island the pasture is mirable for feeding of cattle and she It will graze from forty to fifty head cattle from October to June, and hei for the remainder of the year, giv the grass a month's respite. St when farmed, lets for fourteen pou a year. It is part of the estate once longing to Macquarrie, chief of the M quarries, and whenever it has chan masters, it has been sold with the isl of Ulva. The present laird of these is is Ranald M'Donald, Esq. of the ho of Boisdale, whose mind and taste fully capable of appreciating the je in his possession, the like of which, all probability, cannot be found on face of the terrestrial globe."

ART. XIII. *Ανθρωπλανομενος; or, a pedestrian Tour through Part of the Highlands Scotland in* 1801. *By* JOHN BRISTED. 8vo. Two Vols. pp. 1160.

OFT have we admired the address of those renowned sons of Galen, Doctors Brodum, Solomon, &c. and the rival dexterity of Mr. Packwood in the variety and originality of their advertisements. One begins a grave paragraph, perhaps on the importance of Malta, the capture of St. Domingo, or the ravages of the yellow fever in Philadelphia; and soon finds oneself assailed with an eulogy on the virtues of the *Balm of Gilead*, the *Vegetable Syrup*, or the new *Razor-strop*. We have laboured through this long advertisement, 1160 pages! in which that "most marvellous effort of human ability and benevolence," Dr. Cowan's *Tractate on Education*; *the Adviser, or Moral and Literary Tribunal*; *Essays, philosophical and critical, by the author of the Adviser; and the Wanderer*, are puffed off with no common assiduity.

We shall not detain our readers two minutes; it is not our intention to empty upon their heads the contents of these volumes.

We shall just hint that Mr. Bristed is not ashamed virtually to avow himself the author of *Essays, philosophical and critical*. (See pages 196 and 197, vol. 2.) although in another place (vol. 1. 349,) he speaks of the *Adviser* as having been written by some other person.

Mr. Bristed and his companion tra led through the Highlands in the c racter of American sailors; they ro ed the country in *forma pauperum*, d cant loudly on the luxuries of the gr and the miseries of the poor, go fr pot-house to pot-house for half a b complain of the jealousy of the po because they are taken up for spies, a of the frequent inhospitality of the Sco because they were not welcomed as g tlemen! There is a great deal of pe ness and a great deal of vulgarity these volumes: it cost Mr. Bristed very little effort, we suspect, to acco modate his conversation to the compa he courted in the Highlands. Mr. Bri ted takes every opportunity of comm nicating his opinion on moral and po tical subjects, which he generally trea in a very dictatorial manner. Abo a hundred pages at the latter end of th first volume are taken up in considering the state of the female sex; what relates to their intellectual acquirements, and their state in society, is stolen from an essay in the first volume of the Cabinet (p. 178.) The theft too is committed in a most mean and sneaking manner; in the first place there is no reference given to the original essay; every instance of female superiority there produced is

Digitized by Google

ansplanted here, often with some little ditional circumstance to disguise it: en the metaphors and similies there ployed are used here, disfigured in- d, grossly disfigured, although the ntity is palpable. It would have been more impudent but less dishonourable to have transcribed the whole essay, or to have copied sentences entire and unmutilated, than thus wantonly to have defaced them for the pitiful and frustrate purpose of avoiding detection.

r. XIV. *Scottish Scenery*; *or, Sketches in Verse, descriptive of Scenes chiefly in the Highlands of Scotland; accompanied by Notes and Illustrations, and ornamented with Engravings, by W. Byrne, F. S. A. from Views painted by G. Walker, F. A. S. E.* o. pp. 400. 20 Plates.

Βόλιον! We must be allowed to laim in Greek, at the sight of this d volume, "descriptive of the *Petit* of Scotland."

The author is aware, that of late years, y have been employed in describing the e scenery; yet, as he attempts to treat the ject in a style somewhat different from traveller who has preceded him, he hopes design will obtain the approbation of e who have a taste for this species of position, provided the execution shall be nd, in any degree, to correspond with the uty and grandeur of the subject."

The merits of this author are so vari- s that we know not wherewith to be- He is poet, moralist, naturalist, osopher; and though he has modestly held his theological knowledge, we by the title page that he is also a D. D. these various subjects the poetry per- deserves precedence, as giving title his mass of multifarious learning, this yclopœdia of human intellect. First, n, we will adduce a few specimens of ctor Cririe's poetical merits, under the ious classes of excellence into which y may be arranged.

First: The Sublime, as produced, in itation of Milton, by sonorous sounds.

Here let us stop our wand'ring northward course,
er farther roam mid dreary mountains wild;
t quick, to where the Tummle meets the Tay,
Logie-Rait return. A boat soon wafts o'er the Tummle." (P. 55.)

Another river, yet to song unknown,
e Mouse its name, though small, of mighty force." (P. 144.)

Are we mistaken in supposing that Horace alluded to this river, when he describes the Mouse as proceeding from the mountains?

The Sublime, as produced by the Indefinite.

"Hence westward, hast'ning to the lake descends
A river's mighty stream, Aharan nam'd;
Sheer o'er the steep it shoots *some hundred feet*." (P. 61.)

Again. Apostrophizing Loch Lomond, for the apostrophe is the favourite figure of passion,

"To thy stupendous size, what's Derwent Lake?
What all the lakes of Cumberland to thee,
With those that grace her sister county join'd?
Those pretty ponds let others flock to view." (P. 108.)

But after this fine passage we perceive with sorrow that the Doctor, deviating from the rules of true sublime, which he had before so well observed, has actually given the measurement of Loch Lomond, bating furlongs and yards. It was peculiarly unfortunate to tell us, that the shores, including their windings, measure an hundred miles in circumference, immediately after the bold apostrophe which we have quoted, and that noble contempt expressed of Derwentwater, for its comparative littleness. The measurement necessarily recalls Guthrie's Geographical Grammar to our recollection, and we feel, what certainly the poet never designed to make us feel, that Lake Superior is indeed a Superior Lake.

The abrupt.

"———————— placid and calm
The twilight dim descends, and changeful forms
Croud the uncertain view, 'mid hills unknown,
Veil'd with the sable curtains of the sky,
Which slowly shifting close around. Meanwhile,
Fancy, and wild Imagination's pow'r,
The various forms of lakes and islands trace,
Their banks with groves of tufted trees adorn'd;
Meand'ring rivers, winding smooth and slow,
Illusive, gliding 'twixt the op'ning clouds.

Digitized by Google

Imposing thus on Reason's dormant reign,
Harmless amusement soothes the vacant mind.
A light dispels the charm. We stop at Weem."

In the following passage we have another proof of that honourable love of accuracy which acknowledged Loch Lomond to be so much less than the American lakes, and which elsewhere candidly confesses that the falls of the Clyde are not so vast as those of the Rhine, and the Nile, and Niagara.

"Here too, a habitation ready reared
Invites the enthusiast to the lone abode,
Unmatch'd, perhaps, in Britain's happy isle. (P. 61.)

Mark the precision of this sentence, and the poet's scrupulous truth! This ready-built house was the pleasantest the Doctor had ever seen, and he thought it was the pleasantest in the whole island; but, not having seen every house in the island he could not positively affirm it to be so; for though the affirmation might not have been false, it would have been rash to have incurred the possibility of falsehood. The opinion is qualified by the happy word "*perhaps*," and thus all danger is avoided.

As a naturalist Dr. Cririe is indeed conspicuous; he has discovered that

"Winter comes in course,"

That

"In winter oft descends the flaky snow." (P. 120.)

And that trees live longer than men: for thus he sweetly sings on lamenting the Queen of Scots.

"The pow'r of vegetation kept alive
For ages; trees that Mary must have seen,
Beneath whose shade, perhaps, she mournful sat."

They do not however live for ever, for the next line tells us.

"Yet these now yield to time and fast decay." (P. 25.)

Yet is the Doctor no timid slave to the laws of nature. He ventures to improve them, as, when in a thunder-storm, he says,

"Rocks dash'd on rocks are heard
Rattling around." (P. 114.)

To proceed to the pathetic.

See there th' overhanging rock, where, dreadful fall!
While, of the precipice not well aware,
The lady plung'd into the eddying pool.
A friend, with eager haste her life to save,
Swift to the gulph descends, fatal to both,
Had not, while both alternate sink and rise
Suspended o'er the deep, a rock been rang
Which held, in dread suspence, the sc
of fate,
While hope and fear alternate rose and fe

What a subject was here to have be
"painted in crayons and engraved at t
publisher's expence!" The Lady in t
Pool, a friend assisting her, the Ro
holding the Scales of Fate, and Ho
and Fear playing at way-jolt in them!

We have yet to examine the fancy
the poet, and the specimen shall be tak
from his Loch-Kettrin, "in which, bei
more a work of fancy, the reins of im
gination are held with a freer hand."

"Night gently drew the curtains of the sk

Having thus put the sky to bed, t
poet is at leisure to describe the text
of his curtains. They were

"Of heavenly tissue, azure starr'd with gol

Blue and gold we should have thoug
sufficiently handsome. The furniture
Dr. Graham's certainly was not fin
and his is the only celestial bed whi
we ever recollect to have been exhibite
but the fancy of the poet varies his orn
ments: they were either blue and gol

"Or silver edged, a thin and chequ
lawn."

i. e. cross-barred cambric with sil
trimmings; or they were gauze,

"Transparent, swift to vanish with the
morn;"

or they were of printed calico,

"Mottled here and there with shade opaque

or they were, we know not what, for

"Meantime the radiance of the silent moon
Pierces, at times, the half-transparent veil,
Or pours effulgence 'twixt its shifting folds."
(P. 192.)

There is yet a finer flight of fancy in that part of the poem which is entitled Tyne-Drum to Dalmally. It is a splendid picture of the Spirit of the Storm, who steps from mountain to mountain, one foot on Jura, another on Nevis; not the Mount Jura contiguous to Switzerland, nor the West Indian island Nevis,

Digitized by Google

that would be outstepping the modesty of personification, but two Scotch mountains so called; thence he goes on taking stepping-stones of Ben Gloe, and Ben Ben More, and great Ben Lawrs, Lomond, and Shihallion, and Cairnm, there he stands and drains runstream, and standing flood, and the supplies of the Atlantic, till having nk his fill the Diuretic Demon puts Tyne-Drum to a viler purpose than ade of Moab in the Psalms.

Lastly. We shall exhibit the poet in prophetical character, for who knows the double import of *Vates?* In aking of his hero and heroine, he says,

Low sleep strong Malmor and Imoina fair,
eir peaceful lives, the story of their loves,
eir hopes and fears, and happiness *forgot.*"

Having thus exemplified the poetical nities of this author, we proceed to sider him as a philosopher. We have son to believe that, with Mr. Parks, Anti-Newtonian Lecturer, he has doubts concerning the Copernican tem, as in the following notes he calls attention to an hypothesis which as the universe to an onion.

Another philosopher of the new world, revived an old hypothesis of a vast conorb, encompassing numberless systems, reflecting the light of all, that it may not ce for ever, and be lost in unlimited space. thinks that the luminous appearance of galaxy or milky way is occasioned by the xion from that orb, rather than from the nded light of telescopic stars; and that several dark spots, or nebulæ, as they e been called, in which stars appear, are enings, through which are discovered pe of the scenes of various systems that olre beyond it, within still more capaous orbs of a similar structure and design. e thinks that Saturn's belt is a part of our tem, somewhat analogous to this great orb, at bounds our view of the heavens; and that is to this orb we owe that concave sapphire pearance which we denominate the sky."

This Dr. Crirrie gives us as the system another philosopher, but his solution the popular superstition concerning ries is entirely his own.

"Most of the traditional stories respecting ies, especially such as represented them embodied spirits, might perhaps be acunted for, upon supposing that the Druids, rather some conquered aborigines, had d from their enemies, and taken up their idence in those subterraneous dwellings frequently discovered in digging in various parts of Scotland, and in some places called Picts houses. Covered with artificial mounts, they were generally green hills. When the country came to be inhabited around them, a regard for their own safety would induce them to lie hid by day, and to come abroad only in the night: it would be of consequence, if at any time their occasions should force them abroad in day-light, that their clothing should be as like the ground as possible; hence they were always dressed in green. Their narrow dwellings kept them much confined by day; hence the exercise of dancing by moonlight must have been to them most delightful, and frequently repeated in remote glens and sequestered places. Hence also their music by night, in the open air; by day, in their dwellings, it must have betrayed them. Hence also, in dark nights, those gleams of light which were necessary to find their way to water, or any thing else they might need. Their stock of provisions might at times run short; hence their females, appearing in green gowns, borrowing oatmeal and repaying it. Their families, in that confined state of life, from putrid or infectious diseases, might become thin, or wear away; and hence their carrying off women and children to recruit their stock: hence also the return of those carried off, being permitted to depart, after several years of absence from their own families, under a promise of keeping their secret. Difficulties may be started; but such a supposition, or that of a diminutive lunar race, serves to account for stories that passed current with people, who, though superstitious, and apt to be imposed upon by their own imagination, were not indifferent with regard to what they thought to be truth, more than people of the present age. It may also be proper to remark, that the fairy tales of this country were widely different from those we generally find in books."

We need not dilate upon the great probability of this solution; the idea is certainly novel—Dancing druids, and all in Lincoln Green.

Let us now display him as the moralist: to the end of his poem are appended these reflections.

"Singular situations call forth unusual exertions: nature operates with equal force in all ages; and the means of subsistence may be procured, where those who are accustomed to the refinements of polished life, would least expect them. Industry and contentment work wonders; but a change of manners is commonly hostile to happiness. In every situation of society, the thief and the robber, but especially the murderer, ought to be exterminated."

This is the corollary of the poem, the condensed philosophy of the author.

Digitized by Google

Dr. Cririe must be considered, in one point of view, as the commentator of his own works.

"Accept, O Lycidas! this humble lay,
Slightly descriptive of those rural scenes,
And wilder charms, which, thro' our native land,
Kind Nature spreads to captivate the soul,
Instinctive form'd her beauties to admire:
Those varied scenes I late with pleasure view'd,
Pleasure unmix'd with pain, save what arose
From deep regret, through sympathy of soul,
Excited by thine absence: oft thy name
Was heard, and oft thy form to Fancy's eye
Present appear'd; and oft (for not alone
I sought those distant solitary wilds,
Mountains and lakes, hills, rivers, rocks, and woods)
Our friend, whose presence heighten'd every joy,
Greatly enhancing all the scen'ry round,
Sincerely join'd your absence to deplore."

In this passage we are referred to the notes, which the author tells us ought to be regularly consulted in the perusal, as they are necessary towards a clear understanding of the poem. The line to be elucidated is this,

"Our friend, whose presence heightened every joy."

Whereof the Doctor has helped us to "a clear understanding," by the depth and novelty of the following annotation. "Man is naturally fond of society, but those alone who have tasted the sweets of virtuous friendship can tell how much participation adds to enjoyment." (P. 294.)

Again, the text is,

"September young had scarce begun to t
With various colours, fruit and forest w

The comment runs thus: "The v
ous seasons of the year have each t
distinguishing features and respec
beauties." (P. 234.) Delighted as
needs must be with the truth and p
fundity of this remark, may we be p
mitted to hint, that the talents and s
men of this commentator should be m
worthily exerted? We do indeed c
that such poetry can only be elucid
by such comments, that "none but h
self can be his annotator;" yet s
neither Scottish scenery, nor his
verses can deserve the investigation
this great critic, D. D. as he is, wh
cloud hangs over the apocalypse, w
the number of the beast is still unexp
ed, while it remains to be decided, w
ther the man of sin be Tom Pa
or Doctor Dodd, and while we h
only the authority of the news-pa
and cheap pamphlets for believing
naparte to be Gog and Magog.

The size and exterior of this vol
have provoked from us an examinat
which a more appropriate appearanc
foolscap might have escaped. Com
trials for petty larceny are scarcely h
of beyond the precincts of the
Bailey, but if a peer be tried as a p
pocket, or a lady brought to the bar f
shoplifting, the rank of the delinqu
secures universal notoriety.

ART. XV. *A Tour throughout South Wales and Monmouthshire, comprehending a ge
Survey of the picturesque Scenery, Remains of Antiquity, historical Events, peculiar M
ners, and commercial Situations of that interesting Portion of the British Empire.*
J. J. BARBER, F. S. A. 8vo. pp. 372. *There is another Edition, with 20 aq
tint Prints, from Drawings by the Author.*

WALES has had more than her proportionate share of topographers and tourists; but though a great number of volumes have been expressly appropriated to this part of Great Britain, they have generally been so deficient in the grand essentials of information, that others continue to follow, and more are wanting to furnish a perfect and satisfactory account of the principality. In our former volume, (p. 495.) we noticed a work which professed to treat of South Wales, and were impelled to speak reprovingly of its author. The volume before us, also refers to the same part of our island, and though it offers only number of slight descriptive sketche yet some of those are touched with t hand of a master. It has been too mu the practice with Welsh tourists to r through the country with hasty prec pitancy, make a few brief notes, sligh sketches, &c., and afterwards work t their crude materials into one or tw octavo volumes. The grand moun tainous scenery, with the magnificen castellated, and monastic ruins, which characterize Wales, are powerful temp tations to curiosity; and fashion having pointed her finger to that part of the

Digitized by Google

island, hundreds of vacant loungers have obeyed her direction, in performing "the tour of Wales." Previous to the late war, a continental tour was deemed necessary in the routine of education: that being checked, English excursions were adopted, either with the laudable desire of improvement, or as a fashionable mode of killing time, and to furnish subject for winter *prattle*.

Mr. Barber is one of the curious, if not inquisitive, travellers. Few objects of antiquity, beauty, or grandeur, seem to have escaped his notice, or have been passed by without a brief characteristic description. Being professionally an artist, he naturally feels principally interested in the "ivy clad ruin," the "shattered castle," the "roaring cataract," and the beautiful, the picturesque, or the sublime scenery. These are the objects of his admiration and research, yet he is not exclusively devoted to them. Manners, customs, history, and general topography, are sometimes descanted on; and following the bad example of some preceding tourists, he has given two or three specimens of the surprising and marvellous.

The following historical particulars relating to the *general history of South Wales*, serve as an *introduction* to the volume: they are written in a concise, but eloquent style, and are highly creditable specimens of the manner of writing adopted by our tourist.

"In making the tour of South Wales and Monmouthshire,' (Mr. Barber observes,) the *admirer* of *picturesque beauty* dwells with peculiar pleasure on a tract of country, comprising the greater part of Monmouthshire, and bordering the Severn and Bristol Channel, to the western limits of Pembrokeshire. In this enchanting district, a succession of bold hills, clothed with wild forests, ornamental plantations and delightful valleys, present themselves in constant variety: many fine estuaries and rivers, picturesque towns, and princely ruins, also adorn the scene; whose charms are inconceivably heightened by the contiguity of the Bristol Channel, which washes the coast; in some parts receding into capacious bays; in others, advancing into rocky promontories of the most imposing grandeur. *The statistic enquirer* finds equal subject of gratification, in the uncommon fertility of several valleys, and the woody treasures of numerous hills, bearing myriads of oaks, and other first rate timber-trees. The mineral wealth of the country, and its convenient situation for traffic, are likewise subjects of high consideration: and while the statist applauds the late rapid strides of manufactures and commerce in this district, he may discover sources hitherto latent for their increase.

"*The historian* cannot fail of being interested while treading on the ground where Britons made their latest and most vigorous efforts for independence, against successive invaders; nor the *antiquary*, while traversing a country replete with monuments of the Druidical ages; military works of the Romans, Britons, Saxons, and Normans; and the venerable relics of numerous religious foundations.

"Beyond this stripe of country, from ten to twenty miles in width, forming the southern extremity of Wales, and an intermixture of rich scenery, (particularly in the neighbourhood of Brecon) with prevailing dreariness: on the eastern frontier, South Wales exhibits a tedious extent of hills without majesty, valleys over-run with peat bogs, and unprofitable moors.

"Besides the superb ruins of St. David's, the course of the Tivy, near Cardigan, and the scenery about the Devil's Bridge, it has little to entice the attention of the tourist: the towns, for the most part, are miserably poor, and travelling accommodations very uncertain; the roads, too, are wretched beyond any thing that a mere English traveller ever witnessed. It is therefore, a subject of no small gratification, that the chief beauties of South Wales are found in a compact route; abounding with good towns, respectable accommodations, and very fair roads. This part of the country may be explored in a close carriage, though the better mode of travelling is certainly on horse-back. The pedestrian may claim peculiar advantages in his way of *getting on*; but I do not conceive, that a man enduring the fatigue of trudging, day after day, through miry roads, can maintain an exhilaration of spirits congenial with the beauties that surround him.

"The geographical situation, and present limits of Wales, are unnecessary to be here described. Of its history, the first certain accounts that we collect are on the invasion of the Romans, when Wales appears to have been divided into three principalities: the Silures, the Ordovices, and the Dimitæ. The Silures possessed all that tract of country bounded by the Severn, the Tame, and Towey; which comprehending the counties of Monmouth, Glamorgan, Brecknock, Radnor, Hereford, and part of Gloucester, Worcester, and Caermarthenshires, comprised the greater part of South Wales. The Dimitæ inhabited that part of South Wales westward of the Towey; and the Ordovices, North Wales, including Anglesea.

"The Romans having subdued *Britannia Prima*, i. e. the southern part of England, advanced to the conquest of Wales, by them denominated *Britannia Secunda*, in this, however, they met with an unlooked-for opposition; the inhabitants were vigorous and brave; and the country, wildly piled toge-

Digitized by Google

ther with mountains, forests, and morasses, presented an aggregation of difficulties, that would have discouraged a people less ardent in their enterprizes; nor did they succeed, until after a long warfare and a severe loss. The Silures and Dimitiæ fell under the yoke in the reign of Vespasian, when they were vanquished by *Julius Frontinus*. The Ordovices were not finally subdued until the time of his successor, *Agricola*, who according to Tacitus, exterminated the whole nation.

"The Romans retained possession of this country until A. D. 408, when they withdrew their legions, and the most warlike of the British youth, for the defence of their central dominions. The inroads of the Scots and Picts, which immediately followed, do not appear to have materially affected the Welch; nor did the Saxons, though at constant war with them for several centuries, acquire any settled dominion in the country: yet they more than once partially over-ran Wales, obliging it to pay tribute; and in the reign of Edward the Confessor, Harold, at the head of a great army, entering Wales, defeated Prince Griffith, sovereign of North-Wales, and establishing himself at Gwent,* (Monmouthshire), began a palace at Portswit, which was, however, destroyed by Griffith before its completion.

"From the departure of the Romans, in 408, to the inroads of the Anglo-Norman chieftains, in the eleventh and twelfth centuries, Wales was divided into numerous petty sovereignties, or lordships, of varying name and extent, but tributary to an imperial prince; though, sometimes that dignity was split into two or three branches. These chiefs were usually at war with each other, or with their princes, who seldom obtained tribute when their means of enforcing it was *(were)* questionable.

"The Anglo-Norman dominion in Wales was brought about in a manner wholly different from former conquests. William the first and his successors, finding sufficient employment in securing their English possessions, invited their chiefs, holding lands in the neighbourhood of Wales, to make incursions against the Welch lords, upon their separate interests. The Norman leaders thereupon, by creating feuds among the native powers, siding with one or the other party, and breaking with them on convenient opportunities, contrived to fix themselves in various parts of Wales; whence their conquests, extending by degrees, overspread the greater part of the country. The lands thus obtained, became the property of the conquerors, who, under the title of *lords marchers*, were allowed to exercise an uncontrolled jurisdiction within their demesnes: but power acquired on such principles could only be retained by force: every petty despot secured himself a fortress, and hence arose the extraordinary number of CASTLES with which Wales is crowded, amounting, according to a native author,† to *one hundred and forty three*. The Welch princes still held a considerable tract of country, frequently overthrew the intruders, and even carried their arms into England; but in the defeat of the brave Llewelyn, by Edward the first, Wales lost every remnant of its independance, and became definitively united to the crown of England.

"In the reign of Henry the eighth, Wales was divided into twelve shires, and Monmouthshire was included among the English counties; the feudal despotism of the lords marchers was then abolished; and Wales participating in the equal shelter of English jurisprudence, has proved itself as zealous in defending the common interest of the empire, as it was formerly conspicuous in struggling for its particular freedom."

Among the numerous memorials of history and antiquity which distinguish Wales, castles and religious buildings possess the chief claim to attention; and as Wales is an admirable field for the study of the civil and military architecture that prevailed in the middle ages, Mr. Barber gives a slight sketch of the progress of those arts, so far as it seems applicable to the present purpose. The subject is highly interesting, and our author has evidently made it an object of much study.

"On the overthrow of the Romans by the Goths and Vandals," Mr. Barber observes, "the arts vanished before the scourge of war, and the standard mode of architecture which adorned the Greek and Roman empire could no longer be executed in its original perfection. The general forms, indeed, were imitated, but without an observance of symmetry; the execution was rough and clumsy, the pillars were excessively thick, and the arches heavy; and where ornament was attempted the performance was very uncouth. Such was the state of architecture (a mere corruption of the Roman) that succeeded the devastations of the Goths, and has been called *Saxon* and *Norman*: the term Gothic, however, would certainly be more appropriate.

"At the beginning of the twelfth century a new style of architecture made its appearance, distinguished by pointed arches and clustered columns. Though at first coldly received, and but sparingly introduced among the rounded arches and massive columns called Saxon, it soon gained an undisputed footing."

* The Saxons at this period are supposed to have occupied Monmouth, Chepstow, Caerwent, and Caerleon.

† Mr. Pennant.

Digitized by Google

Mr. Barber has subjoined a note on his subject, which we gladly extract, as artly coincident with our own ideas.

"The common appellation of this mode, Gothic, is equally improper with the preding, as the reign of the Goths was at an nd long before its introduction: indeed its rigin is wrapped in obscurity. Sir Christoher Wren, and after him many architects nd antiquaries, have attributed it to the aracens, and hence called it Saracenic; ut their grounds are very questionable Perps the homely conjecture, that it arose om the pointed form in the interse ecting axon arches, may be as near the truth as ne derived from mere laborious researches; ndeed, from the specimens of early Gothic hich I have seen, I am of opinion, that ogent reasons may be adduced, to prove it ather to be of natural growth from the Saxon odes, and formed in its characteristics by radual alteration, than a new system of reorce and detached origin."

This we apprehend might be easily ncidated. It is a curious subject and quires much attention. The many ld theories, and fantastic opinions, that ve been promulgated, concerning anent architecture, are sad examples of spent time, and perverted talents. ad the writers studied more to *inform* eir readers, than merely to *amuse* themves, we should not have had to lament the ambiguity that bewilders this bject at the present day. The term thic has long been improperly and inditiously applied to that light and gant architecture which characterises st of the English cathedrals: but we happy to find that a few independnt, unprejudiced writers have dared explode the name, and have substited the word English, at once credite to the country, and, at the same e, well applied to characterise a style building, which if it did not absolute originate in this island, was advanced system and symmetry here, unknown the Continent. We wish to be unstood as applying the term English, hat architecture which prevailed in ecclesiastical buildings, from the hteenth to the sixteenth century. Sir istopher Wren, and some contempo architects, applied the term Gothic pressive of contempt for all buildnot erected conformable to the rules Palladio. As science and human owledge advances, writers acquire an proved and critical accuracy of language; and proper approved terms are employed and universally credited. By this mode, precise ideas are communicated, and for want of this critical precision, has originated much confusion, error, and bewildering uncertitude. Mr. Barber continues this subject, and observes that

"About the latter end of the reign of Henry the third, we find it acquire a more ornamental and distinct character. The pillars which before were round, and encircled with slender detached shafts, were then formed in entire reeded columns; the arched roofs also, which only exhibited the main springers, then became intersected with numerous ramifications and transomes. The decorations continued to encrease until toward the close of Henry the eighth's reign, when the light of science again dawned over Europe, and the relics of Greece and Rome were rightly considered as models of genuine taste: the classic elegance of the five orders then appeared *intermixed with the Gothic*; it soon became universal, and is now adopted in all *superior buildings* throughout Europe. Further characteristics of style might be pointed out, and lesser variations defined: but I do not presume to inform the antiquary; and the distinctions already drawn will be sufficient for the cursory tourist.

"Castles appear of no generally chosen figure, except such as were founded by the Romans, who preferred that of an oblong square, unless there were special reasons to the contrary. Small castles consisted of a single court, or ward, whose sides were usually flanked by towers. The great hall, chapel, and domestic apartments, built from the outer wall into the court, occupied one or more sides. The citadel, called also the keep and dungeon, was a tower of eminent strength, wherein the garrison made their last stand, and where prisoners were sometimes confined: the citadel was often detached from the walls, and built on an artificial mound, encircled with a ditch. The barracks for the soldiers in garrison was generally a range of building near the gate-house, or principal entrance. The latter building contained apartments for the officers of the castle, and the portal was furnished with one, two or three portcullisses*. A wet or dry moat surrounded the whole; and advanced before the drawbridge which crossed it, there was often an out-work called a barbican. Large castles were only a repetition of these courts, upon somewhat of a larger scale, connected with each other: (Chepstow castle consists of four). In fortresses of the first class, an extensive embattled wall sometimes encircled the mass of fortification already described, at some distance, enclosing a considerable tract of ground, as at Caerphilly in Glamorganshire.

* An iron grate, with spikes at the bottom, which was let down after the gate was forced.

Digitized by Google

Castle walls appear in some instances built of solid masonry, but their general construction is of grout work. For this purpose, two slight walls were built parallel, from six to twelve feet asunder: the interval was then filled up with loose stones and rubbish, and the whole cemented together with a great quantity of fluid (according to some authors, boiling) mortar: the mass soon acquired a sufficient firmness, and in the present day it possesses the adhesion of solid rock. This method was used by the *Romans*, and adopted by succeeding *ages*; but the arches were turned, and the angles coigned with hewn stones, which, after the conquest, were brought from Caen in Normandy."

These observations are evident proofs that Mr. Barber has not been inattentive, or indolent, in his researches. At the same time we perceive some confusion of ideas in his description of castles, which would have been avoided had he been familiar with the works of Horsley, Roy, and King, and compared and corrected their accounts with remaining castrametations and castles. These were different places of retreat, security, and defence: many of the former were never castellated, and many have most probably been successively occupied and altered by Britons, Romans, Saxons, Danes, and English. This, like the subject of ancient architecture, has been more bewildered by theorists, than elucidated by men of science and talent. Many false and absurd descriptions and plates have been copied and re-copied, almost *ad infinitum*, tending to generate error and propagate falshood. Mr. Barber relates an instance in himself:

"Several years ago, (he observes) when I first set about castle-hunting, I endeavoured in vain to discover a relation between what I saw, and the description with a figure of an ancient castle, laid down in Grose's Antiquities, and copied by others. I have since seen the greater part of the principal ruins in South Britain; and the only castles that occur to me as approaching to that gentleman's plan, are those of Dover and London. I mention this, because persons building a theory on the authorities above mentioned, might, among ruins, be puzzled, to no purpose, for a practical illustration."

The following description of Caermarthen will amuse those who know the town, convey some information to the stranger, and at the same time characterize the author's manner of treating this province of his work.

"The situation of CAERMARTHEN, one of the most wealthy and polite towns in Wales, can scarcely be enough admired; rising above a noble river, and commanding a full view of one of the most beautiful vales in the kingdom. Internally there is less to commend, as most of the streets are very steep, and irregularly built: yet there are many good private houses belonging to the neighbouring gentry, that resort here in the winter months; and a handsome town-hall, and some other buildings, do credit to the public spirit of the town, though a solitary church may reflect but little on its sanctity. Very small remains of the castle, now built up into a gaol, appear, or of the walls that formerly encompassed the town. The trade of the place is much facilitated by its fine river, which conveys ships of a good size up to the bridge.

"Caermarthen is the Kaervyrdkin of the Britons, the Maridunum of Ptolomy, and the Muridunum of Antoninus. The ancient Britons reckoned it the capital of all Wales: here they held their parliaments, or assemblies of wise men; and here fixed their chancery and exchequer. When the Normans over-ran Wales, this town severely felt the miseries of war, being often besieged, and twice burnt by the Welsh princes. Gilbert, earl of Clare, however, at length fixed his power at Caermarthen, beyond the reach of their attempts. This place gave birth to the famous Merlin in the year 480: he appears to have been a man of extraordinary wisdom and learning, which, no doubt, occasioned him to be looked upon as a magician in that dark age, and transmitted as such to posterity by monkish writers, who always looked with an evil eye on knowledge possessed out of their craft. He also was born Lewes Bayley, chaplain to James the First, afterwards bishop of Bangor, and author of the celebrated 'Practice of Piety."

With the following description of the New Passage, and the historical anecdote of Charles the First connected with it, we must close our account of this tour, which has certainly afforded much amusement, and the general execution of which is commendable.

"Proceeding through an agreeable undulating tract towards the sea-shore, we soon arrived at the NEW PASSAGE, the principal entrance into Monmouthshire from the south-western counties. The breadth of water from this place to the Bristol coast, is three miles and a half, while the ferry at Aust, or the Old Passage, four or five miles higher up the Severn, is only two miles across; but this advantage is considered to be over-balanced by the more commodious landing at the former. Both these concerns being *monopolies*, like all other monopolies are hostile to the interest of the public;

Digitized by Google

there being no competition for preference between the boatmen, they are extremely rude in their manners, indifferent to the accommodation of the public, and by no means unpractised in various arts of extortion. But these exclusive privileges have existed from time immemorial. The title of the New Passage arose from its renewal in the year 1718, after an abolition in consequence of the following remarkable incident.

"Charles the First being pursued by a strong party of his enemies through Share Newton, got into a boat at the Black Rock (the New Passage), and was ferried to the opposite shore. His pursuers, to the number of sixty, with drawn swords, compelled other boatmen belonging to the passage to ferry them after him; but these being in the king's interest, landed them on a reef of rocks in the Severn, called the English Stones, near the Gloucestershire coast, to which they were instructed to ford: indeed, the strait was fordable at low water, but the tide flowing in very rapidly, they were all drowned in the attempt, and the king for that time escaped. Cromwell, informed of the transaction, abolished the ferry; nor was it renewed, until after a long chancery-suit between an ancestor of the present proprietor, Mr. Lewes of St. Pierre, and the guardians of his grace the duke of Beaufort, proprietor of Aust ferry."

ART. XVI. *Remarks upon North Wales, being the Result of Sixteen Tours through that Part of the Principality.* By W. HUTTON, *F. A. S. S. &c.* 8vo. pp. 236.

THIS respectable veteran author claimed our notice, and merited our praise, (vol. I. p. 468,) for his history of the Roman Wall; and we would gladly extend our commendations to the present work, if we could do it consistently with our duty to the public. As age creeps on, "second childhood" often ensues; and it is a general characteristic of cheerful old age, to be willingly garrulous, and to make *self* the theme of almost every tale.

The volume before us abounds in tedious repetitions of events and circumstances relating *only* to the author and family; but it contains very little of useful or engaging information concerning the history, antiquities, or scenery of North Wales. These are subjects which we were entitled to look for, and in finding them, are entitled to complain. New books should develope something useful, interesting, or entertaining, otherwise the purchaser is not only robbed of his time, but of his purse money. Mr. Hutton seeks to supply one of these desiderata, in *extraordinary stories*, anecdotes, or laconic witticisms: but when these subjects form the principal part of a book, it should have some other title, and not be denominated a Tour. In the following extract is comprized the author's preface, and all his explanation about his work.

"In former ages the English rarely entered Wales, but to destroy it. Her sovereign mountains, beautiful vallies, and surprising cascades, instead of being admired, were deluged with blood. Nor was the eye of the curious fascinated with her wonders within the last fifty years. The improvement of her roads, and particularly the daily communications between England and Ire-

land, brought her into notice. The English traveller at length ventured to climb her precipices, descend her glens, and admire her curiosities: and now the vast influx of annual visitants enrich her with their wealth.

If the fathers oppressed her, their children support her.
Though the world is frequently favoured with WELSH *tours*,
Yet the historical knowledge is but in its infancy:
If much *is* said,—much remains."

Mr. Hutton proceeds to say that he does not follow the footsteps of any author, but made those "remarks only which fell under his own eye, in travelling sixteen times, in various directions, through that principality." As a specimen of the author's manner of *describing* a town, we select the following, under the head of Ludlow, a large town of Shropshire:—"I thought it abounded with female beauty; but *every* place exhibits handsome women, when dressed for church on Sunday."

The following strange story Mr. H. relates as a fact: but relates it in so strange a manner as to excite our suspicion.

"In my first day's journey I passed through Machyntleth, a handsome open town, and on to Mallwyd, thirty-two miles: in my way, weary and heated, I stepped into a miserable hut, consisting of one small and black room, the floor native earth, and the sole light was admitted by the door which had just admitted me. I sat down with all the freedom of an owner, gave a smile and a nod to the master, for to speak was needless. He looked pleasant, and without a word brought me a mess of butter-milk. This I could have relished, but was too much heated. I afterwards, where I could be understood, mentioned this union of poverty

Digitized by Google

and hospitality: the reply was, 'That man is not so poor as you imagine.' In my second day's march from Mallwyd to Welsh Pool, a man darted out of a house, as if watching for me, with a 'How far are you going?' 'To Canoffice.'—'So am I.' I halted to observe a mill which I thought curious: he attended me as close as my shirt. He appeared rather shabby, not very active, but very inquisitive, without a wish to appear so; had travelled, been on board a ship, was a taylor, and was going to Llanvair to visit a son.

"You carry your coat upside down, you will lose the gold.'—'There is none to lose.' 'If there is none in those pockets, there is in others.' We stopped at Canoffice, and as I could make but a poor reckoning, I treated him.

"The weather being hot, we agreed to repose in the shade. 'Are your buckles silver?'—'Yes.' We were reclined upon a bank, I facing him, unbuttoned, with my eyes closed, all in silence and abstracted from the world.

"Opening my eyes, I saw with astonishment a large open clasp knife in his hand. 'What do you do with that knife?' with some emotion. 'Cut bread and cheese.'—'Why you have none to cut.'

"We marched on; I treated him coldly, he saw my suspicion. I was under no fear while my eyes were open, and he not at my heels, for I could overcome two such, though no fighter. Determined to quit my company, I outwalked him, which seemed to disappoint him. Stopping at Llanvair to bait, he hunted me out, entered the public room where I sat alone, and drew his knife. 'Pray why do you draw that knife?' 'I always carry it to cut bread and cheese.' 'That must be a mistake, for you had none to cut either then or now; nor did you carry it for any other purpose. Besides, if you come to this town to visit your son, there can be no need to enter a public house.' He closed the knife, and was silent. I paid my shot, walked on to Welch Pool, and saw him no more. I have only stated facts, and another may judge; but to this moment I am at a loss to guess whether my suspicions were just."

This specimen, we presume, will amply satisfy the reader: but if he wish for a few more stories of the same species, we must take the liberty of referring him to the work.

ART. XVII. *A new Pocket Atlas and Geography of England and Wales, illustrated with fifty-five Copper-plates, shewing all the great Post Roads, with the Towns and Villages situated thereon; also, a Description of the Air, Soil, Productions, and Manufactures, as well as the Number of Hundreds, Cities, Boroughs, Market-towns, Parishes, Houses, and Inhabitants. By* JOHN LUFFMAN, *Geographer.* 12mo. pp. 52. Each Page containing a small circular Map, and about twelve Lines of Letter-press.

HAD this little assuming volume been executed with any degree of care, judgment or ability, it would have formed an useful epitome. It is particularly addressed to young persons; and were its execution equal to the author's promises and professions in the preface, we should gladly recommend it to public patronage. But the brief notices of each county are disgraced by vulgar and long exploded errors, which a very superficial knowledge of the subject would effectually have prevented.

"A knowledge of the geography of our own country," says the publisher, "must be obvious to every one. With a view to part of juvenile education, I have been induced to offer to the public the following sheets, elucidated by maps, that will not only make the public acquainted, not only with the form and situation, but with every *particular* relative to each county. Every exertion has been made to unite *elegance* with utility, and to render this work equally acceptable to the *traveller and student.*

"JOHN LUFFMAN."

That man must be insensible of shame, and careless of contempt, who could deliberately affix his name to such an assemblage of falsehood.

ART. XVIII. *Tegg and Castleman's new Picture of London for* 1803-4; *or, a Guide through this immense Metropolis, on a Plan hitherto unattempted: containing comprehensive Descriptions of the Public Edifices, Collections of Curiosities, and Places of Entertainment; interspersed with diverting, authentic, and valuable Anecdotes, many of which are historical and record Events which have happened several hundred Years ago. By* H. J. RATT. 18mo. pp. 250.

ART. XIX. *A View of London; or, the Stranger's Guide through the British Metropolis: containing an Account of its Curiosities, Amusements, Commerce, Public Buildings*

and every other Object worthy the Attention of the curious Visitor, as well as the Resident in the vast Capital. 18mo.

A Specious, tempting, catching title, is the principal object of study with a certain class of book-makers, among whom the publishers of the above books are particularly distinguished. Novelty generally excites imitation; and while the man of talent endeavours to excel his original, the plodding knave catches some of its leading traits, and imposes a surreptitious copy on the public for an improved original work. This is precisely the case with the works before us:—Mr. Phillips having published a Picture of London (see Annual Review, vol. I. page 479) which obtained an extensive circulation, the proprietors of the above works immediately had it abridged and mutilated, and foisted them upon the town as "*improved new Pictures of London.*"

ART. XX. *A new and accurate Description of all the direct and principal Cross-roads in England and Wales, and Part of the Roads of Scotland, with correct Routes of the Mail-Coaches, and a great Variety of new Admeasurements; also, a Table of the Heights of Mountains, and other Eminences, from the grand trigonometrical Survey of the Kingdom, under the Direction of Major Mudge; an Account of Noblemen's and Gentlemen's Seats, and other remarkable Objects near the Roads; a general Index of the Roads to the different Towns, denoting the Counties in which they are situated, their Market-days, and the Inns which supply Post-horses; an Index to the Country Seats; a List of the Rates of the Postage of Letters, &c. &c. &c. The Whole greatly augmented and improved by the Assistance of Francis Freeling, Esq. Secretary to the Post-office, and of the several Surveyors of the provincial Districts, under the Authority of the Post-master General. By Lieut. Colonel* PATERSON. 8vo. pp. 570.

THIS comprehensive title-page pretty fully explains the nature and contents of the work before us. It now claims the public patronage, under peculiar circumstances, having latterly been opposed by a rival production, whose proprietor has taken extraordinary pains to puff his own book into celebrity, and depreciate the authenticity and value of this. The history of which circumstance, and of Mr. Paterson's work, will be found in the following extract, from an introductory advertisement by Mr. Francis Newberry, the proprietor of this volume:

"In presenting to the public a new edition (being the *thirteenth*) of a book, which has attracted a general attention, from its utility, for more than thirty years; and which has been lately with-held, in consequence of a suit at law, it seems necessary to prefix a short history of this work, and of the late proceedings, for the information and satisfaction of those who have hitherto honoured it with their approbation and support.

"In the year 1771, Mr. Daniel Paterson, assistant quarter-master general of his majesty's forces, brought out the first edition of a book, which his official occupations had given him to prepare, under the title it now retains, of 'A new and accurate Description of the Roads of England and Wales, &c. &c.' It had gained so much repute, that several editions, of many thousands in number, had been sold before the year 1788, when the present proprietor became possessed of the copy right, by the death of a relation, who had originally purchased the work. Many more editions passed off; and the eleventh, (of 10,0 0 number,) which was printed in 1796, was increased, by the communication of friends, to nearly treble its original size. Soon after this period, Mr. Cary, who had been employed by the post-office to make new admeasurements of some of the principal roads, solely with the view to the regulation of the mail-coaches, exhibited a printed specimen of an intended book of a similar kind. This naturally came into the hands of the proprietor of Paterson's; who observing, that instead of a new scheme, it was a direct adoption of his own plan and design, immediately called on Mr. Cary, and remonstrated against such publication as an invasion of his right."

In spite of Mr. Newberry's remonstrances, Mr. Cary published his Travelling Directory in opposition to Paterson's, and entitled it "Cary's new Itinerary, or an accurate Delineation of the great Roads, both direct and cross, throughout England and Wales," &c. Mr. Newberry proceeds to state, that not only the scheme and design of Paterson's book had been seized upon, but the greatest part of its substance had been transplanted into this new Itinerary; "often in a manner so servile," says Mr. Newberry, "as not to disguise the plagiarisms by a change of words. It was manifestly a copy at the beginning, the

Digitized by Google

middle, and the end. In the preface, the plan of the routes, and in the indexes. The preface indeed, in some places, was borrowed verbatim, literatim, and punctuatim, with the same parentheses, and other passages, as distinguished either by Roman or by Italic types." This indeed is a broad charge of literary plagiarism, or *theft*, and such as we could scarcely have credited, had not Mr. Newberry produced ocular proof, in printing passages from the two prefaces. By an examination of the two works, it clearly appears that Mr. Cary's is composed principally from Paterson's, with a few new measurements, and some trifling additional matter; but the old work furnished the plan, routes, list of seats, cross-roads, &c. which were unreservedly copied. Under these aggravating circumstances, the proprietor of Paterson's book republished the work, with some additions, &c. avowedly extracted from Cary's. In consequence of this, Mr. Cary filed a bill in chancery, for an injunction to stop the publication of Paterson's, as a piracy from his own book. The result was given by Lord Loughborough, that the plaintiff should pay all costs to the proprietor of Paterson's book. After this decision, Mr. Cary brought an action in the court of king's bench, where he, rather singularly and unexpectedly, obtained a verdict in his favor, with one shilling damages. Since this event, both parties have republished their respective works, with considerable additions and improvements; though, by an attentive comparison, the advantages are greatly in favor of the work before us. This has been newly edited by Mr. Keith, who has bestowed extraordinary attention and diligence in correcting and augmenting the present edition. In an appendix, Mr. Keith has given several comparative passages from Mr. Cary and Mr. Paterson's books, proving the piracy; and also stating the great additions and improvements which the latter possesses over the former. He concludes his observations with the following passage, which shall also conclude our account of the work, and of the judicial and literary altercation that has arisen from it. Though we cannot suppress a remark, arising from an examination of the opposite decisions of the great law courts. The doubt and uncertainty which seems to involve the precise right of literary property, is a subject that strongly demands the serious consideration of the British legislature. In the present state of enlightened society, and when the book trade of this country is an object of such national importance, it is a shameful reproach that our laws on this subject are so vague and equivocal.

"The editor of Paterson's roads," observes Mr. Keith, "has been induced to draw up this appendix, merely in justification of his own conduct, and that of the proprietors of Paterson's roads, and not through any enmity to Mr. Cary; otherwise he would have considerably extended his remarks on Mr. Cary's second edition; but as all men are subject to error, it would be unjust to endeavour to deprive Mr. Cary of an advantage which the editor of Paterson's hopes to receive himself, viz. the indulgence of the public."

ART. XXI. *Cary's British Traveller; or, an abridged Edition of his new Itinerary: containing the Whole of the Roads, direct and cross, throughout England and Wales, and many of the principal Roads in Scotland, as described from his larger Work, from an actual Measurement made by Order of the Right Honourable the Post-Master General, for the Purposes, under the Direction and Inspection of Thomas Hasker, Esq. Surveyor and Superintendant of the Mail-Coaches. By* JOHN CARY, *Surveyor of the Roads to the General Post-Office. Calculated for the Use of those Travellers by whom the Gentlemen's Seats may not be considered essential; describing, at the Conclusion of each Rout, the Names of the Inns which supply Post-Horses and Carriages, as well as all Places which are Market-Borough Towns, and have Post-Offices for the receipt and delivery of Letters; with a List of the Packet-Boats, and their Time of sailing; accompanied with complete Indexes, both for the direct and Cross-Roads; and a Map of England and Wales, fully adapted to the Use of the Work.* 8vo. pp. 238. *With Preface and Indexes, not paged.*

OUR opinion of the work before us may be inferred from the preceding article: it is only necessary to state in addition, that Mr. Cary's road book is rendered cheaper than Mr. Newberry's by the omission of the lists of gentlemen's seats, and descriptive references to the towns in the line of the various roads.

Digitized by Google

ART. XXII. *Wallis's Pocket Itinerary; being a new and accurate Guide to all the principal direct and cross Roads throughout England, Wales, and Scotland: containing the Roads of England and Scotland, both direct and cross; exhibiting in a progressive Series every Town, City, or remarkable Village, intersected by such Road; as also the best Inns, the Counties in which the different Cities, &c. are situated, their Market Days and Distances from London; each Borough being distinguished by appropriate Figures, shewing the Number of Members returned to Parliament; topographical Notices of Villas, together with the Names of their Proprietors, and likewise of the chief natural and artificial Curiosities occurring in each Rout; an alphabetical Table of the most distinguished Cities, Towns, &c. in Great Britain; together with their Distances from London, the Counties in which they are situated, the Rates of Postage for Letters, and the stated Days on which their respective Fairs are holden. The whole presenting to the Traveller every Information (both elegant and useful) upon a more comprehensive and portable Plan than in any similar Work hitherto published. Illustrated with accurate Maps of the Roads of England and Scotland.* 18mo. pp. 460.

IT is a painful and tiresome part of reviewer's duty to examine and compare works like the above, where thousands of names and numbers are the only subjects to peruse. This task, however, we have performed, and are sorry to pronounce a severe sentence on this pocket itinerary. It is injudiciously arranged, written worse, and slovenly incorrect in the spelling.

To justify this sentence it may be deemed expedient for us to produce some evidence. This will be done from the *first* and *second* pages, for it will not be necessary to go farther in the work. The first rout is from London to Bath; and the reader is referred to page 117, for the road to Reading. This is very singular: as if the middle of the book was printed first. Among the errors in the second page, we adduce the following: Chaucer's grove *was never* Chaucer's seat. It is a modern house: at least modern in comparison to Donnington castle, where one of the Chaucers resided. Littlecot park is *not* Mrs. Popham's. Tottenham park is *four* miles from Marlborough, instead of *one*. Marlborough mount is *not* converted into the *Castle inn*, but is only an object in the garden of that inn. Bagdon lodge, instead of being three miles *west* of Marlborough, is three miles south-east of that town. There is no such place as Bockley house as described, nor has the duke of Marlborough any seat at Lockridge. Many similar instances of inaccuracy, inattention, &c. could be adduced, but we presume these will be sufficient to guard our readers against imposition.

ART. XXIII. *Kearsley's Traveller's entertaining Guide through Great Britain; or, a Description of the great Roads, and principal cross Roads; marking the Distances of Places to and from London, and from each other: to which are added a Description of the principal Great Roads of Ireland; different Routes to Paris; and a Table of the Times of High Water at New and Full Moon; with a concise topographical History of the Cities, Towns, Watering Places, Chief Villages, Antiquities, Seats, &c. &c. the Whole forming a General Tour through Great Britain.* The Second Edition, much enlarged and improved. 8vo. pp. 450.

RIVALSHIP in trade is generally considered as conducive to the public good; and the best mode of counteracting monopoly, is to excite and promote competition among persons who are most addicted to this species of commercial tyranny. The present subject has lately furnished an extraordinary contest for superiority, and as is usually the case on such occasions, whilst individuals suffer, the public are benefited.

Among the numerous advantages England enjoys above other countries, are, the ease, safety, and expedition derived by travellers. To good roads and comfortable accommodations may now be added useful and "entertaining" books, at once directing and satisfying the curiosity of the tourist. Previous to the year 1625 there was no book published on this subject; at that time John Norden compiled and printed a thin quarto volume, as a "guide for English travailers." John Ogilby improved and enlarged this in his "Itinerarium An-

Digitized by Google

glia: or Book of Roads," fo. 1675, which was succeeded by another folio volume, containing one hundred maps on copper-plates, 1698. These plates were improved, corrected, and reduced to a quarto size by John Senex, 2 vols. 1719. Next followed Ogilby's and Morgan's pocket book of the roads, which succeeded to an eleventh edition in 1752. Hollar engraved some maps of the roads in 1715, 1716, and 1718. After these followed a few other works evidently founded on their predecessors' plans and labours; and in 1771 Mr. Paterson published the first edition of a work which has as much excelled all the former in accuracy and utility, as in the extent of its sale. His is wholly composed of names of places, persons, and distances, without either history or description annexed to those places. To unite these was the object of Mr. Kearsley, or his editor, who states in the preface, that a work of this kind wanted a "compendium of topography; or an itinerary, comprehending as well what is amusing and instructive, as what is necessary and useful. The names of cities, towns, and principal seats, together with the respective distances from each, have been often presented to the public; but the design of the present compilation is to convey in a concise manner, some knowledge of the antient and present state of particular places through which the traveller passes, without entering into dry details or tedious digressions."

If a work, according to this plan, was executed with care, fidelity, and judgment, it would be valuable and interesting, and might be justly called an "entertaining guide;" but this can only be accomplished by a person or persons amply informed in the history, antiquities, and topography of the island. The work before us is certainly superior to the generality of similar productions: yet it contains many false notices and erroneous descriptions, and many trifling places are copiously described, whilst several towns and principal objects are only mentioned by name: yet as a travelling guide it is much inferior to Paterson's, but excels all its other competitors; and for its descriptive and topographical information, stands alone among the books of this class. Its principal contents are, "a topographical description of the great roads from London, with the return routes, to every part of Great Britain. A description of two hundred and ninety-six cross roads to and from the most considerable places. The principal direct roads in Ireland, measured to and from Dublin. Several routes to Paris. A table of the times of high water at new and full moon. And a copious index of places and seats."

ART. XXIV. *The Beauties of England and Wales: or Delineations topographical, historical, and descriptive of each County. Embellished with Engravings.* By JOHN BRITTON and E. W. BRAYLEY. Vol. IV. 8vo. pp. about 600. 20 Plates.

WE have already made some remarks on the general merits of this work, and have given a copious analysis of the third volume. (Ann. Rev. vol. I. p. 456.) Our notice, therefore, of the present, will be confined within scantier limits.

The counties described in the volume before us are Devonshire and Dorsetshire.

The general account of Devonshire is interesting, and upon the whole satisfactory; we should have been better pleased however, if the authors had been more attentive to uniformity of style, and instead of the long quotations from Mr. Marshall's Rural Economy, and Mr. Brice's History of Exeter, had taken the trouble to express, in their own language, the facts which they chose to borrow from these publications. The list of minerals, as far as it goes, is tolerably correct; but a few pages more devoted to this and the other departments of natural history would have been a very important addition to the value of the work. In page 41, is related a curious fact concerning the conversion of human flesh into adipocire, absurdly called in the quotation from Mr. Polwhele, *bacon*.

"An extraordinary discovery was lately made in a courtlage, on a rising ground longing to Chapel Farm, in the parish of Cruwys Morchard, near Tiverton. The house and estate are the property of Mr. Brock, a wealthy and respectable farmer, who resides there. It was formerly a monastery belonging to the Augustine friars; and, at the dissolution of the religious houses, fell into the hands of the Cruwys's, from whom, by various alienations, it came to the present possessor. In order to convert a very fine spring into a pond, to water the meadows below

Digitized by Google

and also for the use of the cattle, Mr. Brooks dismantled the courtlage, the linhays, sheds, &c. and began to sink an extensive pond. When the workmen had sunk about ten feet from the surface, the strata appearing in a natural state, they came to a spongy matter; it appeared to be a very thick cuticle of a brown colour. They soon found bits of bones, and lumps of solid fat, of the same colour. Astonished at this discovery, one of them ran to his master, who, upon viewing the place, sent for Mr. Sharland, a person of great expertence and practice as a farrier in the neighbourhood. It was then resolved cautiously to work round the carcase; and at last the complete body of a hog was found, reduced to the colour and substance of an Egyptian mummy: the flesh was six inches thick, and the hair upon the skin very long and elastic. As the workmen went on further, a considerable number of hogs, of various sizes, were found in different positions; in some cases, two or three together; in other places singly, at a short distance. Upon the bodies being exposed in contact with the open air, they did not macerate nor reduce to powder, as is usually the case with the animal economy after lying two or three centuries divested of air: perhaps this may be occasioned by the pickle of the bacon. This piggery continued to the depth of twelve feet, when the workmen stopped for the season, and the pond was filled with water. The oldest man in the parish had never heard that the ground had ever been broken; and, indeed, the several strata being entire, renders it impossible to conjecture from what causes this extraordinary phenomenon can be accounted for. The family of Cruwys have a complete journal of remarkable events which have happened in the parish for three centuries; and not the least mention is made of any disorder which could occasion such a number of swine to be buried in such a situation."

Exeter, the capital of the county, is treated of at considerable length; and a very minute account is given of the cathedral. The description of this venerable and elegant structure is obviously derived from personal study and inspection, and as it contains many particulars hitherto unnoticed, we shall select a part as a favourable specimen of the style and talents of the author.

"The cathedral consists of a nave, with two side aisles; two short transepts, formed by the towers already noticed; a chapter-house, a choir, with side aisles, and ten chapels, or oratories, with a room called the consistory court. The nave presents a magnificent and grand appearance on entering it from the western door; though much of its grandeur is destroyed by the seats and pews in this part of the fabric. It measures seventy-six feet in width within the walls, and 93 in length from the western door to the organ screen. The roof is supported by fourteen massive clustered columns, from which spring sixteen pointed arches; and above them are two tiers of small open arches. On the north side, over one of the arches, is a projecting kind of stone pew, called the minstrel's gallery, which is ornamented with some figures in alto-relievo, holding different musical instruments. The choir is of the same width as the nave, and measures 128 feet in length. St. Mary's Chapel is 61 feet in length, and between that and the altar screen is a space of 25 feet. The whole cathedral measures 408 feet from east to west, including the walls; the height of the roof, or vaulting, is 69 feet; and of the Norman towers, to the top of the battlements, 130 feet.

"The stones with which the walls of this noble edifice were principally built,' observes Bishop Lyttleton, 'came from Bere, near Cullyton, in Devon: the vaulting stone, of which the roof is composed, from Silverton, in the same county; the pavement of the choir from *Kam*, by sea to Toppesham: quere, if not Caen in Normandy? The vestry belonging to St. Mary's chapel, rebuilt in Henry the sixth's time, of Woneford stone; all which appears by the fabric rolls. The thin fine pillars which are seen in every part of the church, and idly supposed to be artificial composition, came from the Isle of Purbeck, near Corfe, in Dorset.'

"The towers, though very similar in shape and character, display some varieties in their ornaments; for the fascia, or intersecting arches, on the exterior of the north tower, are entirely different from any parts of those on the south; its upper story is more modern, and the turrets at the angles are later additions. The exterior appearance is massive grandeur: and though the architect has diversified the surface with shallow niches, numerous columns, and zig-zag mouldings to the arches, yet the beauty and lightness intended to be produced by these enrichments, are eclipsed by the style of architecture, which prevails in the windows and ornamental parts of the cathedral.

"The chapter-house is a large handsome room, of a parallelogramatic shape, and is said to have been built by Bishop Lacy in 1480; but Sir H. Englefield thinks that this prelate only built the upper part of it; as 'the lower part of this elegant room is so different from that of the superstructure, and so much resembling the architecture of the church, that it is highly probable that Bishop Quivil, who is recorded to have begun the cloisters, did also build, or at least begin, the chapter-house.'

"The *windows* of the cathedral are very large, and many of them contain fine specimens of painted glass. They are all of the same shape, yet the architect has ornamented each with a studied variety of tracery, by which plan there are not two windows exactly similar on either side of the building.

Digitized by Google

though the windows which are opposite to each other correspond in almost every instance. Though all the windows are adorned with tracery and painted glass, yet the two large ones to the east and the west are more pre-eminently so. The former was repaired and beautified from the bequest of Henry Blackburn, a canon, in 1790, when an agreement was made with Lyon, of Exeter, glazier, to furnish the new glass at 1s. 8d. per foot; and that during the time employed, he was to have 3s. 4d. per week for his own work, and 2s. for his family. This window is still in good preservation, and contains nineteen whole length figures of the patriarchs Abraham, Isaac, and Jacob, with some saints and other personages. Besides several painted figures, there are also various armorial bearings of the Plantagenet and Courtenay families, and different bishops of the see. The great west window, measuring 37 feet high by 27 feet broad, was fitted up with painted glass, &c. in 1766. The lower part is divided into nine compartments, seven of which are occupied with full length figures of as many saints, that of St. Peter being in the centre. Besides various crests, coronets, mottos, Mosaic work, and other ornaments, this elegant window is emblazoned with forty-six coats of arms, properly adorned with their fields, supporters, quarterings, &c. The upper portion consists of two circular mouldings, including several cinquefoils, quatrefoils, and trefoils, each containing a complete coat of arms; and the centre is occupied with the arms of the king of England.

"In the north tower is a curious clock, given by Bishop Courtenay to the cathedral. This is worthy of notice from the singularity of its ornaments, and the ingenuity of its mechanism. On the face or dial are two circles, marked with figures. The interior circle is marked from 1 to 30, whereby is shewn the age of the moon, which is represented by an artificial ball revolving within the circle, and which changes its aspect with the varying phases of that satellite. In the centre is a globe, representing the earth; the figures on the outer circle mark the hours of the day and night.

"On the south side of the altar are three *stone seats* or stalls, the canopies and ornaments of which are extremely rich and elegant. 'The recess, or back of each seat, forms a semi-octagon, and is adorned with enriched Mosaic work. At the top of the back of the central seat is the bust of a bishop, and in each of the lateral seats is that of a priest. The seats as they rise form the plinths for the columns, which are supported by couchant lions. The columns on each side of the centre niche are of gilt brass.' In St. Mary's chapel are three stone seats of similar character to those just mentioned.

"The most elegant ornament of the choir is the *bishop's throne*, the whole of which is composed of wood, carved in a very delicate and tasteful manner, and constructed to form a light pyramid of arches, columns, niches, pinnacles, crochets, and foliated ornaments. Its height is fifty-two feet. The *screen* or *rood-loft*, which separates the nave from the choir, is supported in front by four Purbeck-stone pillars, from which spring the groins of three flat arches; above these is a row of thirteen small arches, or niches, filled with some curious specimens of ancient paintings. These represent different events in sacred history. The screen supports a large and very grand organ, esteemed among the finest instruments of the kind in England. It was built in 1665 by John Loosemore, but has since received many improvements from Jordan and Micheau. This organ has one singularity, which we never observed in any other. Independent of the pipes inclosed in the case, it has some lateral pipes, attached to the side columns of the building. These are said to be the largest in this country, and belong to a stop called the double-diapazon, which is an octave below the common pitch. The stops so well cover each other, that neither the reed stops, nor the false ones (sesquialtera, &c.) are distinguished. This circumstance, perhaps, may account for that purity of tone for which the instrument is famed.

"The *great bell* of Exeter, given by Bishop Courtenay, is an object of much notoriety. It weighs 12,500 pounds, and is still suspended at the very top of the north tower. The weight of this bell has been strangely misrepresented by different persons who have written concerning the cathedral; but as Izacke was living when it was re-cast in 1675, his authority is to be preferred. In the south tower are eleven bells, ten of which are rung in peal.

"The following chapels have been erected at different periods within the cathedral, and have generally become the burial-places of the bishops who founded them. *St. Mary* at the east end, is appropriated to a library. *St. Mary Magdulen's* is to the north of it, and *St. Gabriel's* on the south. *St. Andrew* is used as a vestry by the canons and prebendaries, and St. James's a vestry for the petty vicars. In each of the two last chapels were two altars. The chapel of *St. John* is under the south tower, that of *St. Paul's* under the north tower. Bishop *Grandison's* chapel is between his screen and the wall of the choir front. At the south east corner of the choir is *Oldham's*, and at the opposite angle of the choir is *Spektes' Chapel*. Several of these little apartments are adorned with a great variety of sculptured ornaments.

"In concluding the account of this fabric we shall again avail ourselves of the sentiments of Sir H. Englefield, as being strictly coincident with our own. 'It is not easy to quit the subject of this celebrated cathedral,' he observes, 'without noticing the singular felicity which attended its erection. During the long period of fifty years, no tasteless or vain prelate interfered with

regular and elegant plan of the founder. Though the taste in architecture was continually changing, so scrupulous was the adherence to the original design, that the church seems rather to have been created at once in its perfect state, than have slowly grown to its consummate beauty. Even Grandison, who, if we may judge from his screen, had a taste florid in the extreme in architecture, chastised his ideas within the church, and felt the simple grace of Quivil's design."

The account of Torbay is singularly imperfect, being comprised in a dozen lines of quotation from Mr. Gilpin, descriptive merely of its picturesque situation. Plymouth, however, is treated of in a manner more worthy of its importance: its antient history and present state are well detailed, and the vast naval establishments at this port are mentioned with laudable minuteness. Mount Edgecumbe deserves and has obtained a spirited and characteristic description; and Mr. Smeaton's interesting narrative of the building of the Eddystone lighthouse, has furnished materials for twenty very entertaining pages.

The account of Tavistock is in some respects unsatisfactory: the only employment of the inhabitants which we find mentioned is, the manufacture of serges for the East India company, which we believe is at present almost wholly superseded by the working of the copper-mines on the Cornish side of the town. The institution for the study of Saxon literature, established at this place prior to the reformation, is a very extraordinary and honourable distinction; and any notices which the authors could have procured relative to this Saxon school, would have been received by the public with eagerness and gratitude.

The best specimen of topographical description in the whole volume is the account of Tiverton, a respectable manufacturing town, remarkable for the severe misfortunes against which it has had to struggle, and a striking instance of the amazing power of commerce founded upon manufacture, in repairing the heaviest losses. In 1591, when Tiverton was the principal seat of the woollen manufacture in Devonshire, the plague was introduced by a traveller, which, in a few months, destroyed or drove away a large proportion of the population. Scarcely had this scourge passed over, when, in 1598, four hundred houses, and several places of worship, were laid in ashes, by an accidental conflagration; some of the inhabitants, and a great number of horses, lost their lives on this occasion, and the value of property destroyed was estimated at one hundred and fifty thousand pounds. Tiverton, however, continued to be the staple of the woollen trade, and in the course of a few years, had not only recovered its losses, but was become one of the most thriving towns in the west of England, two thousand pounds in ready money being expended every market-day in the purchase of wool and yarn. Its rising prosperity was laid waste in 1612, by a second fire still more destructive than the former. With the exception of the church, the schools, alms-houses, and about thirty inferior houses, the rest of the town was wholly ruined; goods and utensils were destroyed to a vast amount, and all classes of inhabitants were reduced to the utmost distress. Even after this dreadful blow the spirit of industry, though checked, was not destroyed: in 1625 the resident population amounted to six thousand persons, and at the breaking out of the civil wars was increased to eight thousand. The stormy times that ensued, and the disastrous reigns of Charles II. and James II. checked the prosperity of Tiverton, which however recovered its lost ground under William III. and Anne. In 1731, a third fire broke out, which destroyed three hundred houses, and occasioned a clause in the act for rebuilding the town, prohibiting the use of thatched roofs. The supply of the German and Brabant markets again restored the prosperity of the place: but the rivalship of Norwich, more fatal than the plague or fire, palsied the industry of the inhabitants: the woollen trade of Yorkshire then brought on the general decline of the western manufactures, in which Tiverton has borne its share; the population, according to the late enumeration, amounting only to six thousand five hundred.

Many eminent men have been natives of Devonshire; of whom various notices and anecdotes are inserted in the descriptions of the places where they were born. Among the most distinguished are, the great naval commanders Drake, Sir Richard Granville, Sir J. Hawkins, and Sir W. Raleigh; the poets Gay and W. Browne; Granger, the biographer; and Sir Joshua Reynolds; Judge Bracton, Dr. Thomas Bod-

Digitized by Google

ley, the founder of the Bodleian library at Oxford: the Duke of Marlborough, Archbishop Wake, and Dr. Sydenham.

The latter part of the volume before us is occupied by an account of Dorsetshire; which, if not so interesting as that of Devonshire, is rather to be attributed to the deficiency of important or curious objects of research, than to any want of industry and attention in the editors. Dorchester, the capital of the county, furnishes an entertaining article; it is singular, however, that no notice is taken of the breweries in this place, the ale of Dorchester being its staple manufacture. We have also observed an inconsistency that calls for explanation or correction. In the general account of Dorsetshire, it is mentioned, that the number of sheep and lambs, kept within eight miles of Dorchester, amounts to one hundred and seventy thousand; but in the description of Dorchester, it is said, that the number of sheep within *six* miles of the town exceeds six hundred thousand. The antiquarian remains in its neighbourhood, especially the Roman amphitheatre called Maumbury, Poundbury camp, and Maiden castle, are extremely well described. A similar praise may be extended to Corfe castle, the residence of Queen Elfrida, rendered still more illustrious by its gallant defence in the civil wars, under the direction of Lady Bankes, wife of the lord chief justice, against the parliamentarians. A monument to the memory of Mr. Henry Hastings, at Horton, gives an opportunity to the authors of introducing an account of this singular character, supposed to have been written by Lord Shaftsbury, which we shall extract for the entertainment of our readers.

"In the year 1638 lived Mr. Hastings, by his quality, son, brother, and uncle, to the Earls of Huntingdon. He was, peradventure, an original in our age, or rather the copy of our ancient nobility, in hunting, not in warlike times. He was low, very strong, and very active, of a reddish flaxen hair; his clothes always green cloth, and never worth, when new, five pounds. His house was perfectly of the old fashion, in the midst of a large park, well stocked with deer; and near the house, rabbits for his kitchen; many fish-ponds, great store of wood and timber; a bowling-green in it, long but narrow, full of high ridges, it being never levelled since it was ploughed: they use round sand bowles; and it had a banquetting house like a stand, a large one built in a tree. He kept all manner of sport hounds, that ran buck, fox, hare, otter, and badger; and hawks, long and short winged. He had all sorts of nets for fish. He had a walk in the New Forest, and the manor of Christ Church; this last supplied him with red deer, sea and river fish; and, indeed, all his neighbour's grounds and royalties were free to him, who bestowed all his time on these sports, but what he borrowed to cares his neighbours' wives and daughters, there being not a woman in all his walks, of the degree of a yeoman's wife, or under, and under the age of forty, but it was her own fault if he was not intimately acquainted with her. This made him very popular; always speaking kindly to the husband, brother, or father, who was to boot very welcome to his house. Whenever he came there he found beef, pudding, and small beer, in great plenty; the house not so neatly kept as to shame him or his dirty shoes; the great hall strewed with marrow-bones, full of hawks, perches, hounds, spaniels and terriers; the upper side of the hall hung with fox-skins, of this or the last year's killing; here and there a polecat intermixed; game-keeper's and hunter's poles in great abundance. The parlour was a large green room, as properly furnished. On a great hearth, paved with brick, lay some terriers, and the choicest hounds and spaniels. Seldom but two of the great chairs had litters of cats in them, which were not to be disturbed, he having always three or four attending him at dinner; and a little whipstick, of fourteen inches long, lying by his trencher, that he might defend such meat as he had no mind to part with to them. The windows, which were very large, serve for places to lay his arrows, cross-bows, and stone-bows, and such like accoutrements; the corners of the room full of the best chosen hunting or hawking-poles; his oyster table at the lower end, which was of constant use, for he never failed to eat oysters all seasons both dinner and supper: the neighbouring town of Pool supplied him with them. The upper part of the room had two tables and a desk, on the one side of which was a chest Bible, and on the other side the Book of Martyrs: on the table were hawke's hoods, bells and such like; two or three old hats, with the crowns thrust in, so as to hold ten or a dozen eggs, which were of the pheasant kind; poultry: these he took much care of and himself. Tables, dice, cards, and bowls were not wanting. In the hole of the table were store of tobacco-pipes that had been used. On one side of this end of the room was the door of a closet wherein stood the strong beer and the wine, which never came from thence but in single glasses, that being the rule of the house exactly observed, and he never exceeded in drink, or permitted it in others. On the other side was the door of the old chapel, not used for devotion; the pulpit as the safest place, was never wanting of a cold chine of beef, venison pasty, gammon

Digitized by Google

bacon, or a great apple-pye with thick crust, extremely baked. His table cost him not much though it was good to eat at. His sports supplied all but beef or mutton, except Fridays, when he had the best of salt fish, as well as other fish he could get; and this was the day his neighbours of best quality visited him: He never wanted a London pudding, and always sung in eating it, 'with my pert eyes there in a" (my *part lies* there in a, it should be.) He drank a glass or two of wine at meals, very often put syrup of gillyflowers in his sack, and had always a tunglass, without feet, stood by him, holding a pint of small beer, which he often stirred with rosemary. He was well natured but soon angry, calling his servants bastards, and cuckoldy knaves, in one of which he often spoke truth to his own knowledge, and sometimes in both, though of the same man. He *lived to* be an hundred, and never lost his eyesight, but always wrote and read without spectacles, and got on horseback without help. Until past fourscore, he rode to the death of the stag as well as any."

The account of Shaftsbury, celebrated in popish times for its magnificent ecclesiastical institutions, particularly the shrine of St. Edward the Martyr, and notorious in modern days for the venality of its representation, is both interesting and well drawn up. Sherborne also furnishes a remarkably curious article, both on account of the architectural details, and the insight which it affords of the enormous depredations which the courtiers of Elizabeth were allowed to commit with impunity, on the property of the church. Among the monuments of Sherborne church is one to the memory of the son and daughter of Lord Digby, for whom Pope wrote the best of his epitaphs, beginning

"Go fair example of untainted youth," &c.

The island, or rather peninsula, of Portland, closes the volume: the account of its celebrated stone quarries is extracted without alteration from Mr. Smeaton's account of the Eddystone lighthouse; and an accurate description of the Chesil bank, a ridge of shingle seventeen miles in length, is given from Dr. Maton's tour.

We have derived, upon the whole, considerable pleasure from the perusal of this volume: too large a proportion, however, in our opinion, is occupied by antiquities, and too little notice has been bestowed on the proper topography and modern statistics of the counties. We would recommend also a greater degree of personal inspection, as essentially requisite for the permanent value of the work.

ART. XXV. *England Delineated: or, a Geographical Description of every County in England and Wales: with a concise Account of its most important Products, natural and artificial; for the Use of young Persons. With outline Maps of all the Counties.* Fifth Edition, considerably improved. 8vo. pp. 400.

THE original plan of Dr. Aikin, was to condense in a moderate compass the most important objects in the natural and civil geography of England and Wales; together with such accounts of the cultivation, trade, and manufactures of the country, as might render the work both interesting and instructive to young persons in general. As an elegant epitome of the present state of England in these particulars, the volume before us is as yet unrivalled. The preceding edition (the 4th) was enriched and corrected principally from the county reports published by the Board of Agriculture: in the present, the author has availed himself of the late enumeration of the inhabitants, and of some modern tours, to introduce various particulars which, without adding to the size, have enriched the work very materially. The plates of some of the maps begin to be worn, and we would recommend them to be re-engraved with corrections for the next edition.

ART. XXVI. *A Guide to all the Watering and Sea-Bathing Places; with a Description of the Lakes; and a Sketch of a Tour in Wales; and Itineraries. Illustrated with Maps and Views. By the Editor of the Picture of London.* 18mo. pp. 434.

IN the composition of this work, says the editor, "an *incredible* number of publications have been consulted, and in no instance has the last edition of the various local guides been neglected. The editor has been repeatedly induced to visit most of the places described, and made his observations on the spot;"

added to which, proof-sheets have been sent to the principal places, and submitted to the revision of intelligent friends. These advantages entitle the editor "to the confidence of the public;" and he is encouraged to hope that "his labours on the present occasion will be honoured with a degree of approbation equally flattering and extensive to that conferred on his universally read and approved books—The Picture of London, and Guide to Paris."

The title-page is the best written part of this volume, since it is addressed to every individual of the summer swarm, which migrates in hot weather from the metropolis, and disperses itself through the fashionable and romantic retreats of England and Wales. Is a family party going from the city to perform their ablutions at Margate or Ramsgate, where can they find a better "guide" to the ordinaries and lodging houses, the auctions and ass-races, and the many curious objects both of nature and art, than this compendious little manual, adorned with plates and illustrated with maps? Is an excursion to Derbyshire, or the Lakes, or a tour through Wales in contemplation? the guide is ready soliciting their attention, and, without any other assistance, will engage to conduct them to every place worth notice. The editor, however, with very little more trouble, might have comprehended both Scotland and Ireland, and thus have produced *The new, accurate,* IMPERIAL *Guide to* ALL *the Watering and Sea-bathing Places and* ALL *the picturesque and fashionable Resorts in the* BRITISH ISLANDS!

ART. XXVII. *The Juvenile Tourist; or, Excursions through various Parts of the Island of Great Britain; including the West of England, the Midland Counties, and the Whole of Kent. Illustrated with Maps, and interspersed with Anecdotes and poetical Extracts, for the Improvement of the rising Generation. In a Series of Letters to a Pupil. By* JOHN EVANS, *A. M.* 12mo. pp. 450.

MR. Evans informs us that he is "master of a limited number of pupils at Islington," and, in order to relieve the anxieties of a laborious profession, that he has been accustomed during the summer vacations to visit "some pleasant parts of this highly favoured island." The journal of his observations on these tours was first inserted in a series of numbers of the Monthly Visitor, which meeting with "*a flattering reception among his friends,*" induced him to re-arrange the whole with considerable alterations and improvements, and publish them in the present volume." In other words, Mr. Evans, not satisfied with pleasure, wished also to obtain profit from his excursions: he has accordingly, by the help of much quotation, contrived to manufacture a book which, we doubt not, is by this time totally and deservedly forgotten.

Digitized by Google

CHAPTER VI.

ANCIENT CLASSICS.

THE late year has not been distinguished in England by the publication of single edition of any ancient author, of critical note. To works of this nature ideed the times are unfavourable; *silent inter arma Musæ.* Yet notwithstanding s aspect of affairs, we have reason to hope that the present year will afford us me valuable acquisitions of this nature. The arrival of foreign editions has probly been suspended by the tumults of war, which have greatly impeded the direct ercourse with the continent. Mr. Forster's Anacreon is chiefly valuable as a ecimen of beautiful typography.

In the department of translation, the Dublin press has furnished the Apollonius odius of Mr. Preston, who is also known as an occasional contributor to the nsactions of the Royal Irish Academy. The merits and demerits of this work have endeavoured to distinguish in our review of it. An anonymous author been making experiments in a version of Horace, the reception of which from public, will not, we believe, be very flattering. Dr. Girdlestone has added ther name to the translators of Anacreon. We dare not, however, say, that he eclipsed the labours of his predecessors.

The literary treasures of this country, have been lately increased by the acsion of some important manuscripts, collected during a journey in Greece and adjoining islands by two adventurous travellers, members of the university of mbridge. Their success may perhaps encourage others to explore more carey, the mouldering repositories of learning, which are still scattered through e parts of those once happy regions. A fragment of a statue of Ceres, which merly attracted veneration from the initiated at Eleusis, and was even, in mon superstition, supposed to communicate a fructifying influence to the neighring fields, has been gratefully dedicated by them in the vestibule of the temple their Alma Mater, the public library at Cambridge. A short account of the idence of former travellers respecting the existence of this statue, of the hypoes which have been formed respecting it, and the means used in procuring its oval, has been published anonymously.

r. Faber has been engaged in a voyage, almost as adventurous as that of the , without sails, rudder, or compass, in quest of the helio-arkite mysteries, idst the darkness of ancient mythology. The result of his discoveries he has mmunicated to the public, which incredulous readers will, however, we fear, be ined to class with the "true history" of Lucian.

Digitized by Google

EDITIONS.

ART. I. *Anacreontis Odaria, ad Textus Barnesianæ fidem emendata accedunt variæ Lectiones, curâ* EDVARDI FORSTER, *A. M.* 8vo. pp. 130.

ANACREON is an author who has in several instances been selected by eminent printers, as a subject for their exhibition of the beauties of the typographic art; and the small size of the volume, and the sprightly gracefulness and popularity of the pieces of which it consists, render it very well adapted for this purpose. The readings of this edition do not differ, except in a very few instances, from those of Barnes; but it is an exquisite specimen of typographical skill. The letters are oblique, like the Italic form of the Latin letters. The only fault which we have to find is, that the circumflex accent approaches too nearly to a straight line, so as sometimes to be scarcely distinguishable from it without minute attention. This edition is correctly printed, though it is not what some pains should have been taken to render it, absolutely immaculate.

TRANSLATIONS.

ART. II. *The Argonautics of Apollonius Rhodius, translated into English Verse, with Notes critical, historical, and explanatory, and Dissertations, by* WILLIAM PRESTON, *Esq. M. R. I. A.* In Three Vols. 8vo.

APOLLONIUS, author of the Argonautics, was a writer of considerable merit in the Alexandrian school, which flourished in Egypt with great reputation under the dynasty of the Ptolemies. He is by some authors ranked among the seven poets of pre-eminent rank, who were considered as worthy to compose a constellation of genius under the name of the Pleiades. The particulars of his history, which have reached us, are scanty. The short Greek lives which are sometimes prefixed to his poem, inform us that he was by birth an Alexandrian; that he studied under the direction of the poet Callimachus, and at an early period of life published the first edition of the Argonautics, which was so unfavourably received, that unable to support the disgrace, which he considered as consequent upon his failure, he retreated to Rhodes; from his residence in which island he probably assumed or derived his surname. Having here employed himself in a careful revision of his work, he published it a second time; and in this amended form it experienced from the Rhodians a reception so favourable as to procure for its author the honours of the state. He is said to have afterwards returned to his native city; to have lived there in great reputation, and to have succeeded Eratosthenes in the charge of the Alexandrian library. We are told, that at one period of his life he was engaged in a bitter contest with Callimachus his master. This enmity was, however, probably either extinguished during the lives of the two poets, or the death of Callimachus effaced from the mind of his surviving rival, the traces of his resentment, if, according to some of the anonymous biographers, the ashes of the disciple were deposited in the same tomb with those of his master.

Apollonius appears to have been a man of great learning. Several of his works are mentioned by the ancients, which only the poem of the Argonautics has descended to the present time. An epigram of two lines is extant, which is attributed to this author, and appears to have been written during his contest with Callimachus. A few verses of the original edition of the Argonautics are scattered among the Greek scholia.

These are nearly all the circumstances respecting the life of the poet, of which we are in possession; and the elementary essays, which are annexed to the present work, are extended by the aid of reflections, the introduction of contemporary anecdote, the description of the circumstances and manners of the age, and other similar topics, into a narrative of almost thirty closely printed pages.

The poem of the Argonautics, though the judgments of Quintilian and Longinus, does not appear to have been very popular with the ancients; and its superior merit and great facility to Homer have caused him to be comparatively neglected by modern critics.

Digitized by Google

eaders. Nor do the two translations f this work into our own language, hich have preceded the present, appear, om whatever cause, to have attracted uch attention from the public. Quin- an characterizes it as a work not con- ptible, written in a kind of equal diocrity; and Longinus quotes our hor as an instance of those writers, o escape great faults by not aiming great excellencies. Yet it may be y questioned, whether a careful usal of his poem will not incline and horize a candid reader to form a re favourable estimate of its merits. s has at least been the opinion of st of those modern critics, who have ntioned the subject, and may be con- ered as most competent to pronounce judgment respecting it. Nor are the equent, and sometimes close imitations ich occur in Virgil, to be considered slight testimonies of praise from an thority which all will acknowledge to beyond exception.

learned commentator on Longinus, extenuation of the sentence of that ic, remarks in the first place in fa- r of Apollonius, that he adheres ely to his subject; that he accurately ows the order of place and time as blished by tradition; that the epi- es grew out of the work, and scarce- wear the appearance of digression; that the events both of a common marvellous nature, are related with bability, if we refer them to the sen- ents and belief of the age. Thus he racterizes the fable of the poem; this however, a praise which scarcely s above the faultless mediocrity to ch the ancient critics would reduce and it must be acknowledged that fable is in a great degree destitute some of the higher excellencies of an c story. It is deficient in unity. relates a series of adventures in chro- logical order, many of which have no ater connection with each other than successive assaults, victories, and de- s, of the Greeks in the siege of Troy. this he has chosen to imitate the prac- of the cyclic writers, rather than of the great parent of epic song. lf the poem is spent before the heroes ehor in the Phasis. In the construc- n of his fable the poet has certainly dis- yed no art, though it is not, perhaps, itself, of a nature sufficiently ample admit a better method of exhibition.

The characters display some degree of discrimination, though the poet has by no means reached consummate excellence in this department of his art. Jason and Medea are necessarily the two most prominent figures. Jason is always brave and prudent, and may, perhaps, be placed on a level with Æneas. The reader cannot, however, forgive the base treachery by which the murder of Absyrtus is accomplished. Medea, though the delineation of her character is very far from being destitute of skill, will appear but a feeble archetype of Dido, drawn by the Roman poet with a force and beauty which transcend our praise. The sentiments which the poet attributes, are generally assigned with propriety, and appear to be supplied by a cultivated and well-furnished mind.

The diction of the narrative is often wrought with great elegance, sweetness, and precision, though the style is frequently obscure, in comparison with that of Homer, in consequence of its more artificial structure, and sometimes by long and involved clauses, the employment of unusual words, and the allusions which are perpetually recurring to the mythological and antiquarian learning of his age. Though Apollonius does not frequently transport his reader, by any powerful or exalted feelings, yet instances indubitably occur of passages both sublime and pathetic, to a high degree of excellence.

The most characteristic parts of the Alexandrian bard, are, perhaps, the descriptions and the similitudes. The descriptions are usually laboured with great care and accuracy, if not minuteness, and frequently with great success. The comparisons are often possessed of a great degree of originality and beauty, and are, in some instances, transplanted by Virgil. Apollonius abounds more than most poets in circumstances drawn from common life, which are frequently applied with great felicity. A striking example of the difference of the manners of the Greek and Roman poets, may be supplied by the well-known descriptions of night, in the third book of Apollonius, and the fourth of Virgil; the latter of which passages is confessedly an imitation of the former. The lines of Virgil are familiar to most readers; we however transcribe them for the sake of comparison, without the trouble of reference.

Digitized by Google

"Nox erat, et placidum carpebant fessa soporem
Corpora per terras, silvæque et sæva quierant
Aequora, quum medio volvuntur sidera lapsu,
Quum tacet omnis ager; pecudes, pictæque volucres,
Quæque tenent lacus liquidos, quæque aspera dumis
Rura tenent, somno positæ sub nocte silenti
Lenibant curas, et corda oblita laborum.
At non infelix animi Phœnissa, &c."
Æn. iv. 522.

The picture of Virgil is taken from the great features of nature, into which man is not admitted with any distinction from other objects of the scene, and is drawn with the greatest majesty and grace; that of Apollonius is principally derived from subjects of human concern and employment, from cities and men in their various occupations on sea and land, and if it yield in dignity, is perhaps more touching to the mind than that of his imitator. The following is a literal translation; "Night then brought darkness on the earth, the sailors on the sea were looking from their ships on the Bear, and the constellation of Orion; the traveller and the watchman of the gates now longed for sleep; and deep lethargic slumbers encompassed the mother of dead children, nor was the barking of dogs or the busy hum heard within the city, but silence held the blackened shades: yet did not sweet sleep take possession of Medea." There is perhaps this impropriety in the first circumstance introduced by Apollonius, that it does not present an image of absolute repose; the rest of the creation, though tranquil, is not in this picture wholly dead. Without deciding between their merits, it may be said that few passages in any writers are more striking than these kindred and rival descriptions, on a subject most favourably calculated for poetical display.

From Apollonius we pass to his translator, and shall introduce him as giving to his reader the following account of his undertaking.

"I shall not presume to say how the English translators of Apollonius, who have gone before me, have succeeded in their task. It would ill become me, to speak in degrading terms of those gentlemen, whose taste led them to precede me, in the meritorious province of endeavouring to do justice to this delightful, and too much neglected, writer. Their performances are before the public; and it is the privilege of the public, to appreciate the labours of writers. It may appear to many, that a new translation of an author, who has been twice translated, might well be spared—yet, in one point of view, I hope my attempt will appear allowable, free from the imputation of vanity. Whatever may be the demerits of the present translation; I flatter myself they will find indulgence and pardon from the candid reader, for the sake of the concomitants, of which this version is introductory. He will find large extracts from the Greek scholia, which deserve to be well known to the classical reader—a variety of hints, critical, historical and explanatory, some few of them extracted from those of Fawkes, and the Oxford editor, but, for the most part, wholly new, which some may not be altogether unacceptable, even to those who read Apollonius in the original text.—And, lastly, certain remarks which if they shall succeed in making the reader an admirer of this delightful poet, they will have contributed to an act of justice.

"It is but fair to apprise the reader, that in respect to the translation, which I now, with much diffidence, offer to his hand; that he will find it, in general, rather paraphrastic than strict; in many places, more redundant than I could wish. I must own, that I have endeavoured to follow rather the spirit than the letter of the original. But, I hope, I have not been unfaithful to the general sense, to the substance of what the Greek text meant to say. Shall I own it?—I sometimes had the vanity of aiming at another sort of translation—a kind of portrait of translation:—a version, not of the matter merely, but of the style and manner of my original. How I may have succeeded in this—I fear—I feel—but the reader, who is capable of comparing the version with the text, must judge for himself.—And, in judging, the best test is, if the version reads, in English, like an original work."

From the perusal of his work we judge Mr. Preston to be a liberal scholar, much attached to literature, and especially to poetical studies, and extensively acquainted with writers of this description, in his own tongue, as well as in other languages, both ancient and modern. In the Greek he appears to be a sufficient master to have apprehended in general, though not uniformly, the meaning of his author. His translation is in many places by much too paraphrastic and diffuse, in many others sufficiently close and faithful, while it still possesses a due degree of ease and freedom. We regard it as in general of unequal execution; its tenor is frequently fluent and unconstrained, there are sometimes passages which aspire to excellence; while, on the other hand, instances too frequently occur

Digitized by Google

parent negligence, impropriety, and
se taste. We do not consider Mr.
reston as possessed of a poetical style,
fficiently individual, uniform, and clas-
kal; we sometimes trace the imitation
f one author, and sometimes of another;
ifferent ages are intermixed; modern
finements and sentiments are blended
ith ancient simplicity and severity.
Vhile we feel ourselves compelled to
ake these deductions (which we shall
roceed to exemplify) from the praise of
he present work, we are at the same time
ually ready, in many parts, to con-
de to it a considerable degree of merit.
We have said that Mr. Preston does
t appear to us to have always appre-
nded with accuracy the meaning of
s author. Some instances, from others
hich we have noted, we shall now spe-
fy in the order in which they occur.

. 5.) "For Æson's sister was his youthful
bride."

The original says, that the sister of
idus was the bride of Æson.
n the same page, the marvellous story
Ceneus, as related by Apollonius,
hat the Centaurs, finding him impe-
able to their wounds, oppressed him
a load of trees, and beat him down,
rwise unhurt, into the earth. The
cle disappears from Mr. Preston's
on of the passage.

e baffled foes resort to missive war,
fill the groaning air with weights from
far,
darted pine, and oak's enormous trunk,
whelm'd, but unsubdued, the warrior
sunk."

.) "O wretched man, how transient is
thy breath,
ably doom'd to pain and death!
hia's burning sands their tombs remain,
me far distant from their native plain,
e gay scenes of Phœbus' dawning light,
the pale precincts of approaching
night."

e original of this passage is in part
re, and probably corrupt, but what
onius says is not a scene far distant
their native plain, but a scene far
t from Colchos, as the west from
st; Lybia and Colchos are men-
d as the opposite boundaries of the
ntic course.

page 25, a remarkable omission
. Forty-seven verses of the ori-
, including the song of Orpheus,

are here untranslated, of which no explanation, so far as we have observed, is given, nor any other indication, than that the numeration of the verses proceeds at once from 758, to 829.

(P. 61.) "The men of Trachin still the custom hold."

Nothing is said in the original respecting any custom of the Trachinians, inhabitants of Greece, but of the Cians, inhabitants of Asia, who still, says the poet, prolong the search for Hylas, and retain their concern for Trachin, where the hostages given by their ancestors to Hercules were deposited.

(P. 64.) "As at the ship he question'd their descent,
Their place of birth, and whither they were bent."

Apollonius (speaking of Amycus) says that he asked none of these questions, as indeed appears from Mr. Preston's succeeding translation of his speech. The order of the original passage, which is rather involved, is the following, υπερβασιηοιν ατισσειν ερεσθαι μιν χρειω ναυτιλιης, οι τ' εισιν; the translation, "he haughtily despised to ask them the occasion of their voyage, and who they were."

(P. 88, 89.) The passage of Argo through the Symplegades affords a good instance of the descriptive powers of Apollonius. It does not however appear to have been throughout exactly apprehended by Mr. Preston. The following passage is certainly misconceived, and a sense given to the words which they will by no means bear.

"Far as a youthful crew, with labouring oars,
Speed, at a stroke, the vessel from the shores,
That distance twice their bark the Minyæ send."

The literal translation is as follows: "as much as the vessel yielded to the impulse of the rowers, twice so much it was carried back; i. e. by the force of the refluent wave." The interpretation which Mr. Preston gives, is indeed given by one of the Greek scholiasts, but cannot be extracted from the words of the original; and another of the commentators, or the same commentator, judging better, immediately afterwards supplies the true interpretation. The reading of the common editions in this

Digitized by Google

passage is emended by Brunck from a manuscript.

(P. 126.) "In prospect wide the vast of ocean lies,
And seems to mingle with surrounding skies."

This translation must have been given from a hasty and imperfect inspection of the original; the meaning is, that the ocean was displayed in wide prospect to the god, as he moved through the long tract of air.

(P. 164.) The meaning of Medea, in her speech to Jason, is considerably misapprehended.

"But, when Iolcus' tow'rs rejoice thy sight;
Remember me. Be some few sighs consign'd
To the poor victim, that remains behind.
For me; no pow'r shall tear thee from my soul,
Nor mother's voice, nor father's stern controul.
May fame the tidings of thy welfare bring.
Some bird propitious waft them on his wing.
To bear me, might the favouring breezes rise,
And o'er the seas transport, and through the skies!
While round thee all the sports and pleasures flow,
That affluence, ease, and kindred can bestow;
Before thee might I stand a sudden guest,
And say—through me these raptures fill thy breast?—
Oh might I soon be plac'd, and long remain,
A favour'd inmate, with thy household train."

The purport of the words of Apollonius is this, "when you shall have come to Iolcos think on me as I also will think on you, though against the will of my parents; but should you forget me, may some voice, or some informing bird, come to me from far, or may the rapid winds bear me hence over the sea to Iolcos, that urging irresistible accusation in your presence, I may remind you that you were saved by my counsel; then might I stand an unexpected guest in your palace!"

(P. 193.) The island Peuce, formed by the mouths of the Danube, is in the translation, though not in the original, placed in the Ionian, or in the geography of Apollonius, the Adriatic sea. Some other considerable errors occur in this part of the translation, which we will not stay to enumerate.

This catalogue of errata might have been easily increased, but perhaps the instances which we have adduced are already more than sufficient. At the same time difficult passages are so often well translated by Mr. Preston, that we are surprised when those which are easy are mis-translated, and in fact, in some of the instances which we have just produced, we trace negligence rather than ignorance.

In the remainder of our remarks we must be more sparing of examples.

The following passage is scarcely intelligible to the English reader.

"———————— Forbear to glide
A bird ill omen'd, as we seek the tide." I. 49

The word *ορνις*, in its primary sense a bird, evidently means in this passage by a secondary signification, nothing more than an omen.

(P. 199.) "Which heavenly charities for Bacchus wove."

In the place of charities should be substituted a proper name, Charites, or the Graces.

(P. 133.) The two last lines of the following passage are, to say no more, very obscure. Similar instances might be added.

"If generous thoughts the precious field may yield,
No force they meditate, no listed field.
Supreme in all things shall thy pleasure stand,
And ample gifts for the possession pay."

Of diffuseness, from many others, I select one example, occurring in the same page. The words, "he rendered offering to father Neptune and the other gods but neglected Pelasgian Juno," are thus paraphrased.

"The hallow'd banquet was to Neptune given,
And all the immortal habitants of heaven
Save one. With bold contempt the wife of Jove,
Selected seem'd, the irreverent slight to prove
To Juno, goddess of Pelasgic ground,
Nor vows are paid, nor pealing hymns resound."

Additions to the sense are sometimes unjustifiably inserted.

(P. 93.) "Best off'ring now, an unpolluted mind."

Of this sentiment not a vestige, either in direct expressions, or by implication, exists in Apollonius.

In the following page the poet is presented with a new machinery.

Digitized by Google

"The straining timbers with the whirlwind groan'd,
And through the shrouds the stormy dæmons moan'd."

(P. 70.) The style of classical and Grecian purity and simplicity is violated by an imitation of a very modern school of poetry.

"To the sweet lyre the silent shores rejoice:
The list'ning breezes *fold the gauzy wing*,
While thee, Laconian son of Jove, they sing."

Words which are unnecessary, and scarcely classical, are sometimes found. The translator seems much attached to words of termination like the following: weapy, steepy, sweepy, shrilly, paly, hasty: some of these words may indeed be vindicated by obsolete authority, but few of them are needed.

Expressions feeble, mean, ludicrous, or affected, sometimes occur.

(P. 122.) "Then with soft smiles that search the *heart of heart*."

The author is so much pleased with this expression, that it occurs again in page 166.

To search the secret of the heart of heart."

The following is the periphrasis of watchers:

Like those that fell stout oxen to the ground."

(P. 4.) The property of feeding is given to thirst.

Whose tuneful soul the thirst of glory fed."

In a work published in the metropolis of Ireland, it is unfortunate that such an expression as the following should occur.

"First Castor slew the slain." (P. 68.)

These are no *verba ardentia*, like the same expression in Dryden's ode, but a direct and unaccountable blunder.

In the preceding quotations we have given specimens of nearly all the classes of Mr. Preston's faults: it remains to say a few words respecting the merit of the version, and to furnish some longer and more pleasing extracts.

Mr. Preston has himself made it the test of the excellence of a version, if it read like an original work. This merit has in a considerable degree attained. The style is in general easy and fluent, and many passages may be selected entitled to the praise of all the qualities desirable in a version. As a whole, after making deduction for numerous faults, it may still be read with pleasure, and the author has done enough to convince us, that with more care he could have done much better.

We shall now add a few extracts without any further remarks. The following is the translation of the night-piece in the third book.

"Now, night o'er earth her ample veil display'd;
And sailors, from the deep, the stars survey'd,
Orion, and the greater bear; that guide
The nightly path of vessels, through the tide.
Sleep on the weary trav'lers' senses crept.
Ev'n in the tow'r the careful warder slept.
Subdued by rest the mother ceas'd to mourn
Her darling infants, clos'd within their urn.
The busy hum of crouded streets was still;
And still the watch-dog's larum loud and shrill.
The queen of darkness trod her awful round;
Her ears untroubled, by a vagrant sound.—
Medea's couch refus'd the soft controul;
For love and Jason agoniz'd her soul.—

* * * *

"The youth pursuing, with intrepid breast,
And footsteps firm, the path of danger prest.
With hand unsparing, onward as he past,
O'er the plough'd land the dragon's teeth he cast;
And oft he turn'd—oft anxious ey'd the soil;
Lest giant harvest should prevent his toil,
While pressing onward, o'er the stubborn plain,
The brazen footed bulls their toil sustain.—
When three full portions of the time were spent,
From dawn of morning to the sun's descent;
And gladsome now their weary task to leave,
The workmen hail the sweet approach of eve;
Th' unwearied ploughman triumph'd in his toil,
O'er all the large allotted space of soil.—
Four acres lay upturn'd, the share beneath,
All fully saturate with dragon's teeth—
The fiery monsters from the yoke he freed;
And drove them terrified along the mead.
He gaz'd around.—The furrows still remain
A blank, unpeopled by the giant train.—
The ship he sought, and join'd the gallant crew;
Then in his helm the cooling beverage drew.
Gladly the youth indulg'd in transient rest;
With words of hope his comrades cheer'd his breast.
His heart expanded, with increasing might,
Like the fierce boar impatient for the fight,
Who whets his tusks, and musters all his wrath,
And foaming waits the hunter in his path."

Digitized by Google

" But now the land its horrid harvest brings.
A giant arm'd from every furrow springs:
And helms, and shields, and lances, all around,
Like bearded corn, rose bristling o'er the ground,
The sacred space of Mars, the scourge of man.—
To Heaven's high vaults the gleaming splendours ran.
When wintry storms, surcharg'd with vapours, flow,
And heap along the ground the drifted snow,
The clouds disperse, and thro' the gloom of night,
The starry train emerge, in dazzling light;
Thus, sudden brightness shot along the land.
Admonish'd by the virgin's wise command,
A circling stone, of mighty weight and size,
A disk for dreadful Mars the youth espies;
Scarce could four men th' enormous mass sustain.
With ease the hero rais'd it from the plain;
Then, rushing forward, with a sudden bound,
Aloft in air he hurl'd it, round and round.
Distant it fell amid th' embattled field.
The youth collected shrunk behind his shield,
Yet with intrepid heart.—The Colchians roar,
Like billows, when they lash the rocky shore.—
With mute and blank amaze their king beheld,
What force stupendous the huge disk impell'd.—
In combat loud, as barking dogs engage,
Those earth-born brothers round that discus rage,
With hideous din; and by each other's hand,
Pierc'd thro' with spears, they sunk, along the land.
Like oaks, uprooted by the whirlwind's sway,
Or mountain pines o'erturn'd in ranks, they lay.
As shoots a star portentous to mankind,
And falling draws a train of light behind;
So bright, at once, and terrible to view,
The youthful warrior on the giants flew.
The naked falchion lighten'd in his hand;
And wounds promiscuous fell'd the rising band.
Some, half ascended into life he found;
Some to the breast yet struggling in the ground;
Some newly freed stood upright on the soil.
Some, forward rush'd to claim the martial toil.—
As when a land becomes the seat of war,
The farmer marks the foe's approach from far;
And lest the spoilers should possess the grain,
Anticipates the harvest of the plain;
The curving sickle newly edg'd he bears,
And o'er the furrows fall th' unripen'd ears;
He bears the corn, with fearful haste, away,
Ere yet its tinge bespeaks the solar ray;
Dire harvest, Jason reap'd that earth-born brood;
And all th' o'erflowing furrows boil'd with blood.
Swell'd by continual rains, as torrents spread,
Despise their banks, and inundate the mead.
In various postures they resign'd their breath,
And grim and diverse were the forms of death.—
Some bit the empurpled earth, and prostrate lay;
Some backward fell, and breath'd their souls away;
Some lean'd half-rais'd, and panted to the wind;
Some sidelong writh'd, in agonies reclin'd;
Then, sunk, extended in eternal sleep;
Like mighty whales, that slumber o'er the deep.—
Entangled some, fast rooted in the ground,
With head inclining droop'd beneath the wound;
High as erewhile to heav'n they rear'd the crest,
So low they sunk, with damps of death oppress;
Thus youthful plants, surcharg'd with storm and rain,
Hang their moist heads, and languish to the plain,
Bent from the roots; the gardener, in despair,
Surveys the prostrate offspring of his care:
And weeps his toils defrauded of their scope
The pride of autumn lost, Pomona's vish'd hope.—
Such grief and rage the monarch's bosom knew,
As o'er th' expiring train he cast his view.
He sought the city, with the Colchian throng,
Resolving vengeance, as he mov'd along.—
The second conflict with the day was clos
The sun declin'd, and all the train repos

The second volume of this work co
sists of notes and observations on t
poem, in part extracted from the for
commentators, and the Greek schol
and in part supplied from the aut
personal reading and judgment.
third volume comprises translat
from the bibliotheca of Apollod
and the Argonautics, which bear
name of Orpheus, with the follo
essays, the first on the life of Apoll
Rhodius, the second on the Argon
expedition, the third, on the manne
the heroic ages, considered with
ference to poetry, the fourth, on the
tical character of Apollonius Rho
the fifth, Apollonius Rhodius and
gil compared; the sixth, on the geo

Digitized by Google

play of Apollonius Rhodius, the seventh, on the Hesperides and their gardens.

On these subsidiary parts of the work we shall not offer many remarks. Most readers will perhaps be inclined to consider two volumes of illustrations as too many for one volume of poetry. They however display a very considerable extent of elegant and useful reading. The style of Mr. Preston's criticism we think liable to great objection. The judicious and useful observations which it contains, and such observations are by no means wanting, are almost hidden under a cloud of declamation. Take, as a specimen, the third paragraph, which is a kind of table of contents to the fourth essay.

"When we come to consider the poem of Apollonius Rhodius, we may trace the following excellencies—a knowledge of the human heart, and a display of the feelings—powers of exhibiting the impassioned, the tender, and pathetic—a certain retired and chaste majesty, not unaccompanied with a genius for producing the great and terrible—an elaborate and romantic invention, such as bears more traces of poetical device, and approaches nearer to the fictions of romance, of modern times, than most of the compositions of antiquity—a spirit of elegance and refinement, in sentiment and manner, something more *recherché*, and removed, from common apprehension, at the same time, that they are recognised to be perfectly conformable to nature—a graphical distinctness and accuracy of description—a precision in presenting both spiritual and material nature—argumentative and declamatory powers of a chastised and musical ear, producing an uncommon sweetness and pomp of numbers—a curious felicity of expression; and elegance of diction—descriptive powers—the appositeness and beauty of his similitudes."

In a metrical disquisition (iii. 241.) Mr. Preston observes, "that in a verse composed wholly of monosyllables there can be no cæsura, and consequently that such a verse can scarcely be admitted in correct composition." This we conceive to be so far from self-evident, that it is not even the fact. A cæsura is nothing more than a pause accommodated to the nature of the verse, and a pause may certainly succeed a monosyllable, as in the following verse of Ausonius.

"Perdere si quis in his dignabitur otia musis."

Dryden is quoted as remarking that a line of monosyllables is always harsh. Dryden's observation is not, we believe, made universally, but generally. He himself quotes two exceptions (to which many others might be added) one from Creech, and one from his own translation of Virgil.

"Nor could the world have borne so fierce a flame.
Arms and the man I sing, who forc'd by fate."—

The true reason why a line composed of monosyllables is frequently harsh, is to be found in the number of consonants which such words usually contain.

Art. III. *The Odes of Anacreon, translated from the Greek into English Verse. By* THOMAS GIRDLESTONE, *M. D.* 8vo. pp. 104.

LAHARPE, in a passage quoted in preface of the work before us, ex-as, "that we shall never see Ana-translated." Dr. Girdlestone ap-s to be a man of reading, who laud-employs many of those hours, which ties of his profession leave vacant, e gratification of a literary turn. re not, however, able to flatter him, his present undertaking he has ded more happily than his prede-. His versions are deficient in se and liveliness which characte-e original. Uncouth inversions of ge sometimes occur; and a forced natural accentuation is sometimes ry to reduce the verses to their r cadence. The article is occa-sionally omitted with injurious effect, as in the following instances:

"You to pos of honour wing,"—page 43.
"As he sword of Hector wav'd,"—page 51.

We insert the fifteenth ode as a specimen of the work:

"Far from Gyges' cares I fly
What for Crœsus' wealth care I?
Gold in me no contests breeds,
Me no king with envy feeds.
Odours sweet around me strew,
With perfumes my beard bedew.
Round my head fresh roses twine,
These these cares are cares of mine.
Pleasure flies on this day's wings,
Who knows what to-morrow brings?

Digitized by Google

While the days serenely glide,
Sport the dice, throw cares aside;
Let's enjoy with Bacchus these,
And the flying moments seize;
Least disease shou'd haste and cry,
'Thou must these libations fly!'

In judging of versification, Dr. Girdlestone must certainly be in the habit of employing his eye more than his ear. He asks, where is the ear which, without the assistance of the eye, would detect the open vowels in that line of Pope's essay—

"Though oft the ear the open vowels tire."

We presume to say, that there are very few ears accustomed to the perception of poetical melody, which would not, in similar instances, detect them, and be offended by them; though we mean not to say, that every instance of hiatus in English verse is absolutely productive of unpleasing effect. In the lines which are immediately afterwards produced, as affording specimens of open vowels without offence, the fact is, that very few such specimens occur. Those which Dr. Girdlestone considers as such, are commonly produced by the final and mute *e*, in one word, followed by a vowel at the beginning of the next. In words thus terminating, the final vowel, by one of those anomalies which deform our language, has no other power than that of prolonging the preceding vowel, or modifying its sound; and such words, as to all purposes of speech, are to be considered as closing with a consonant.

ART. IV. *The Lyricks of Horace; comprising his Odes, Epodes, and secular Ode, in English Verse, with the Latin Text revised and subjoined.* 8vo. 2 vols.

WHAT service this translator can imagine that he has conferred upon the cause of literature, we find it difficult to conjecture. To have rendered Horace into such lines as occur in many of these versions, is an act of treason against the Muses, which the writer will not expiate, till, like Milton, guilty in one instance of a similar crime, he shall have produced a "Paradise Lost." What literal prose translation would not be preferable to the following attempt at poetry?

"By all the gods, pray tell,
Why Sybaris with love you to his ruin haste!
Why, Lydia, does he shun
The Sunny Field*, to dust and heat habituated?
Why soldier-like not ride
Among his compeers, or the mouths of Gallic steeds
Break in with bitted reins?
Why does he dread to feel the yellow Tiber? why
Like viper's blood avoid
Cautious the wrestler's oil? Nor livid are his arms
With weapons borne; who, fam'd,
The discus oft, the spear beyond its bound oft threw.
Why doth he lie conceal'd,
As sea-born Thetis' son was said to do, ere Troy's
Lamented fun'rals; lest
Man's garb should force him to the fight, and Lycian bands?"

This is one of nineteen odes, corresponding to as many different species of Horatian metre, which the translator informs us that he has executed in blank verse, of the same measure as the Latin, as nearly as the English language would allow, for the purpose, we suppose, of affording to his readers, who are ignorant of the originals, some knowledge of the beauty of their versification. We must, however, in justice say, that these are usually the worst specimens of the translator's skill; and for the purpose of impartiality, we insert one of rather better note:

"Wherefore does the bard this day
To consecrated Phœbus pray?
What does he ask, while at his shrine
He pours profuse his early wine?
Not the harvests to obtain,
Which load Sardinia's fertile plain;
Not the gladsome flocks, which feed
On hot Calabria's sunny mead;
Nor gold, nor Indian ivory;
Nor yet those rural scenes which lie
Near where the peaceful Lyris strays,
Sapping its way with silent ease.
Calenian culture wait the vines
Of those who boast their costly wines
And let the thrifty merchant pour
The foreign cask's delicious store,
For which his Syrian wares he sold,
Into capacious cups of gold,
That merchant to the gods most dear,
Since thrice, nay four times ev'ry year

* The Campus Martius."

Digitized by Google

O'er th' Atlantic flood he sails,
Wafted safe by prosp'rous gales;
While lenient mallows nurture me,
With olives, and wild succory.
"Latonian progeny, then grant
One only boon, 'tis all I want;
Let me enjoy the good I find
With perfect health, and perfect mind;
Respected be my hoary age,
And let the lyre my latest hours engage!"

ANTIQUITIES AND MYTHOLOGY.

ART. V. *Testimonies of different Authors, respecting the colossal Statue of Ceres, placed in the Vestibule of the public Library at Cambridge.* 8vo. pp. 25.

THE author of this pamphlet, we presume to be Mr. Clarke, of the university of Cambridge; who, accompanied by another gentleman of the same university, was lately engaged in a tour in Greece, and the neighbouring islands, from which they returned with a collection of literary and antique monuments of great value, procured in the course of their progress. Among these was a fragment of a statue of colossal size, found among the ruins of the celebrated temple of Ceres, at Eleusis, and supposed to represent the goddess herself. The object of this pamphlet is to collect the testimonies of former travellers respecting the existence of this bust or statue; to ascertain the object which it was intended to represent; and to give a narrative of the means used to procure this ancient monument, and the difficulties which attended its removal. The former writers, whose testimonies are here quoted, are Wheler, Spon, Pococke, and Chandler. To these authorities is added that of Montfaucon. The Καλαθιον, or holy basket on the head of this statue, has given rise, we are told, to an opinion, that it was intended, not for the goddess Ceres, but a canephora. This hypothesis is, we think, satisfactorily disproved by the observations adduced by the author of the pamphlet. The passage which will prove most interesting to general readers, is that which describes the difficulties accompanying the removal of the statue, which are thus related:

"The difficulties to be encountered were not trivial. It was first necessary to purchase the statue from the waiwode, or governor of Athens, who alone had power to dispose of it*. A firman was then to be obtained for its removal; the attendance of a Turkish officer to enforce the order; and a vessel capable of conveying it away. The old quay of Eleusis, consisting of immense blocks of marble, broken and disordered, required reparation. Across the chasms, where the stones were wanting, it was necessary to place pieces of timber, as temporary bridges, that the statue might be conveyed to the utmost extremity of the quay, where a sufficient depth of water would admit the approach of large boats.

"When all these preliminaries were adjusted, which required equal promptness and secresy, amidst the opposition to be expected from a herd of idle and mercenary Greeks, acting as consuls to different nations; in what manner could a foreigner, without any mechanical aid, expect to raise a mass of that magnitude, and convey it over rocks and ruins from its station at Eleusis to the sea?

"Athens afforded a rope of twisted herbs, and a few large nails. A small saw about six inches in length, an axe, and some long poles, were found at Eleusis. The stoutest of these poles were cut in pieces and nailed in a triangular form, having transverse beams at the vertex and base. Weak as this machine was, it acquired considerable strength by the weight of the statue when placed on the transverse beams. With the remainder of the poles were made rollers, over which the machine might move. The rope was then made fast to each extremity of the transverse beams at the vertex. Simple as this contrivance was, it succeeded, when perhaps more complicate machinery might have failed; and a mass of marble, weighing near two tons, was moved over the brow of the hill, or Acropolis of Eleusis, and from thence to the sea, in about nine hours.

"An hundred peasants were collected from the village and neighbourhood of Eleusis, and near fifty boys. The peasants were ranged forty on each side to work at the ropes, the rest being employed with levers to raise the machine when rocks or large stones opposed its progress. The boys who were not strong enough to work at the ropes and levers, were employed in taking up the rollers as fast as the machine left them, and in placing them again in front.

"But the superstition of the inhabitants of Eleusis, respecting an idol, which they all regarded as the protectress of their fields, was

* "Those who have visited Turkey, know the difficulty of making such a purchase. Among other absurd notions which the Turks, and even some of the Greeks, have about foreigners, they believe such stones are only sought for the gold they contain; and this gold, not in the form of ore, but ready coined fine glittering sequins."

Digitized by Google

not the least obstacle to be overcome. On the evening preceding the removal of the statue, an accident happened which had nearly put an end to the undertaking. While the inhabitants were conversing with the Turkish officer who brought the firman from the waiwode of Athens, an ox, loosed from its yoke, came and placed itself before the statue; and after butting with its horns for some time against the marble, ran off with considerable speed bellowing into the plain of Eleusis. Instantly a general murmur prevailed; and several women joining in the clamour, it was with difficulty any proposal could be made. 'They had been always,' they said, 'famous for their corn; and the fertility of the land would cease when the statue was removed.' These are exactly the words of Cicero with respect to the Sicilians, when Verres removed the statue of Ceres: '*Quòd Cerere violatâ, omnes cultus fructúsque Cereris, in his locis interiisse arbitrantur**.'

"At length, however, these scruples were removed; and on the following morning, November the 22d, 1801, the priest of Eleusis, arrayed in his vestments as for high mass, descended into the hollow in wh the statue was partially buried, to strike first blow with a pickaxe for the removal the rubbish, that the people might be c vinced no calamity would befal the labou At mid-day the statue had reached the s mit of the hill above Eleusis; and as the was setting, by the additional assistanc the crew of a Casiot vessel, hired to c it away, was placed at the extremity of ancient quay of the port.

"The next day, November 23, boats w placed parallel to each other from the qu the vessel; and planks being laid over th a kind of stage was formed, on which crew could more easily work the blocks o ship. These being all brought to act at upon the marble, it was raised and la the hold. The vessel then sailed to Sa where the statue was again moved int Princessa merchantman, Capt. Lee. I passage home this vessel was wrecked lost near Beachy Head; but the statu recovered, and has finally reached its de tion."

ART. VI. *A Dissertation on the Mysteries of the Cabiri.* By GEORGE STA FABER, *Fellow of Lincoln College.* 8vo. 2 vols. pp. about 900.

THOSE persons, to whom Mr. Faber's book is only known by the title of a Dissertation on the Mysteries of the Cabiri, will possess but a very faint idea of the multiplicity of topics to which it extends. It is, in short, nothing less than an attempt to prove, that the whole circle of the heathen mythology is reducible to two united sources of superstition: the worship of the heavenly bodies, and that of the ark of Noah, with the persons and personified circumstances connected with it. Before we proceed any further, it may be proper to give a general account of this system in the words of the author.

"We have no reason to think, that the idolatry of the Gentile world was of a merely arbitrary contrivance; on the contrary, it seems to have been built, almost universally, upon a traditional remembrance of certain real events. These events I apprehend to be the destruction of the first race of mankind by the waters of the deluge, and the introduction of the Sabian superstition by Nimrod.

"It is scarcely possible, that all recollection of the flood could have been very soon erased from the minds of the Noachidæ; hence it is natural to suppose, that the anniversary either of its commencement, or of its termination, would be duly commem by a solemn religious festival. Such a m memoration, in its primitive simpli would doubtless be not only innocent, even serviceable to the cause of piety morality; but at the same time it wou liable to gross abuse, which in the re proved unhappily to be the case. The co memorative festival, however irreprehens it might originally have been, was but soon corrupted; Noah and his family w elevated to the rank of demons or hero-g and at length unblushing obscenity assu the name and garb of religion.

"The antediluvian worship appears have been of a totally different sort. the days of Enos the son of Seth,' says M monides, 'men fell into grievous err and even Enos himself partook of their fatuation. Their language was, that si God had placed on high the heavenly bod and used them as his ministers, it was e dently his will, that they should receive fr men the same veneration, as the servants a great prince justly claim from the subje multitude. Impressed with this notio they began to build temples to the stars, sacrifice to them, and to worship them, the vain expectation, that they should th please the Creator of all things. At first i deed, they did not suppose the stars to b the only deities, but adored in conjunct with them the Lord God Omnipotent.

" * Cicero in Verr. lib. 4. c. 51. The removal of the statues of Ceres and Triptolem from the Temple at Enna, by Verres, is particularly applicable. '*His pulchritudo periculo amplitudo saluti fuit, quòd eorum simulatio, utpote asportatio perdifficilis videbatur.*' Lib 4. c. 49.

Digitized by Google

process of time, however, that great and venerable name was totally forgotten; and the whole human race retained no other religion, than the idolatrous worship of the host of heaven.'

"With this superstition the patriarch Ham seems to have been tainted, and to have conveyed the knowledge of it to his own particular descendants. Although he had been mercifully preserved in the ark, along with the other members of his family, yet his subsequent conduct plainly shewed, that he was not only ignorant of the sanctifying influence of pure religion, but that he was a stranger to the laws even of common decency. This leaven of the ancient idolatry lay secretly working in the bosoms of his posterity, during the space of near 400 years; but was prevented from openly shewing itself by the head of Noah, who was still living. At length that venerable patriarch was removed by the hand of death; and the mighty hunter of men, the tyrannical Nimrod, rose, like a baleful comet, above the political horizon. He was the grandson of Ham, and the son of Cush; and he appears to have been the first avowed postdiluvian apostate. We are informed by the sacred historian, that "the beginning of his kingdom was Babel, and Erech, and Accad, and Calneh in the land of Shinar." Here he attempted to establish an universal monarchy, and an universal religion; which produced a struggle between him, and the descendants of Ashur, whose dominions he had invaded. The result of the contest was, that Ashur was compelled to quit his territory, and to provide for himself elsewhere. 'Out of that land went forth Ashur, and builded Nineveh, and the city Rehoboth, and Calah, and Resen, between Nineveh and Calah.'

"The very name indeed of Nimrod, which literally signifies a rebellious panther, points out the nature of his offence; and we are justified in concluding, that the first postdiluvian idolatry was openly established at the metropolis Babylon, because that city, from its name is mystically applied to papal Rome, is styled the mother of harlots and abominations of the earth. The analogy is obvious: as the pure worship of the patriarchs was first authoritatively corrupted at Babel, so was the divine religion of Christ at Rome.

"Previous to the building of the tower of Babel, I conceive, that all mankind were accustomed solemnly to commemorate the catastrophe of the deluge; but, at the same time, I think it probable, that they had now begun to entertain too excessive a veneration for their arkite ancestors. This veneration was by the degenerate Nimrod soon perverted into gross idolatry, and blended with the antediluvian worship of the host of heaven. The ark and the sun were henceforth regarded as one divine object; and the ark, in which Noah was preserved, was profanely reverenced in conjunction with the moon. The Chaldæans soon became famous throughout the world for their astronomical researches; and, while they marshalled the stars in a variety of distinct constellations, they contrived to depict upon their sphere the principal events, which are narrated in the history of the deluge.

"Noah however was not the only patriarch worshipped along with the sun; in subsequent ages Ham not unfrequently obtained the same honour. I may here, therefore, with propriety notice a singular sort of confusion, which will be found very generally to pervade the mythology of the heathens. Noah and his triple offspring are continually represented to us under the character of an ancient deity and his three sons; and yet every one of these three sons is, upon various occasions, confounded with his father. Thus Saturn, Jupiter, Neptune, and Pluto, taken conjointly, are evidently Noah, Ham, Japhet, and Shem; nevertheless, as will hereafter sufficiently appear, Saturn, Jupiter, and Pluto, when considered separately, are all equally the solar Noah, while Neptune very frequently seems to be the same patriarch adored as a diluvian god. This remark will equally apply to the Cronus of Sanchoniatho, and his three sons, Cronus the younger, Jupiter Belus, and Apollo; to the Brachmæ of Hindostan, and his children Brahma, Vishnou, and Seeva; and to the Bore of Scandinavia, and his triple offspring Odin, Vile, and We. Many observations, in the course of the present work will be built upon this curious, though to my own conviction at least undoubted, circumstance.

"That the moon and the ark were worshipped together will abundantly appear in the sequel. It is not improbable, that this peculiar kind of idolatry might have originated from the following circumstance. When the two great superstitions were united, and when Noah began to be adored along with the sun, the Chaldæan astronomers, having observed the resemblance of a crescent to a boat, thought that the waning moon was no unapt symbol of the ark. Hence they were reverenced conjointly; and hence we find, that the very same goddess was sometimes a personification of the one, and sometimes of the other. Varro accordingly asserts, that the moon, when in the form of a crescent, was called Jana; but Janus is the scriptural Noah, consequently Jana is the Noetic ark or crescent.

"This I apprehend to be the only key, that can unlock the hidden meaning of the mysterious polytheism of the antients. Osiris, Bacchus, Cronus, Pluto, Adonis, and Hercules, taken in one point of view, as will be shewn at large hereafter, are all equally the sun; but, if we examine their respective histories, and attentively consider the actions, which are ascribed to them, we shall be convinced, that, in their human capacity, they can each be no other than the great patriarch. In a similar manner, the various god-

Digitized by Google

desses of paganism seem to be all one and the same mythological character; though they sometimes represent the moon, sometimes the ark, and sometimes the globe of the earth emerging from the waters of the deluge.

"From this union of the two primitive superstitions originated the custom of bestowing the names of the hero-gods upon the celestial catasterisms. Modern astronomy still continues to retain the same titles; and Nimrod himself, the founder of this compound idolatry, still holds a conspicuous place in the sphere, and still overlooks the affairs of mortals from the brilliant constellation of Orion. The servile flattery of more recent times translated the deified spirit of the first Cesar into the Julium Sidus; and a great astronomer of the present day, adopting the classical compliment without the classical impiety, has given the appellation of the Georgium Sidus to his newly discovered planet.

"The attempt of Nimrod, to force his abominations upon the reluctant consciences of mankind, produced a war between his followers, and those, who still persevered in commemorating the event of the deluge, and who rejected with horror the profane reveries of Sabianism. The issue of it was such as I have mentioned; the arkite festival was perverted into a superstitious idolatry, and was for ever united with the worship of the heavenly bodies. The mysteries of the Cabiri are in fact nothing more than a mythological account of these events; and they will be found throughout to refer at once to the catastrophè of the deluge, and to the impious rites of that Sabianism, which was united by Nimrod with the arkite superstition."

From this extract our readers will have already begun to suspect, that Mr. Faber is an adept of no mean proficiency in that school of criticism, which if not established by Mr. Bryant, has, at least, received from his labours its greatest share of celebrity and illustration. This opinion will need no further confirmation, when they are informed that in some of the most important of the circumstances, in which the present writer has departed from the system delivered in the analysis of ancient mythology, the veteran author of that work had himself already seen reason to change his own sentiments. We must, therefore, listen to our author with the respect due from the uninitiated to a hierophant of acknowledged skill in these solemn mysteries.

In the imagination of Mr. Faber, the memorials of the deluge are imprinted not less indelibly in the languages, customs, and traditions of all the nations of the earth, than its physical effects are impressed on the structure of the globe itself. In one place, the appearance of convulsed nature attests to the admiring spectator that awful season, when "the fountains of the great deep were broken up;" and in another, with no less certainty, some fragment of a Hebrew word, or some diluvian symbol, has perpetuated through the dark succession of ages, an uninjured memorial of the same event. Even in this remote island, the philosopher has often traced, in imagination, the impetuous course of the overflowing waters; but what conviction is contained in the name of the country itself, Britannia, as we corruptly write it, but more truly, Brit-tan-nu-ia, or "the land of the fish-god, Noah the covenanter?" The author, however, candidly observes, that Bochart gives a different derivation of Britannia.

The inherent improbability of a system, founded principally on such etymologies, must be so obvious to almost every reader, that a laboured refutation of it would be as superfluous as the hypothesis itself is groundless. We shall only bestow a few words on the nature of the calculus employed by Mr. Faber and similar writers, to shew, what needs but little proof, how utterly inapplicable it is to the investigation of historic truth.

Not only are his particular derivations of words opposite, in most instances, to all probability, but his whole system of etymology contradicts, in our opinion, every established principle of language. Nothing appears to us more clear, than that languages are reducible to several classes, radically distinct from each other, whose differences are almost universal, and their instances of agreement merely particular, or accidental. Such classes, in the opinion of the most skilful judges of language, are the Celtic, the Teutonic, and the Slavonic, with others which might be mentioned. If this system be true, all etymological hypothesis which violates these fixed barriers, must, except in some particular instances, be wholly nugatory. That all languages have many sounds in common, proves nothing. As all speech is capable of being reduced to a few articulations of voice, which admit of expression by letters, so all languages must be capable of being analyzed into a certain, though considerably greater, number of common syllables, which, however, in different languages have

Digitized by Google

ther communion of properties than that
f *simple* sound. In the system of Mr.
aber, however, the Hebrew language
nd its cognate dialects, instead of be-
g confined to the south-west of Asia,
ave been diffused over the globe with a
ispersion far more extensive than that
which the Jewish exiles have been
oomed.

nnibus in terris, quæ sunt a gadibus usque
auram et Gangen.

In short, the great talisman, with
hich all the magical wonders of these
lumes are wrought, is a vocabulary
sisting principally of two or three hun-
red oriental roots, chiefly monosyllables,
ne or other of which it is hard if a
ilful artist cannot detect in most words
oposed to his examination, and con-
ive in some way, direct or indirect, to
nnect with the deluge, or the host of
aven.

Mr. Faber, however, assumes still
eater licences of derivation. His words
often put together, in the most ar-
rary order, to complete the sense
ich he wishes to extract; a connect-
link is sometimes requisite to be sup-
ed; and sometimes a single letter, in
ance of grammar, is made to stand
a whole root. In more than one
tance, the letter N signifies the patri-
h Noah. Cylindrus, for example,
ala-nah-ador, "the illustrious arkite
ah." Different languages are not
equently united in the same appel-
on.

Thus ductile are words to the touch
our author. With equal success he
s means of adapting them to his sub-
. For this purpose he has collected
mber of objects, which he considers
mbols of the heavenly bodies, or
e deluge and its concomitant cir-
tances. We extract the following
logue. "The most usual symbols
e sun were a lion and a serpent;
of Noah, a bull, a horse, and a
nited with a man; those of the
a heifer, a mare, a fish united with
man, a ram, a boar, a cup, a sea-
ter, and a beautiful female, who
sometimes described as a virgin,
sometimes represented as the mother
e gods, and as the consort, the
ter, the parent, or the sister, of
incipal arkite deity." If therefore
yllables of a word, pruned or ex-
d into any similitude to Mr. Faber's
nosyllables, bear any reference to
any of these objects, it is immediately
pressed into the service of the helio-
arkite mysteries.

Mr. Faber reduces all the personages
of ancient mythology to a very small
number of archetypes. He is some-
times informed by an obscure scholiast,
that certain different names are only
different appellations of the same god
or hero. Where this information is
wanting, he does not scruple, if neces-
sary for his object, to confound genea-
logies, and to represent the son, and the
grandson, and a whole line of descen-
dants, as the same person with their
progenitor. In the course of this work,
Noah has perhaps fifty different names
bestowed on him, and the ark and the
dove, (to borrow an expression from
our author,) a proportionate polyonymy.
Thus another advantage is gained, that
what is not found applicable to the pur-
pose under one name or character, may
be found under another; and thus from
the whole encyclopedia of fable, a to-
lerable narrative of the diluvian events
may be at length compiled.

Such are the principal features of the
system here devised for the discovery of
remote and long-forgotten facts. If
this key can be employed with success
in opening the close repositories of his-
torical truth, may we not hope that, in
the progress of discovery, arguments
may be developed by machinery, and
poems constructed by engines?

To give the system an appearance of
consistency and arrangement, a number
of technical terms has been adopted,
such as the arkite ogdoad, and the helio-
arkite worship.

To say much respecting the subordi-
nate parts of an hypothesis, in its fun-
damental principles so outrageous to all
probability, would be needless. The
vocabulary is collected somewhat arbi-
trarily from different languages, He-
brew, Coptic, Greek, and Gothic. To
do all that Mr. Faber has done in this
work, nothing more than the slightest
degree of acquaintance with the oriental
languages is requisite, though we mean
to say that his knowledge is not really
more extensive. To analyze his work,
which is often defective and obscure in
arrangement, would be also difficult.
We shall only mention some of the chief
topics. The first chapter consists of
preliminary observations, intended to
illustrate the system and the principles
on which it is constructed. The second

Digitized by Google

is devoted to an analysis of the supposed Phenician history of Sanchoniatho, and an explication of it on the principles of the author. He then proceeds to establish the identity of the Cabiri, Corybantes, Curetes, Dioscori, Anactes, Dii Magni, Idei Dactyli, Telchines, Lares, Pleiades, Manes, Titans, and Alcteæ, the polyonymy of the sun, and the connection of the fabulous Hades with the mysteries of the Cabiri. The various countries devoted to the Cabiric superstition are then investigated: Italy, Crete, Samothrace, and Troas. The second volume opens with an illustration of four convenient monosyllables, occupying nearly 70 pages, and proceeds to the history of the Argonautic voyage, the war of the Titans, and the identity and import of the mysteries of Isis, Ceres, Mithras, &c. &c. Such is nearly the table of contents.

We add another short extract for the purpose of illustrating more fully our author's etymological propensities, and take it at hazard.

"I have mentioned, upon the authority of Tzetzes, that Italy received its name from a person called Italus or Taurus. This person is evidently no other than the Talus, Italotus, or Taurus of Crete; whence it will follow, that the word Italia is compounded of Ital-Aia, or Ait-Al-Aia, the land of Italus or Talus, the solar bull. In a similar manner Talium or Italium, in the territory of the Samnites, and Italica, in the island of Eubœa, the country of the Corybantes, both equally derived their respective appellations from the worship of Talus. The same remark may be applied to the Teleboæ, the ancient inhabitants of the isle of Taphos. These are said by the scholiast upon Apollonius to have originally inhabited Acarnania; and he describes them as coming to Argos, and fighting with Electryon, the father of Alcmenè, for his oxen. Electryon was the son of Perseus and Andromeda; from Hippothoè, the daughter of his brother Mestor, and Neptune, sprung Pterelas; and from Pterelas, Taphius, and Teleboas the father of the Teleboæ. Alcmenè afterwards married Amphitryon, and at length became the mother of Hercules by Jupiter. All these names are significant. Teleboas is compounded of Tel-Ob-Bou, the helio-tauric serpent; and Electryon is derived from El-Oc-Tor-Ion, the divine tauric dove of the ocean. In a similar manner, Alcmenè is Al-Oc-Mena, the lunar deity of the sea; Amphitryon is Am-Phi-Tor-Ion, the oracular god of the bull and the dove; Mestor is M'Es-Tor, the great solar bull; Pterelas is P'Tor-El-As, the bull the god of fire; and Hippothoè, the concubine of Neptune, is Hippo-Thea, the divine Hippian Ark. The contest, in short, was between the votaries of the two great superstitions, and was that which preceded their final union. A colony of these Teleboæ, according to Virgil, formerly inhabited Capreæ in the bay of Naples; and he mentions one of their ancient sovereigns named Telon, who was the father of Oebalus.

Nec tu carminibus nostris indictus abibis,
Oebale, quem generâsse Telon Sebethide nympha
Fertur: Teleboum Capreas cum regna teneret
Jam senior.——

Telon or Tel-On is the sun; and his supposed offspring Oebalus is Ob-Al, the serpent deity."

To say what the heathen mythology is not, in opposition at least to such systems as that of the present work, is easy; to determine what it is, is happily as unimportant as the question is difficult; or perhaps, more properly speaking, incapable of resolution. In its origin we conceive it to have been partly symbolical, and partly to consist of disguised narrations of facts which really happened; the mythology of different countries we believe to have been chiefly local. It was said by a former, though much less daring, adventurer in the same field, that "the heathen mythology is free and open chase, where men of letters are privileged to sport and pursue their game, each according to his fancy." We have only one objection to this account, that the game, generally speaking, is not worth the pursuit. "Such fables," says Hume, "which are commonly employed to supply the place of true history, ought entirely to be disregarded; or if any exception be admitted to this general rule, it can only be in favour of the ancient Grecian fictions which are so celebrated and so agreeable, that they will ever be the objects of the attention of mankind." And to apply even these fictions to the investigation of history, appears to us a labour as fruitless as that of Sisyphus himself, who, according to the old poet,

— — — versat
Saxum sudans nitendo, neque proficit hilum.

While we cannot but disapprove entirely of his system, we are both willing and desirous to make a favourable distinction between Mr. Faber's learning and what appears to us his erroneous application of it. He is extensively

Digitized by Google

equainted with the works of antient and odern literature, his syle is correct nd classical, and he writes with temper nd moderation, and without any apearance of that contempt, usual to stem-makers, for those who have not en facts in the light in which they are ewed by themselves. It appears to ve been a great object of Mr. Faber's ork, to contribute something to the idences of the Mosaic history, and us to the cause of religion; that he s been in any degree successful, it is not in our power to say; had his learning and labour received a different direction, it would have given us much satisfaction to have been able to join his name to those of Marsh and Paley; as the case at present is, we must express a hope that he will not represent his system as of essential moment to the establishment of the truth of revelation, as we are afraid that with superficial observers, such a declaration would rather tend to make unbelievers, than to produce converts.

SCHOOL BOOKS.

ART. VII. *Elegantiæ Latinæ; or Rules and Exercises, illustrative of elegant Latin Style, intended for the Use of the higher Classes of Grammar Schools.* 8vo. pp. 220.

FROM our knowledge of Dr. Valpy's ther works of elementary instruction, have long been induced to regard as a very able and diligent teacher lassical learning. The present work s a very suitable companion to his er publications, and is of a descripwhich was much wanted in our ools. We have looked it over with ntion, and can without hesitation reend it as containing many judici observations, respecting an impor, but, except in our great schools, enerally neglected branch of classiducation. Dr. Valpy thus explains ature of his object.

During twenty years in which I have engaged in the arduous but important of teaching the classics, it has never to excite my wonder and sorrow, that e many attempts, which have been to smooth the difficulties, with which ad to classical excellence is attended, thod tending to facilitate Latin comn has been successively pursued from t introduction of youth into the elementary exercises, to his arrival into the flowery fields of correct elegance and dignity of style. The greatest care is usually taken in conducting him to a certain point: when he understands the plain application of his rules of syntax, he is then thrown upon the wide world of elegant latinity, in which the range he is to take, though stript of the thorns of grammatical analysis, is still very precarious; his progress is still *ascensu difficili*. For unless the master is at liberty to point out very minutely the particular words, or arrangement of words which constitute elegance, he must greatly depend upon his own judgment and observation for the knowledge of them. And there is as great a difference between the mere grammatical structure of a sentence, and the elegant usage and collocation of words, as between the rude sketch of an imperfect outline, and the fine colouring of a finished painting."

We are ourselves so strongly convinced of the importance of composition, for the purpose of acquiring a familiar perception of the elegancies of any language, that we give this little book our hearty recommendation.

ART. VIII. *A new Dictionary of Antient Geography.* By CHARLES PYE. 8vo.

HIS is a work which contains some al evidence of having been com in the manner which the author bes. Whenever in the course of ading he met with any geographiustration, he had recourse, he in us, to his common-place book, which the information was afterscopied in alphabetical order, but any view to publication. In of time, however, the manuscript voluminous, and he then began rporate it with other alphabetical on the same subject. All the utility, to which by its nature it can aspire, is that of a book of reference in the perusal of ancient history, for the use of such readers as do not make geography a direct and professed study; and this purpose we presume, from the degree of examination which we have bestowed upon it, that it is in general sufficiently correct to answer. The articles are very numerous, and many of them, though the book bears the title of a dictionary of ancient history, relate to subjects entirely modern.

Digitized by Google

ART. IX. *A Mythological Dictionary, with an Essay on the Sacrifices to Heathen Deities.* 12mo.

THIS is one of those ephemeral publications, which have their day, and are then replaced by some other work of the same kind, in a newer form, without perhaps a greater share of merit. The humility of the compiler, may be estimated by the profound respect, and distant admiration with which he regards Mr. Lempriere's useful publication on a similiar subject, but larger scale, as a work which will *immortalize* its author. Mr. Lempriere's book is a very serviceable companion to the young student; but we apprehend that immortality was the object which he had least in view in the compilation of it. The execution of the work before us we can in very few respects commend.

ART. X. *Skeleton of the Latin Accidence, in eight Tables.*

A Neat exhibition of the paradigmata of Latin nouns and verbs, and very likely to prove acceptable and useful to children engaged in learning the rudiments. The examples are well selected, and contain some varieties which are not noticed in common grammars. Care is taken by the manner of printing them to distinguish the essential from the variable parts of words. We believe that we are indebted to Dr. Carey for this useful little work.

ART. XI. *Progressive Exercises, adapted to the Eton Accidence.* 8vo. pp. 90.

THIS is a useful initiatory book, evidently compiled by some person who has been engaged in the practice, or who has considered the theory of learning. It consists of two parts, one intended to exercise boys in the variations of single words and the simplest rules of construction; the other, to conduct them to the analysis of complete sentences.

Digitized by Google

CHAPTER VII.

MODERN LANGUAGES.

THE only new works in this department, which the British press has produced during the last year, are three publications by Signor Graglia, introductory to a knowledge of the Italian language. A new edition of Lindley Murray's English Grammar and Exercises (See Ann. Rev. vol. I. p. 556) with a few additions and corrections, has also made its appearance.

ART. I. *New Guide to the Italian Language.* *By* G. A. GRAGLIA. 8vo. pp. 250.

THE learner will find this a useful grammar. To each person in every tense of every verb some sentence is affixed to explain their various significations and uses.

ART. II. *Continuation of the New Guide to the Italian Language.* 8vo. pp. 116.

THE novelty of this plan, which is it of giving lessons in false syntax, it the learner may rectify it, we shall so readily acknowledge as the utility. is not often that any thing amusing be selected from a book of exercises, we think the reader will be amused see how Signor Graglia has contrived teach his pupils mythology and poe- in a sonnet of his own in praise of musical talents and voice of a lady. it comes the sonnet itself, then its ple syntax, then this translation.

hou, O Phœbus, who dartest thy rays upon the poles,
s, O Apollo, who shakest thy sublime fire on poets,
s, O Neptune, call all the living ones at these scenes,
thy roaring command.

s, O Mercury, messenger of the gods,
ble thy wings to acquaint the nations,
em, that harmony and sweet complaints down from heaven into the British empire.

O Nereides, leave the fountains,
ryades, forget the forests,
ou, Oreades, forsake the mountains.

Naiads, come all out from the waves,
Exalted Pleiades, descend to the singing among the sons of Mars,
And Pallases, so renowned in our land."

An exposition of the fable follows. I have introduced, says the author, this easy specimen of verses of mine, in order to close these exercises with something unexpected from the scholar, and at the same time to show how poetry should be explained or taught to a beginner.

"Now the learner being provided with my Italian and English Pocket Dictionary, with my New Guide to the Italian Languages, and these Exercises, will, with great facility and little expence, procure to himself the knowledge of this beautiful, harmonious, and fashionable language."

We see no reason to gainsay this assertion, but Signor Graglia we trust will not be offended if we add, that a few of his lessons will greatly facilitate the labour.

The method adopted in the latter part of this work, of mingling English with Italian, that the learner may fit in the fragments wanting of either language, is certainly useful; and will be of the same assistance in acquiring Italian conversationally, as dissected maps are found to be in teaching children the ruder parts of geography.

Digitized by Google

ART. III. *Raccolta di Lettere Istorico-Mitologiche e Morale.* Da G. A. GRAGLIA. 8vo. pp. 200.

THE author shall declare his own object in this selection.

"In giving to the public these letters, it may appear to some too presumptuous an attempt to range myself in the copious number of eminent writers upon the same subject; and to others, to be a labour almost needless, considering the few who, (comparatively speaking) will read them. In the first place, I shall say, if the matter is rightly considered, every tongue, every way, and every method ought to be tried, if not to destroy (an attempt almost impossible) at least to diminish the evil, which the many depraved productions, under various colours and forms, disgrace the art of printing, with so much detriment to young people, thus undermining their good morals, in order to blow up, as it were, that education, which their friends had given them with so much zeal; they being conscious that the principal riches of a state, and the cause of the welfare of families, chiefly depend on the good education given to children; and is to the mind what agriculture is to the earth; and as we are by our corrupt nature more prone to evil than inclined to good; and, blindly, more lulled by present pleasures, than engaged by thoughts of future happiness; wherefore, if the fear of God should not come in aid of good advice, where should we not be led by those profane writers! As it is so, I have selected in these letters, subjects, if not of the most sublime kind, at least, the easiest to be put in practice, and the more adapted to the circumstances of the times, and the most general, in order to oppose the vices that are also most general; therefore, in them will be inculcated, that the mind ought to be guided by reason; that, to use provoking words, is often the cause of great evils; that the passionate man hurts himself more than others; that virtue never grows old nor loses strength; that those who are habituated to afflictions bear them more calmly; that before one makes any one his friend, one ought to examine him carefully, before trusting him with a secret; that the flatterer flies from the virtuous man, and attaches himself to the presumptuous one; but, to avoid prolixity, I shall only add, that too great a prosperity, as well as too great an adversity, are equally dangerous; and peace in families, and subordination in subjects, are the fruits of virtue alone, without which, neither a state nor a family can long prosper, but it must of necessity decay and fall, as a tree with withered roots."

We have only to remark that the selection seems well adapted for the designed purpose, and that the Signor's Italian is somewhat less confused than his English.

Digitized by Google

CHAPTER VIII.

EDUCATION AND SCHOOL BOOKS.

THERE is no department of Literature in which the inferiority of the last to the preceding year is so strongly marked as that which is treated of in the present chapter. Of the works relating to the science of Education there is not one whose very title will not be forgotten in the course of a twelvemonth; and the books intended for the use of young persons will probably share the same fate, with the exception perhaps of Messrs. Bruce's Introduction to Geography.

ART. I. *Friendly Admonitions to Parents, and the Female Sex in general; with Reflections on Moral and Religious Subjects; intended for the Benefit of the rising Generation. By* CHARLOTTE BADGER, *late* CHARLOTTE WAINWRIGHT. 8vo. pp. 162.

IN these unassuming pages will be found some sensible and useful reflections on the present system of female education. The exclusion of domestic concerns from the modern system of instruction is justly condemned, and the ill consequences represented, which arise more particularly in inferior stations of life must experience from a cultivation of exterior ornamental accomplishments to the neglect of solid and essential duties. Among various topics which are touched upon, Mrs. Wainwright dwells on the palpable incompetency of a large proportion of those who assume the character of governesses, to the arduous and responsible task of tuition: her advice to parents on this subject is particularly worth attending to.

ART. II. *Letters on the Importance of the Female Sex; with Observations on their Manners and Education. By Miss* HATFIELD. 8vo. pp. 157.

THIS little rigmarole volume contains one passage so truly original that we will preserve it. It is an apology for Eve, showing that she was right in eating the apple.

"By the creation of woman, the great plan was accomplished—the universal system was harmonised.—Happiness and innocence reigned together: but, unacquainted with the nature or existence of evil—conscious only of good, and imagining that all were of that essence around her—without the advantages of the tradition of fore-fathers to relate, or of ancient records to hand down, they were fatally and necessarily ignorant of the rebellious disobedience of the fallen angels, and of their invisible vigilance and machination to accomplish the destruction of the new favourites of heaven.

"In so momentous an event as that which has ever been exclusively imputed to her, neither her virtue nor her prudence ought to be suspected: and there is little reason to doubt that, if the same temptations had been offered to her husband, under the same appearances, but he also would have acquiesced in the commission of this act of disobedience.

"Eve's attention was attracted by the manner in which the serpent first made his attack: he had the gift of speech, which she must have observed to be a faculty peculiar to themselves. This appeared an evidence of something supernatural. The wily tempter chose also the form of the serpent to assist his design, as not only in wisdom and sagacity that creature surpassed all others, but his figure was also erect and beautiful; for it was not until the offended justice of God denounced the curse, that the serpent's crest was humbled to the dust.

"During this extraordinary interview it is evident, that Eve felt a full impression of the divine command, which she repeated to the tempter at the time of his solicitations. She told him, they were not to eat of *that* tree.—'And the woman said unto the serpent, We may eat of the fruit of the trees of the garden, but of the fruit of the tree that is in the midst of the garden; God said, ye shall not eat of it, neither shall ye touch it,

Digitized by Google

lest ye die.' But the serpent opposed her arguments with sophistry and promises.—'He said unto the woman, Ye shall not surely die, but shall be as gods!'—What an idea to a mortal!—Such an image astonished her!—It was not the gross impulses of greedy appetite that urged her, but a nobler motive that induced her to examine the consequences of the act.—She was to be better and happier—to exchange a mortal for an angelic nature. Her motive was great, virtuous, irresistible. Might she not have felt herself awed and inspired with a belief of a divine order?—Upon examination, she found it was to produce a greater good than as mortals they could enjoy: this impression excited a desire to possess that good; and that desire determined her will, and the future destiny of *a world*."

Mr. Todd, no doubt, will notice this in the next edition of his Paradise Lost as an idea which escaped Milton. We recommend it also to the attention of all biblical commentators, if indeed it should not be appended as a supplement to the first chapters of Genesis.

ART. III. *Letters of Advice from a Mother to her Son.* 8vo. pp. 450.

AMONG the peculiar characteristics of the present age of literature is the propensity of our female writers to publish sermons upon education, in the shape of letters, essays, and treatises; thinking that the only requisite stock in trade to set up with is pen, ink, paper, and plenty of words.

This Mrs. Crespigny talks as confidently of Spinosa as if she could read his works, and confutes his opinions with as much self-complacency as if she could understand them. To her and all such as her we have only to wish more sense, or more diffidence.

"I pray you, woman, being weak, seem to

ART. IV. *Anthropaideia; or, a Tractate on General Education. By* ANDREW COWAN, *M. D.* 8vo. Two vols. pp. about 500.

IN these well-meant volumes there is much good sense. The author concludes with a brief retrospect of their contents, which will answer the purpose of a more laboured analysis.

"The necessity of accompanying instruction in all its departments with the emotion of pleasure, points out to us the propriety and utility of reforming all the different instruments which are employed to cultivate the human mind, since in their existing state pain is uniformly attendant upon their employment. We have formerly divided the principal artificial means to be used in education, into two great divisions, calculated to cultivate and improve the two principal faculties of the mind, imagination and judgment. The first of these divisions comprehends all the various departments of literature; the second includes all those which may be denominated scientific. The great object, then, of what is usually termed education, is properly to select all the useful parts, both of literature and of science, and to render their study as pleasing as possible to the mind. We have, in the first volume of this work, laid down what we conceived to be a comprehensive and just plan of a general education, enumerating the different departments of study, that properly belong to each division, with the order in which they should naturally succeed each other. We shall therefore, in this place, endeavour to point out the means by which the study of all these classes of knowledge may be rendered most pleasing, and, in consequence, most beneficial to the mind.

"To all those who are at all acquainted with the principles of human nature, it will be superfluous to adduce proofs to demonstrate, that whatever knowledge or information of acknowledged importance and interest is acquired with ease, its study is accompanied universally with a degree of pleasure. In order to render the acquisition of knowledge pleasant, it must be made both interesting and easy of comprehension. Keeping these two truths always in view, we conceive it practicable, and that even with much difficulty, to transform both science and literature, into pleasing and delightful studies.

"We shall begin with the consideration of literature, which naturally first engages our attention. With a view of making the study of language agreeable and pleasing, particularly to boys, it is necessary that the subject on which students are employed to read, be interesting. The judicious teacher can easily collect authors, in almost every language, whose writings are calculated to arrest and interest the mind at an early period of life. In order, however, to render the study and comprehension of such works easy, difficult passages should always be satisfactorily explained in the student's vernacular tongue by notes, and they should, for beginners, be accompanied with literal translations.

"In the reformation of science the study of general principles must always regulate the conduct. Mathematics, the great and indispensable foundation of all scientific knowledge, do not admit of that method of treatment which is most fascinating. Each part

Digitized by Google

position must be concisely and closely demonstrated, without admitting those analogies which are best fitted to please the youthful mind. But if the propositions themselves require such rigorous abstraction, we are at full liberty to illustrate them, in any manner we imagine to be most pleasing. Corollaries therefore should always accompany mathematical propositions, and these should be calculated to engage the affections and please the mind. Experimental philosophy requires no additional ornaments, to render it delightful to the human heart.

"Whosoever keeps these principles constantly in view, and reforms in pursuance of them any department of literature or of science, may claim to himself the title of a benefactor to humanity. The author of this work intends to devote a large portion of his time to this truly momentous and interesting subject, directing his attention more especially to the abstract sciences. He shall however be glad to find himself anticipated by more able hands, whose powers may be better adapted for this undertaking. The highest object of his ambition is, to be enumerated as one among the first to assert the rights of human nature, and the last to relinquish them."

We think the work might advantageously be compressed, for Dr. Cowan has so often expended his time in proving that no reader would be disposed to say or doubt. We would also recommend to him more prudence: he speaks all persons employed in tuition with indiscriminating and illiberal aspersion; and the reasonable disgust which his passages must excite, cannot fail to occasion a general prejudice against the rest of his treatise. His remarks on the practice of physic savour equally of youth and presumption. But the most extraordinary part of the book is his scheme for public worship.

"I consider music to be the only rational means which can be used in public worship to excite true devotion. Articulate language is quite inadequate to produce this end. It is used to arrest the attention to the contemplation of sounds degraded by vulgar use, and to those objects which are little calculated to kindle in the breast the pure flame of devotion. Music, when employed in public worship, possesses the important advantage peculiar to itself, that all men, of whatever sect or denomination, may equally participate its influence. No particular creed which a person may happen to entertain can unfit him for enjoying this mode of worship, in case he entertains no particular prejudice against it. This species of public worship seems more conformable to the spirit of Christianity than any other which ever can be adopted. Christianity tends directly to level all religious distinctions among men, and to render true devotion the genuine offspring of the heart. Music excites all the finer and more noble feelings of the soul, and affords that enjoyment which cannot be augmented or diminished by the opinions or influence of men. For this reason it tends to allay the furious spirit of sectarianism, whose influence goes directly to pervert and destroy the heart, and unqualify her for the enjoyment of every refined and every heavenly emotion."

The exceeding oddity of this passage disarms all resentment for its absurdity. Dr. Cowan is for taking the people by the ears, supposing, we presume, that they have been too long led by the nose. Were our hierarchy to be reformed upon this truly original idea, Mrs. Billington would without dispute be made Archbishop of Canterbury, and Incledon appointed to the see of York. The other sees would be filled from the Opera-house, and this would afford a happy opening for a reconciliation with the church of Rome, as no objection would be made on the part of the new bishops to the celibacy of the clergy. There would indeed be some difficulty in disposing of the present bench. It cannot be expected that any one of them should qualify himself for first fiddle, but some might appropriately beat the drum or sound the trumpet, others be furnished with tinkling cymbals, others again be employed as bellows-blowers, having been used to blow the coals, and beyond all doubt, all might very soon be taught to join readily in chorus. The admission of the bag-pipes would destroy presbyterianism, the children of Israel would be converted by the Jews-harp, and we might hope to see the church in harmony.

V. *Improvements in Education, as it respects the industrious Classes of the Community.* *By* JOSEPH LANCASTER. 8vo. pp. 66.

JOSEPH Lancaster is the Count Rumford of schoolmasters; his main object is to save time and expence in educating the children of the poor, and these he seems successfully to have accomplished.

"Supply twenty boys with slates and pencils, and pronounce any word for them to

Digitized by Google

write, suppose it is the word 'ab-so-lu-ti-on;' they are obliged to listen with attention, to catch the sound of every letter as it falls from their teacher's lips; again, they have to retrace the idea of every letter, and the pronunciation of the word, as they write it on the slates. If we examine ourselves, when we write letters, we shall find that writing is so much associated and connected with orthography, that we cannot write a word without spelling as we write, and involuntarily correcting any inaccuracy that may occur.

"Now these twenty boys, if they were at a common school, would each have a book, and, one at a time, would read or spell to their teacher, while the other nineteen were looking at their books, or about them, as they pleased; or, if their eyes are rivetted on their books, by terror and coercion, can we be sure that the attention of their minds is engaged as appearance seems to speak it is? On the contrary, when they have slates, the twentieth boy may read to the teacher, while the other nineteen are spelling words on the slate, instead of sitting idle. The class, by this means, will spell, write, and read at the same instant of time. In addition to this, the same trouble which teaches twenty will suffice to teach sixty or a hundred, by employing some of the senior boys to inspect the slates of the others, they not omitting to spell the word themselves, and on a signal given by them to the principal teacher, that the word is finished by all the boys they overlook, he is informed when to dictate another to the class. This experiment has been repeatedly practised by 112 and 128 boys at once; and judicious persons, good judges on the subject of education, who were present, were convinced, that the same trouble was sufficient to teach 200 boys, or more, on the same plan.

"But if the individual advantage derived from this method in tuition is great, what must the aggregate be? If 20 boys spell 200 words each, the same number spelt by 60 boys must produce a great increase of total.

"Each boy can spell 100 words in a morning: if 100 scholars do this 200 mornings yearly, the following will be the total of their efforts towards improvement:

100 words
200 mornings

20,000 words each boy per ann.
100 boys

2,000,000 Total words spelt by 100 boys per ann."

This financial aggregate is rather ludicrous, but the plan is not the less praiseworthy. The younger boys, who have not yet learnt to write, are made to print the word in sand.

The mode of cyphering is similar; all the boys of a class write down a sum upon their slate as the monitor reads it to them, the whole process in words and figures.

Mr. Lancaster has 300 scholars, and expresses himself fully satisfied with the effects of this plan. We earnestly recommend his pamphlet to the attention of all persons concerned in the education of the poor. The Society for bettering the Condition of the Poor would do well in circulating his plan. It might be fully stated in a hand-bill.

ART. VI. *An Essay on the Beauties of the Universe: selected from the most eminent Authors, illustrated with Notes, containing the choicest Thoughts of the best English Poets. To which are added, suitable Reflections designed for the Amusement of Youth.* 12mo. pp. 183.

THE attention of children cannot be too early or too frequently directed to the beauties of the universe; these beauties, which open upon them every morning as they rise, are, from the very circumstance of their familiarity, too frequently unheeded. The object of these pages is to awaken the dormant sensibilities of young persons, by minding them, that every insect which crawls on the ground, every blade of grass which grows, every shower and every sun-beam, proclaim at once the omnipotence and universal benevolence of God.

ART. VII. *Holidays at Home; written for the Amusement of Young Persons.* CHARLOTTE SAUNDERS. 12mo. pp. 309.

AMUSING stories, which may safely be put into the hands of children. The writings of Dr. Aikin, Mrs. Barbauld, Miss Edgeworth, and one or two others, have made us somewhat fastidious; we must not expect to meet with excellence every day.

Digitized by Google

ART. VIII. *Preludes to Knowledge; or, amusing and instructive Conversations on History, Astronomy, Geography, Optics, and the Division of Time in different Countries. Interspersed with Stories moral and entertaining.* By ELIZABETH SOMERVILLE: Author of "James Manners and his Dog Bluff." 18mo. pp. 194.

THESE stories are above the capacity of children to whom they are addressed, and are too superficial for children of more advanced age. The volume abounds in typographical errors, which is an unpardonable fault.

ART. IX. *The History of Man.* 12mo.

WE should think that children would find this little compilation dull and wearisome: anecdotes of men and manners are wanting to enliven dry descriptions of dress.

ART. X. *The Life of Moses; designed for the Amusement and Instruction of Youth.* By *a Lady.* 8vo. pp. 75.

THE writer of these pages prefers two claims upon the public, which are never urged in vain. "*She is young and in adversity*, scarcely yet entered her twenty-second year; she has drunk deep of the fountain of human affliction, nor has hitherto been permitted to refuse the bitter draught of keen disappointment."

This little work is not destitute of merit, either in point of plan or execution.

ART. XI. *The Elegant Preceptor: or, an Introduction to the Knowledge of the World; containing Instructions in Morality, and useful and ornamental Accomplishments, selected from the Works of the most eminent Writers.* 18mo. pp. 136.

SCRAPS of morality from Blair, Johnson, Addison, Steel, Edgeworth, Rousseau, Madame Genlis, *cum multis aliis quæ nunc perscribere longum est.*

ART. XII. *Lessons of Fenelon, late Archbishop of Cambray, selected from his Works, for the Instruction of Youth.* By M. DE LEVISAC. *The whole translated from the most recent Editions of the Author's Works.* 8vo. pp. 322.

THE Abbé Lévisac published last year a selection from the works of the Archbishop of Cambray, entitled *Leçons de Fenelon*, of which an account was given in our former volume, p. 587.—By translating these "lessons" into English, the whole value of the book is totally destroyed. There is no scarcity of excellent books for young people in our own language, but the number of French works adapted to the same purpose, and from the purity of their style serving also as exercises in that language, is but small. The explanatory notes of the Abbé are totally omitted in this version, nor do we see any use to which it can be applied, except that of saving idle boys the trouble of turning over their dictionary, and thus injuring themselves and deceiving their masters and parents.

ART. XIII. *Evenings Rationally Employed; or, Moral and Entertaining Incentives to Virtue and Improvement.* By W. HELME. 8vo. pp. 270.

WE have no fault to find with the moral tendency of this little volume, except that it now and then inculcates that sickly nervous sensibility which is too much the characteristic of the present age. In every other respect, however, the book is wholly worthless. The style is wretched; a large proportion of the facts recorded are vulgar and long exploded errors; and the proper names of persons, places, and things, betray gross ignorance or shameful carelessness.

ART. XIV. *An Introduction to Philosophical and Physical Geography: in which all the Operations and Appearances of Nature are demonstrated to be the Result of natural Causes. Likewise the Cause and Origin of Mountains, Rivers, the Properties of the Sea, Springs, Mineral Waters, Hot Baths, &c. explained. To which is added, an Explanation of the different Lengths of Days and Nights, the Vicissitudes of the Seasons, &c.* 8vo. pp. 124. One plate.

IT will not be supposed that a satisfactory explanation of the subjects mentioned in the ample title page, which we have just transcribed, can possibly be

given in the short compass of 124 pages. The author, however, has found an effectual way of reconciling us to his brevity, by evincing the most deplorable ignorance of the science which he has undertaken to demonstrate.

ART. XV. *An Introduction to Geography and Astronomy, by the Use of the Globes and Maps. To which are added, the Construction of Maps, and a Table of the Latitudes and Longitudes of the Places mentioned in the Work. By* E. *and* J. BRUCE. 8vo. pp. 230.

THIS useful little work consists of two parts: the first contains thirty-six problems to be resolved by the terrestrial globe; the second contains thirty problems, adapted to the celestial globe. —The writings of Dr. Hutton, Professor Vince, Dr. Herschell, and other able mathematicians, have been judiciously had recourse to; and the modern discoveries are inserted in their proper places. The whole forms a very complete treatise, superior in many respects to most of its predecessors on the same subject.

ART. XVI. *An Easy Grammar of Geography: intended as a Companion and Introduction to the "Geography for the Use of Schools," by the same Author. With Maps. By the Rev.* J. GOLDSMITH. 18mo. pp. 144.

THE manner in which this introduction is executed, can only be known by a specimen; take one any where:

"*Of the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Ireland.*

"The island of Great Britain is divided into England, Wales, and Scotland. It is six hundred miles long, and three hundred broad; and contains about twelve millions of inhabitants.

"The advantages of its climates are thus described by a modern poet:

"A fairer isle than Britain, never sun
View'd in his wide career! A lovely spot
For all that life can ask!—Salubrious!—mild!
Its hills are green! its woods and prospects fair!
Its meadows fertile! and, to crown the whole
In one delightful word,—it is our home—
Our native isle."

"To the above it may be added, that Great Britain is the undisputed mistress of the seas, which are every where covered with her ships. Her wealth, the value of her manufactures, and the extent of her commerce are unequalled. The industry and intelligence of her inhabitants, the excellent form of her political constitution, the just administration of her laws, and the independence arising from her insular situation, combine to render her an object of admiration to all other nations.

"England contains forty counties or shires, situated in the following order, taken from north to south.

Counties.	*Chief Towns.*
Northumberland	Newcastle
Durham	Durham
Cumberland	Carlisle
Westmoreland	Appleby
Yorkshire	York
Lancashire	Lancaster
Cheshire	Chester
Shropshire	Shrewsbury
Derbyshire	Derby
Nottinghamshire	Nottingham
Lincolnshire	Lincoln
Rutland	Oakham
Leicestershire	Leicester
Staffordshire	Stafford
Warwickshire	Warwick
Worcestershire	Worcester
Herefordshire	Hereford
Monmouthshire	Monmouth
Gloucestershire	Gloucester
Oxfordshire	Oxford
Buckinghamshire	Aylesbury
Northamptonshire	Northampton
Bedfordshire	Bedford
Huntingdonshire	Huntingdon
Cambridgeshire	Cambridge
Norfolk	Norwich
Suffolk	Bury
Essex	Chelmsford
Hertfordshire	Hertford
Middlesex	London
Kent	Canterbury
Surrey	Guildford
Sussex	Chichester
Berkshire	Reading
Hampshire	Winchester
Wiltshire	Salisbury
Dorsetshire	Dorset
Somersetshire	Wells
Devonshire	Exeter
Cornwall	Launceston

"London contains nearly a million of inhabitants, is twenty miles in circumference, and is the largest and most opulent city in the world."

After giving such an account as this of almost every country in the globe, Mr. Goldsmith gives some geographical questions, problems and questions on the use of the globes, and a vocabulary of the proper names of places, divided and accented in the way in which they are usually pronounced.

ART. XVII. *Practical Arithmetic; or the Definitions and Rules in whole Numbers, Fractions Vulgar and Decimal, exemplified by a large Collection of Questions relating to Business: including Rules and Examples of Mental Calculations and Abbreviations in most Parts of Arithmetic. The whole combining Theory with Practice: with Notes.* By J. RICHARDS. 8vo. pp. 160.

THE multiplication table used by Mr. Richards extends as far as 12×19; by means of which and the common pence table, most of the calculations requisite in the common routine of retail business, and in making out bills, may be effected with accuracy and expedition, without the use of the pen. In almost all cases the habit is acquired even at present by long and frequent practice, but the rules here laid down will considerably promote this desirable facility. The abbreviations of the common rules we do not much approve of; they are thus rendered less intelligible to the learner, and no other advantage can counterbalance this defect.

Digitized by Google

CHAPTER IX.

BIOGRAPHY.

THE richness of the Biographical Department, in the literary history of the last year, atones, in a considerable degree, for the deficiencies and worthlessness which unfortunately characterise some of the other divisions. Not only have the lives of several eminent character, already known and recorded, been written afresh, and presented to the public in a new light, and with additional circumstances of interest; but some of the distinguished moderns, lately deceased, have, during the last twelvemonth, been worthily recorded, and associated with the illustrious of former ages, who, by general consent, have been selected to serve as models and examples of human nature.

If we estimate the merit by the degree of interest excited, Mr. Hayley's Life of Cowper undoubtedly demands the earliest notice. It must not be concealed, however, that this is less owing to the abilities of the biographer, than to the touching and melancholy circumstances in the life of the author, the tender sprightliness which distinguishes his numerous letters, and the uncommon pathos that breathes in some of the poetical pieces, which are here for the first time laid before the public. The late Dr. Geddes has found a worthy memorialist in Mr. Good; whose congeniality of attachment to oriental literature, has peculiarly qualified him to estimate the merit of his friend on those topics, upon which his future reputation must mainly depend. The uneventful, though by no means useless life of Dr. Reid, has been sketched by Professor Stewart; who has, at the same time, vindicated his metaphysical system, from the general objections that have been urged against it. The life of the gallant Admiral Earl Howe, has been written by Mr. Mason; and we are indebted to a female pen for a particular and highly interesting biography of General Zieten, one of the ablest warriors of the great Frederick of Prussia, and no less distinguished for his moral worth than his military talents. The publication of Lady Wortley Montague's Correspondence, by Mr. Dallaway, has not only established the compleat authenticity of her celebrated letters from Turkey, but has raised her to the very highest rank among the epistolary writers of Europe, for the combination of brilliant wit, glowing description and sound sagacious observation on life and manners. Mr. Godwin has written the Life of Chaucer on a new plan, which we trust will for ever remain unique. Dr. Aikin has furnished a large and valuable contribution to Biographical History by the publication of the fourth volume of his General Biography; and our annual List is swelled, though not greatly increased in value by the Revolutionary Plutarch, Public Characters for 1803, &c. &c.

Digitized by Google

ART. I. *The Life and posthumous Writings of William Cowper, Esq.* By WILLIAM HAYLEY, *Esq.* 2 vols. 4to.

GENIUS and virtue in union, never fail to excite the interest of all who contemplate them; and when misfortune is added, all the sympathetic emotions are irresistibly called into action. This concurrence was exemplified in an uncommon degree in the late *William Cowper*; whose poetical talents broke forth with a lustre that astonished all readers, while the tokens displayed in his works of exalted piety and warm benevolence on the one hand, and of a deeply wounded spirit on the other, inspired general esteem and regret. Curiosity was powerfully awakened to the history of such a man; and as it was imperfectly gratified during his life, the public impatiently expected fuller information after his decease. Every one was apprised, that various reasons of delicacy existed, which might prohibit an undisguised narrative of all that concerned him; but it was hoped, that enough of the veil might be drawn aside, to exhibit the true features of his singular character, and the principal circumstances by which it was formed. When it was understood that the office of his biographer had devolved upon an eminent writer, who had enjoyed a great share of his intimacy, and might be supposed to have obtained access to all existing memorials respecting him, little doubt was entertained that a valuable and interesting publication would be the result. It is our business to consider in what degree the general expectation has been fulfilled in the work before us.

Mr. Hayley has adopted a mode of biographical writing, which has proved popular in some late instances, and certainly possesses some advantages, that of making the subject, in a great measure, his own historian, by interweaving in the narrative all his familiar letters, which relate the events of his life, or display the sentiments of his mind. This method is lively and entertaining, and gives with it a strong impression of authenticity; it has, however, obvious defects. Frequently, no one is less to be depended upon in the representation of events, or of principles and motives, than the person to whom they belong; and it is from the sagacious and impartial biographer alone, that we can expect a statement, as shows the man as he really is, stript of the mask of self love. Further, the thread of narrative is broken, and all due proportion of length, to importance of matter, destroyed by such an intermixture. On the whole, we cannot consider it as a just model of this species of composition; and we are persuaded, that it will seldom be employed, unless where the biographer is conscious of a paucity of materials for his own share of the work, or of some nice and delicate points in the story, upon which he does not choose to express himself with the responsibility of an author. That the familiar letters of men of eminence are, of themselves, highly pleasing, no one will call in question; or that they form excellent matter for the use of the biographer, who may, with great advantage, introduce portions of them, as illustrations of character and incident. It is only to this chequered mode of mingling them entire, with the staple of the writer's narration, that we venture to propose our objections.

We have no right to suppose that Mr. Hayley has designedly sunk any information relative to the early history of the subject of his memoirs; but we must lament that this period of his life is passed over with a rapidity which leaves us in the dark, with respect to the most essential points in the formation of his extraordinary character. We are told of an extreme modesty and reserve in his nature, of a shyness and delicacy of feeling, that rendered a public school a scene of terror and torment to him; yet he passed with credit through this school, formed connections with such men as Colman, Lloyd, and Thornton, and, as we have reason to believe, mingled in the pleasures and gaieties of the metropolis, rather distinguished by uncommon mirth and vivacity, than marked with the impress of pensive diffidence. Are we then to imagine that it was the influence of mere *natural temper*, which, at the mature age of thirty-one, rendered the idea of appearing, in an official station, at the bar of the house of lords, so distressing to his mind, as entirely to overwhelm his reason; or rather, to conclude, that some *previous* circumstance had so debilitated and deranged his nervous system, as to reduce him to the brink of that unhappy condition,

Digitized by Google

into which the above incident precipitated him? Surely the latter supposition is most agreeable to what we know of the nature of mental affections, yet we have only vague conjecture to confirm it. Was not compunction for youthful irregularities, probably enhanced by the austerity of a gloomy religious system, the great predisposing cause? Is not this idea inculcated by the mention of an "undescribable load of religious despondency," which clouded his faculties, while under the care of Dr. Cotton, at Saint Alban's? Pity if the *delicacy* of the biographer (which is, indeed, one of his conspicuous features) has, in this instance, precluded the reader's instruction!

The "reviving invalid," after leaving Dr. Cotton's, took up his residence at Huntingdon, where he soon became an inmate of the family of Unwin. This family possessed many qualities, which commanded both affection and esteem; but we cannot think that their opinions and mode of life were calculated to restore Cowper to that calm and reasonable state of mind, which might heal the remaining wounds of his spirit, and settle him in the equanimity of rational piety.—Notwithstanding his biographer speaks of the "lustre of comfort and delight," which succeeded his first gloom, his letters to his relation, Mrs. Cowper, after being domesticated at Mr. Unwin's, imply sentiments which would make the duration of this happy state very precarious. Of the manner in which he passed his time with that family, we shall copy his own account.

"As to amusements, I mean what the world calls such, we have none: the place indeed swarms with them, and cards and dancing are the professed business of almost all the *gentle* inhabitants of Huntingdon.—We refuse to take part in them, or to be accessaries to this way of murthering our time, and by so doing have acquired the name of methodists. Having told you how we do not spend our time, I will next say how we do. We breakfast commonly between eight and nine; till eleven, we read either the scripture, or the sermons of some faithful preacher of these holy mysteries: at eleven we attend divine service, which is performed here twice every day, and from twelve to three we separate, and amuse ourselves as we please. During that interval I either read in my own apartment, or walk, or ride, or work in the garden. We seldom sit an hour after dinner, but, if the weather permits, adjourn to the garden, where with Mrs. Unwin, and her son, I have generally the pleasure of religious conversation till tea time. If it rains, or is too windy for walking, we either converse within doors, or sing some hymns of Martin's collection, and by the help of Mrs. Unwin's harpsichord make up a tolerable concert, in which our hearts, I hope, are the best and most musical performers. After tea we sally forth to walk in good earnest. Mrs. Unwin is a good walker, and we have generally travelled about four miles before we see home again. When the days are short, we make this excursion in the former part of the day, between church time and dinner. At night we read and converse as before, till supper, and commonly finish the evening either with hymns, or a sermon, and last of all the family are called to prayers."

We trust we shall not, by any judicious reader, be reckoned hostile to the spirit of rational devotion, if we give it as our opinion, that such a perpetual recurrence of the same ideas, and those, according to the system adopted by this class of religionists, chiefly of the awful, alarming, self-debasing kind, could not fail of overwhelming such a mind as that of Cowper, naturally prone to timid apprehension, and still infirm from the relics of late derangement. A philosophical biographer, not shackled by the necessity or the inclination of acting the encomiast on every occasion, might have found a fertile and interesting source of reflection in the incidents of this period of Cowper's life. Mr. Hayley, however, has ventured only once slightly to touch on the topic of devotional excesses; he has not even been warmed to any expression of indignant pity, on the circumstance of Cowper's falling under the direction, literary as well as religious, of a person who may deserve the epithet of "benevolent and animated pastor;" but certainly was not the man, in point of education or abilities, to whom the melancholy of a mind, rich in the stores of learning, and animated with pure poetic fire, ought to have been committed. It appears that such a genius was suffered for years to discontinue all proper exercise of intellectual improvement, and to waste its efforts upon methodistical hymns, and versions of the reveries of quietism!

Mr. Hayley's extreme caution on this subject, is shown by his passing over without remark, one of the most striking exemplifications of that state of religious opinion, in which Cowper had sunk, and which was so manifestly instrumental in producing the dreadful despe-

Digitized by Google

ence under which he so long laboured. This was the narrative which he drew up, and which Mr. Newton thought fit to *publish*, of the sickness and death of his brother, the Rev. John Cowper.—This brother, who is recorded in the Task, as

——— "A man of worth,
A man of letters, and of manners too!
Of manners, sweet as virtue always wears,
When gay good-humour dresses her in smiles,"

was persecuted on his death-bed by his only affectionate but deluded relative, in order to alarm him with the desperate state of his soul, because he had not yet been impressed with that sense of his own vileness, and of the exclusive efficacy of the *Redeemer's* blood to avert the wrath of God, which his sect supposes essential to salvation. We confess that this narrative, which Mr. Hayley represents as so likely to awaken sentiments of piety, "here it may be most desirable to have them awakened," affected us with a more humiliating and shuddering sense of the dangerous nature of enthusiasm, than almost any thing we had before perused; and could we in the least wonder, that a mind so haunted by terrific images, soon after fell into a state of derangement, which rendered a long period of years a scene of the most exquisite sufferings.

His recovery, or rather the remission of his paroxysm (for, poor man! he never recovered), was marked by the composition of those poems which form his first volume. They exhibit both the remnance of an earnest and full-fraught mind, and the gloom and bile of religious severity; yet they display a fund of poetical powers which Mr. Hayley has justly appreciated, and which must hence alone secure them from that neglect which they at first experienced from the public.

A new æra in the poet's life commences from his acquaintance with the lively Lady Austen, the inspirer of "The Task," and "John Gilpin." We cannot but wonder that the biographer, notwithstanding his systematic care to conceal nobody, could forbear, on the first change in the spirits and purposes of Cowper, when he enjoyed a social intercourse with this lady, Lady Hesketh, the Throgmortons, and other persons of polished and liberal manners, to speculate a little on the probable difference in his character and fate, had he fortunately, on his first recovery from mental derangement, escaped the gloom of methodism, and soberly partaken of the ordinary pleasures of cultivated society. That he would ever have been a tranquilly happy man, we do not suppose; his spirits were naturally too infirm and variable, for the attainment of equanimity; but that horrid phantom of final reprobation, which never, but at intervals, was absent from his fancy, would probably not have existed under a different course of mental discipline. It seems, however, for a considerable time to have faded before the sunshine of cheerful converse and literary reputation; and his letters, at this period, are illuminated with that pleasantry and sportive humour, which formed a radical part of his singular composition.

The most fortunate change in his situation and circumstances, was occasioned by the kindness and attachment of his cousin, Lady Hesketh; who, after having long lost sight of him in a residence abroad, and the performance of domestic duties, was reminded of him by the celebrity he was acquiring from the publication of his second volume of poems. She was now a widow, in affluent circumstances; and by a very kind letter, recommenced the frank and affectionate intercourse which had subsisted between them in their juvenile years. Of all the admirable letters of the poet, with which this publication is enriched (and which, indeed, constitute its chief value), none are more pleasing than those written to this amiable and worthy relative. We shall transcribe part of one, as the most delightful display we ever remember to have seen, of the feelings of a noble mind in accepting a generous offer. We trust we have no readers, whose hearts will not beat with affection both to the giver and the receiver.

"My dearest cousin,

"Whose last most affectionate letter has run in my head ever since I received it, and which I now sit down to answer two days sooner than the post will serve me. I thank you for it, and with a warmth for which I am sure you will give me credit, though I do not spend many words in describing it. I do not seek new friends, not being altogether sure that I should find them, but have unspeakable pleasure in being still beloved by an old one. I hope that now our correspondence has suffered its last interruption, and that we shall go down together to the grave, chatting

Digitized by Google

and chirping as merrily as such a scene of things as this will permit.

"I am happy that my poems have pleased you. My volume has afforded me no such pleasure at any time, either while I was writing it, or since its publication, as I have derived from yours, and my uncle's opinion of it. I make certain allowances for partiality, and for that peculiar quickness of taste, with which you both relish what you like, and after all draw-backs upon those accounts duly made, find myself rich in the measure of your approbation that still remains. But above all I honour John Gilpin, since it was he who first encouraged you to write. I made him on purpose to laugh at, and he served his purpose well; but I am now in debt to him for a more valuable acquisition than all the laughter in the world amounts to, the recovery of my intercourse with you, which is to me inestimable. My benevolent and generous cousin, when I was once asked if I wanted any thing, and given delicately enough to understand that the enquirer was ready to supply all my occasions, I thankfully and civilly, but positively declined the favour. I neither suffer, nor have suffered any such inconveniencies as I had not much rather endure, than come under obligations of that sort to a person comparatively with yourself a stranger to me. But to you I answer otherwise. I know you thoroughly, and the liberality of your disposition; and have that consummate confidence in the sincerity of your wish to serve me, that delivers me from all awkward constraint, and from all fear of trespassing by acceptance. To you, therefore, I reply, yes. Whensoever, and whatsoever, and in what manner soever you please; and add moreover, that my affection for the giver is such, as will encrease to me tenfold the satisfaction that I shall have in receiving. It is necessary however that I should let you a little into the state of my finances, that you may not suppose them more narrowly circumscribed than they are. Since Mrs. Unwin and I have lived at Olney, we have had but one purse; although during the whole of that time, till lately, her income was nearly double mine. Her revenues indeed are now in some measure reduced, and do not much exceed my own; the worst consequence of this is, that we are forced to deny ourselves some things which hitherto we have been better able to afford, but they are such things as neither life, nor the well being of life depend upon. My own income has been better than it is, but when it was best, it would not have enabled me to live as my connexions demanded that I should, had it not been combined with a better than itself, at least at this end of the kingdom. Of this I had full proof during three months that I spent in lodgings at Huntingdon, in which time by the help of good management, and a clear notion of economical matters, I contrived to spend the income of a twelve month. Now, my beloved cousin, you are in possession of the whole case as it stands. Strain no points to your own inconvenience, or hurt, for there is no need of it; but indulge yourself in communicating (no matter what) that you can spare without missing it, since by so doing you will be sure to add to the comforts of my life, one of the sweetest that I can enjoy, a token and proof of your affection."

Every subsequent letter expresses increasing pleasure in this renewed connexion, which was soon to be augmented by the lady's personal presence. How sweetly tender and playful is the following, just before her arrival!

"Ah! my Cousin, you begin already to fear and quake. What a hero am I, compared with you. I have no fears of you. On the contrary, I am as bold as a lion. I wish that your carriage were even now at the door You should soon see with how much courage I would face you. But what cause have you for fear? Am I not your cousin, with whom you have wandered in the fields of Freemantle, and at Bevis's Mount Who used to read to you, to laugh with you till our sides have ached, at any thing, or nothing? And am I in these respects at altered? You will not find me so, but ju as ready to laugh and to wander as you ev knew me. A cloud perhaps may come ov me now and then, for a few hours, but fo clouds I was never exempted. And are y you the identical Cousin with whom I ha performed all these feats? The very Har whom I saw, for the first time, at De Gre in Norfolk Street? (it was on a Sunday, w you came with my Uncle and Aunt to dr tea there, and I had dined there, and w just going back to Westminster.) If th things are so, and I am sure that you ca gainsay a syllable of them all, then this c sequence follows; that I do not promise self more pleasure from your company t I shall be sure to find. Then you are Cousin, in whom I always delighted, an whom I doubt not that I shall delight, to my latest hour. But this wicked co maker has sunk my spirits. What a mi ble thing it is to depend, in any degree, the accomplishment of a wish, and that so fervent, on the punctuality of a cre who I suppose was never punctual in life! Do tell him, my dear, in ord quicken him, that if he performs his mise, he shall make my coach when I one, and that if he performs it not, I most assuredly employ some other mas

By Lady Hesketh's means, Co with Mrs. Unwin were removed Olney to a much more eligible situa at the neighbouring village of Wa where he seems to have passed the piest years of his declining life, occu with his translation of Homer, an

Digitized by Google

habits of free intercourse with polite and *friendly* neighbours.

Another relation is also at this period introduced on the scene, destined to be the poet's most assiduous and affectionate comforter when he most stood in need of domestic consolation, and highly interesting to the reader wherever he appears. This was Mr. John Johnson, of Norfolk, a student at Cambridge, and afterwards a clergyman. Cowper seems to have regarded him with a love that made his company always a cordial to him. It is thus expressed in one of the earliest letters to him:

"My Boy, I long to see thee again. It has happened some way or other, that Mrs. Unwin and I have conceived a great affection for thee. That I should, is the less to be wondered at, (because thou art a shred of my own mother); neither is the wonder great, that she should fall into the same predicament; for she loves every thing that I love. You will observe, that your own moral right to be beloved makes no part of the consideration. There is nothing that I touch with so much tenderness as the laxity of a young man; because, I know myself extremely susceptible he is of impressions that might hurt him in that particular part of his composition. If you should ever prove a coxcomb, from which character I stand just now at a greater distance than any young man I know, it shall never be said that I have made you one; no, you will owe nothing by me but the honour of being much valued by a poor poet, who can do you no good while he lives, and has nothing to leave you when he dies. If you can be contented to be dear to me on these conditions, so you shall; but other terms, more advantageous than these, or more inviting, I have I to propose."

All the other letters to this young man are so compounded of easy hilarity and cordial affection, that they inspire the most amiable ideas both of the writer and his correspondent.

In 1792, the acquaintance commenced between Cowper and his biographer, with a complimentary sonnet and letter on the part of the latter. It was maintained with great cordiality on both sides; and Mr. Hayley deserves much praise for the solid and effectual friendship he manifested on various trying occasions towards his brother poet, to whose genius he always pays the warmest homage. He prevailed on Cowper and Mrs. Unwin to visit him at his delightful seat of Eartham; and omitted nothing that the kindest and most delicate attention could suggest, to render it pleasing and salutary to both. His relation of the circumstances of this visit is one of the most agreeable passages of the biography.

Two years more did not elapse before the gloom began again to gather thick round the distempered mind of Cowper, and the remainder of his history is scarcely any thing but a picture of varied woe. The kindest attention of friends (and few men have ever inspired more kindness), the public applause, and the honourable and substantial testimony to his merit displayed in the royal grant of a pension of 300l. per annum, were unable to raise him from that fixed depression into which he was plunged by the horrors of religious despair. He first saw his aged and beloved companion reduced to second childhood, and daily sinking to the tomb. The manner in which he was affected by this spectacle is described by him in some simple and artless stanzas, perhaps the most exquisitely tender that were ever written. When, however, she was finally taken away, he was too far gone in self-affliction to shew much sensibility. He still, however, exercised his pen on various subjects, and attended with some diligence to the correction of his Homer. His intellectual faculties therefore were not decayed, though the tone of his spirits was destroyed. His last original composition was evidently dictated by the pangs of inward distress: it is entitled "The Castaway," and relates the pathetic story, from Anson's Voyage, of a seaman fallen over-board and necessarily left to perish. The concluding stanza points the application.

"No voice divine the storm allay'd,
No light propitious shone,
When snatch'd from all effectual aid,
We perish'd, each alone;
But I beneath a rougher sea,
And whelm'd in deeper gulphs than he."

A gradual decline in his health attended his mental sufferings, under which he tranquilly sunk on April 25, 1800.

We have already given our opinion on the deficiencies of the biographical part of this work, and we are persuaded they will be felt by every one who expected that the obscurity which hung upon that part of Cowper's life, which

Digitized by Google

permanently influenced his character and fortune, would have been cleared up by his friend. It would, however, be an injustice to Mr. Hayley to deny that his narrative is in many respects highly interesting, and that he has succeeded in impressing upon the reader's mind a very lively as well as captivating image of the excellent person whom he commemorates. As a painter he has, indeed, one defect. Not only his principal figure, but all the accessory ones, are set off with such a glare of showy colouring, that distinction of feature is almost lost in the general lustre. To speak without a metaphor—we might imagine that when he sat down to compose, he had provided himself with a list of all the laudatory and ornamental epithets in the English language, on which he rang the changes in conjunction with every name that occurred. It would not be easy to find a single person mentioned without some panegyrical addition; and this perpetual strain of compliment throws a finical and artificial air over his language, totally repugnant to the tone of manly sincerity.

We have already said that the great value of this publication consists in the letters of Cowper, which are, indeed, some of the most exquisite specimens of the true epistolary style that our language affords; and it is truly wonderful, that a man of a shy and retired disposition, long buried in an obscure retreat, and absorbed in deep melancholy, should have been capable of a graceful and polished familiarity of address, scarcely equalled by any of those who have been most conversant with the world. The humour, vivacity, elegance and ease of these artless effusions have scarcely ever been surpassed; and the honest affectionate heart that animates them is a perpetual charm. Were this the sole present which the editor had made to the public, he would merit its gratitude. But he has likewise collected many other fugitive compositions of his friend which will give pleasure to the admirers of Cowper, light and careless as many of them are. Upon the whole, it cannot be doubted but that these volumes will not only engage the present curiosity of the public, but make a permanent addition to English literature.

ART. II. *Life of Geoffrey Chaucer, the early English Poet, including Memoirs of his near Friend and Kinsman, John of Gaunt, Duke of Lancaster, &c.* By W. Godwin. 4to. 2 vols.

BEFORE we proceed to examine these volumes, it is necessary to state the design with which they were written. This should always, if possible, be related in the author's own words.

"The first and direct object of this work, is to erect a monument to his name, and, as far as the writer was capable of doing it, to produce an interesting and amusing book, in modern English, enabling the reader, who might shrink from the labour of mastering the phraseology of Chaucer, to do justice to his illustrious countryman. It seemed probable also that, if the author were successful in making a popular work, many might by its means be induced to study the language of our ancestors, and the elements and history of our vernacular speech; a study at least as improving as that of the language of Greece and Rome.

"A further idea, which was continually present to the mind of the author while writing, obviously contributed to give animation to his labours, and importance to his undertaking. The full and complete life of a poet would include an extensive survey of the manners, the opinions, the arts, and the literature of the age in which the poet lived.—This is the only way in which we can become truly acquainted with the history of the mind, and the causes which made him what he was. We must observe what Chaucer felt and saw, how he was educated, what species of learning he pursued, and what were the objects, the events, and the persons successively presented to his view, before we can strictly and philosophically understand his biography. To delineate the state of England, such as Chaucer saw it, in the point of view in which it can be delineated is the subject of this book.

"But while engaged in this study the reader may expect to gain an additional advantage, beside that of understanding the poet. If the knowledge of contemporary objects is the biography of Chaucer, the converse of the proposition will also be true; the biography of Chaucer will be the picture of a certain portion of the literary, political and domestic history of our country. The person of Chaucer may in this view be considered as the central figure in a miscellaneous painting, giving unity and individual attention to the otherwise disjointed parts with which the canvas is diversified. A man of moral sentiment or of taste will confirm, that a more becoming central figure

Digitized by Google

the delineation of England in the fourteenth century can be found, than the Englishman who gives name to these volumes.

"I can pretend only to have written a superficial work. My studies, if any thing of mine deserves so serious a name, have chiefly been engaged upon other subjects; and I came in a manner a novice to the present undertaking. Had the circumstances under which I have written been different, I should have been anxious to investigate to the bottom the various topics of which I have treated.

"Perhaps, however, I have not wholly failed in the execution of my design. I was desirous of convincing my countrymen, that there existed mines of instruction and delight, with which they had hitherto little acquaintance. I have led my readers, with however unconfirmed a speech and inadequate powers, to the different sources of information; and, if I have been unable to present what should satisfy a vigorous and earnest curiosity, I have wished to say enough to awaken their enquiries, and communicate to them some image of men and times, which have long since been no more.

"It was my purpose to produce a work of a new species. Antiquities have too generally been regarded as the province of men of cold lumpers and sterile imaginations, writers who by their phlegmatic and desultory industry have brought discredit upon a science, which is perhaps beyond all others fraught with wisdom, moral instruction, and intellectual improvement. Their books may indeed be considerably useful to the patient enquirer, who would delineate the picture of past times for himself; but they can scarcely incite energy; and their contents are put together with such narrow views, so total an absence of discrimination, and such an unsuspecting ignorance of the materials of which man is made, that the perusal of them tends for the most part to stupify the sense, and to imbue the soul with moping and lifeless dejection.

"It was my wish, had my power held equal pace with my strong inclination, to paint the workings of fancy and the spirit of philosophy into the investigation of ages past. I was anxious to rescue for a moment the illustrious dead from the jaws of the grave, and make them pass in review before me, to question their spirits and record their answers. I wished to make myself their master of the ceremonies, to introduce my reader to their familiar speech, and to enable him to converse for the instant as if he had lived with them."

A dissertation upon the *period* (as Mr. Godwin chuses to call it) of the birth of Chaucer, precedes the work. It is satisfactory and curious, proving, or at least attempting to prove, that when the poet declared himself upon a trial to be forty years old and upward, he was in reality fifty-eight.

Chaucer was born in London, 1328, and it may, says his biographer, with some plausibility be inferred, that his father was a merchant. Now, he having been born in London, it is proper to examine what sort of a city London was at that time; therefore, the first chapter of Mr. Godwin's Life of Chaucer, is a history and description of the city of London!

The second chapter is upon the state of learning in England, under the Norman and Plantagenet princes, with reference to Chaucer's education. The third professes to treat of the school-boy amusements of Chaucer, the whole information upon which important topic is comprised in this sentence, "there were other authors who it can scarcely be questioned, furnished some of the favourite recreations of his boyish years; these were the writers of romance:" therefore, Chaucer having read romances, and romances being connected with chivalry, and chivalry having grown out of the feudal system, Mr. Godwin tells us *all he knows* concerning the feudal system, chivalry, and romance, in all which the reader, who has read the commonest modern books upon these subjects, will find nothing that he did not know before.

"After the consideration of the scene in which a man has spent his boyish years, and the studies and modes of imagination to which his early attention has been directed, there is nothing which can be of more importance in moulding the youthful mind, than the religious sentiments which in our tender age have been communicated to us. As we have no direct information as to this particular in the education of Chaucer, it is fair to fix our ideas respecting him at the middle point, and to believe that he was brought up in all that institution which, relative to the times when he was born, was regarded as seemly, decent, and venerable, neither deviating into the excesses of libertinism on the one hand, nor of a minute and slavish spirit of devotion on the other."

It is indeed *probable* that Chaucer was brought up in what his biographer calls the holy "apostolical Roman Catholic faith;" for as there existed in England nothing but Jews and Catholics, and as we know he was not a Jew, it may perhaps be affirmed that he was, or, to use the historian's favourite tense of indue-

Digitized by Google

tion, that he must have been a Catholic. ——Proceeding, therefore, upon this supposition, Mr. Godwin describes, in his fourth chapter, the establishments and practices of the church of England in the fourteenth century.

When the poet was a young man he must have heard the minstrels: so Chaucer and the minstrels are the fifth chapter. This leads to a dissertation on the origin of the English stage, profane dramas, miracle plays, pageants, mysteries, and masks, in which not a single fact is added to the information contained in Warton and Henry.

The feast of fools and the feast of the ass, feasts and pageants, hunting and hawking, archery, athletic exercises, robbery and tournaments fill another long chapter; because all these must have affected the tone of manners and the popular mind in the days of Chaucer.

Chaucer must have seen castles and cathedrals and palaces: so the eighth chapter is upon Gothic architecture, and contains a full description of a castle, from Grose! And the ninth chapter treats upon sculpture and painting, metallic arts, embroidery and music; because the state of all these arts must have influenced the mind of Chaucer.

In the tenth chapter we find Chaucer at Cambridge; and here, having travelled over 185 pages, we hoped we had arrived at the subject of the book; but here we find the state of the universities, the monastic and mendicant orders, the schoolmen, and the natural philosophy of the fourteenth century. At the end of this comes a recapitulation.

"It was the good fortune of Chaucer that he had led the early years of his life in scenes of concourse and variety, that he was condemned to no premature and compulsory solitude, and that his mind was not suffered to vegetate in that indolence and vacancy which, when they occupy an extensive portion of human life, are so destructive and deadly to the intellectual powers. He was born in London. In the midst of this famous and flourishing metropolis he was, as he expresses it, 'forth growen.' His father was probably a merchant; and Chaucer was furnished, from his earliest hours of observation, with an opportunity of remarking upon the insensible growth of that new rank of men, the burgesses, which about this time gave a new face to the political constitutions of Europe. Private and domestic education had scarcely any where been heard of; and Chaucer, in all probability, frequented some of those populous and tumultuary schools so circumstantially described by William Fitzstephen. Here his mind was excited by example, and stimulated by rivalship; he passed much of his time in the society of his equals, observed their passions, and acted, and was acted upon in turn, by their sentiments and pursuits. When he had finished his classes here, he was removed to Cambridge, where six thousand fellow-students waited to receive him. He had no difficulty in finding solitude when his inclination prompted him to seek it; and we may be certain that a mind which relished so exquisitely the beauties of nature, sought it often; but he was never palled with it. The effect of both these circumstances is conspicuous in his writings. He is fond of allegories and reveries, for oft the post

—— 'brush'd with hasty step the dews 'away,
'To meet the sun;'

and he is the poet of manners, because he frequented the haunts of men, and was acquainted with his species in all their varieties of modification."

Some centuries ago, when an author was about to write a book, he considered that all his readers were unlearned; that they who should read his volume had perhaps never read another; and therefore, he usually gave them the whole stock of his knowledge, beginning generally with Adam, and so proceeding regularly down to his own subject. This is the case with Mr. Godwin: he came "in a manner a novice to the present undertaking;" and taking it for granted that all those who read his book were to be as ignorant as he was himself when he began to write it, he has therefore told them all he knows. In these chapters which we have noticed there is positively nothing but what is to be found in modern authors; in Warton, in Henry, in Grose, in St. Palaye, Percy, Ritson, and Ellis; books which are in every private library, at least in every library where two quarto volumes upon the life of Chaucer can be expected to find a place.

"Before we enter upon a particular examination of any of Chaucer's poems, it is proper that we should pay some attention to the circumstance of their being written in the English tongue. This language, as we have already been remarked, after the accession of the Norman race to the throne of this island, was consigned to oblivion and contempt, driven from the seats and refinements of learning, and confined for the most part to the cottages of the peasantry. Before the period of Chaucer, we had already

Digitized by Google

poets, Wace and Benoit may most properly be considered as ours, and the English monarchs were among the most conspicuous and munificent in the list of patrons of the literature of that age. But Wace and Benoit wrote the language of the Northern French. English indeed, or Saxon (for our ideas on this subject will be rendered more accurate by our considering these as two names for the same thing), had always continued the language of the bulk of the inhabitants of this island; and a few efforts from time to time show themselves to perpetuate our native tongue in the form of poetry. Layamon, an English monk, translated the Brut of Wace in no long time after it was written; and Robert of Gloucester, and Robert Manning, composed certain rhyming chronicles of the history of England, about the end of the thirteenth century. But none of these attempts were much calculated to excite the ardor and ambition of their contemporaries: the English continued to be the language of barbarity and rudeness; while the French had in its favour the fashion which countenanced it, the refinement of those who wrote it, and the variety and multitude of their productions and inventions."

This passage contains many errors: to consider Saxon and English as two names for the same thing, would be as absurd as to consider the Norman French and English, or Latin and Italian, as the same thing. The translation of Layamon is in simple and unmixed, though very barbarous Saxon. These are the words of Mr. Ellis, whose assertions as to fact are substantiated by proof; and the same work of Wace was translated into English by Robert Manning, or as he is commonly called Robert de Brunne.

"Chaucer saw immediately in which direction the path of fame was most open to his ambition; that it was by the cultivation of his native tongue: and his seeing this at the early age of eighteen, is no common proof of the magnitude of his powers. It has been observed that the English language rose with the rise of the Commons; an event which first discovered itself in the reign of Edward I. and which was attained and fixed under Edward I. Chaucer perhaps perceived, and was the first to perceive, that from this time the English tongue must necessarily advance in purity, in popularity, and in dignity, and finally triumph over every competitor within the circuit of its native soil. The poet therefore, in the realm of England, who wrote for permanence, was bound by the most urgent motives to write in this language.

"Nor was the prosperous career our language was about to run, by any means the least of the strongest argument for recurring to the use of it. For the poet to attempt to express his thoughts in French, was for him voluntarily to subject himself to many of the disadvantages which attend the attempt to write poetry in a dead language. What is so written can scarcely be entirely worthy of the name of poetry. It can but weakly convey the facility of our thoughts, or the freshness of our impressions. Chaucer was a genuine Englishman, a native of our island, hitherto confined within our shores, and born in the class of our burgesses and merchants. French was to him probably like a foreign language: all his boyish feelings had been expressed in English. English words were mingled and associated with all the scenes he had beheld, and all the images he had conceived. For a man to communicate the thoughts he has formed in one language in the words of another, is a position not less unfortunate, than to be condemned to contemplate a beautiful woman, not by turning our eyes immediately upon her person, but by regarding her figure as shadowed in a mirror.

"To master any language is a task too great for the narrow space of human life. It is perfectly true, however paradoxical it may sound, that the man never yet existed who was completely possessed of the treasures of his native tongue. Many delicacies and shades of meaning, many happy combinations and arrangements of words, are familiar to one man, of which his neighbour is ignorant; while, on the other hand, his neighbour possesses stores of a similar sort, to which he is a stranger. Those also which have once been observed by any man, obviously divide themselves into two classes; one which he has always at hand, and may be conceived in a certain sense as making part of himself; and the other, phrases and expressions which he once knew and comprehended, but which now he rarely remembers or has totally forgotten. If then no man ever yet possessed the treasures of his native tongue, what presumption or fatuity ought it to be accounted, for him voluntarily to undergo the disadvantage of expressing himself in another? Add to which; even when we have mastered the supposed foreign language, we can still give it no more than the copy of the words of our early years, words which relatively to us may almost be considered as the ideas themselves."

The question is next considered whether Chaucer or Gower were the earlier English writer, and it is decided that Chaucer "is well entitled to be considered as original in his attempt to model his native tongue to the language of poetry." That Chaucer was our first great poet, and is one of our few great poets, will not be disputed; but the praise which is here claimed for him, is without foundation: he took the language as he found it, and improved it

Digitized by Google

as every man of genius writing in a rude language has done and must do in every country. Monks, and minstrels, and ballad-singers, had preceded him; and the metrical romances to which he refers in his Rime of Sir Thopas, however inferior in many other respects, are written in language as nearly, or more nearly, resembling modern English, and in metres more intricate and more harmonious, than any of his productions. The remainder of this chapter is employed upon the French, Provençal, and Italian poets.

In the next chapter, the Court of Love is analyzed. This was the poet's first production. The faults and beauties of the plan are fairly appreciated, and some deductions inferred relative to the author himself. This is followed by some remarks upon ancient and modern English poetry.

"Nothing can be more pernicious than the opinion which idleness and an incurious temper alone have hitherto sufficed to maintain, that the modern writers of verse in any country are to be styled the poets of that country. This absurdity was never carried to a greater extreme than in the book entitled Johnson's Lives of the most eminent English Poets. The first poet in his series is Cowley; and, if the title of his book were properly filled up, it would stand, Lives of the most eminent English poets, from the decline of poetry in England to the time of the author.—The brilliant and astonishing ages of our poetry are wholly omitted. Milton is the only author in Johnson's series, who can lay claim to a true sublimity of conception, and an inexhaustible storehouse of imagery. Pope is an elegant writer, and expresses himself with admirable neatness and compression; Dryden is a man of an ardent and giant mind, who pours out his sentiments in a fervour and tumult of eloquence, and imparts an electricity of pleasure to every reader capable of understanding his excellence. But it is not in Dryden and Pope, in their contemporaries and successors, that we are told to look for the peculiar and appropriate features of poetry, for that which separates and distinguishes poetry from every other species of composition. It is Spenser, it is Shakespear, it is Fletcher, with some of their contemporaries and predecessors, who are our genuine poets, who are the men that an Englishman of a poetical soul would gather round him when he challenges all the world, and stands up and proudly asks where, in all the ages of literature and refinement, he is to find their competitors and rivals?

"It is easy to perceive, and has been verified in the example of all ages and climates, that poetry has been the genuine associate of the earlier stages of literature.—There is then a freshness in language admirably adapted to those emotions which poetry delights to produce. Our words are then the images of things, the representatives of visible and audible impressions: after a while too many of our words become cold and scientific, perfectly suited to the topics of reasoning, but unfitted for imagery and passion; and dealing in abstractions and generalities, instead of presenting to us afresh the impressions of sense.

"The attempts of the poet are boldest and most successful when the whole field is open to him, when he must seek for models in distant ages and countries, not when the excellence to which he aspires is pre-occupied by poets in his own language, whose merit and reputation he cannot hope to equal. Criticism too, though it may make many judges, never perhaps ripened one genius. It is a deadly foe to bold and adventurous attempts, and scarcely leaves any hope of success, but to him who aspires to please us just as we have been pleased an hundred times before.

"One circumstance which has contributed to the neglect into which the works of Chaucer have fallen, is the supposition that his language is obsolete. It is not obsolete. It is not more obscure than the language of Spenser, and scarcely more than that of Shakespear. Most of the English writers from the death of Chaucer to the times of Elizabeth, are more obscure than our poet. The English tongue underwent little alteration till the reign of that princess.

"Chaucer's style, in his principal works is easy, flowing, and unaffected; and such a style, whatever may have been the circumstances of the writer, can almost never be obscure. We take ten times more pains to familiarise ourselves with the idioms of Italy and France, than would be necessary to master that of the old English writers; while this latter acquisition would be forty times more useful, since, in addition to the intrinsic merits of their works, we should cultivate the fine poetical and moral feeling annexed to the contemplation of a venerable antiquity; and since it is only by observing the progressive stages of a language, that we can become thoroughly acquainted with its genius, its characteristic features, and its true sources. All that repels us in the language of Chaucer is merely superficial appearance and first impression: contemplate it only with a little perseverance, and what seemed to be deformity will, in many instances, be converted into beauty. A fortnight's application would be sufficient to make us feel ourselves perfectly at home with this patriarch of our poetry"

With the opinion here expressed, we most fully and unequivocally agree. Mr. Godwin has, however, fallen into a very common but very unaccountable mistake, in asserting that the language of

Digitized by Google

Chaucer is not more obscure than the language of Spenser: Spenser has given an appearance of antiquity to his words by frequent ellisions, and by a forced orthography; but the words which actually require a reference to the glossary are so few, that neither man, woman, or child, of common understanding and common attainments, will ever feel obstructed by them in the perusal. The different size of the glossaries to the two poets will alone decide the question. We will venture to affirm, that a woman will experience more verbal difficulties in the Paradise Lost, and ten-fold more in the macaronic prose of Dr. Johnson, than in the Faery Queen. With regard to Shakespere, Chaucer is certainly far less obscure,—but who does not think *himself* capable of understanding Shakespere? His obscurity lies in intricacy of *syntax*, in remoteness of allusion, in rapid association, in profound thought or profounder feeling,—not in words; and that the mass of mankind, if they understand the words singly, will take it for granted that they understand their collective meaning, whether they have a meaning or no, is a fact upon which the reputation of many a modern writer is founded.

To our astonishment we find that the next chapter is entirely devoted to the plague of London in 1349! because it must have "produced a great effect upon Chaucer!" Doubtless when in the year 2200 of the vulgar era, (if the vulgar era shall so long last) some future philosopher shall write the life of William Godwin, in quarto or in folio: that the work may be proportioned in magnitude to his fame, he will insert the history of *La Grippe*, presuming that that influenza must have "produced a great effect" upon Mr. Godwin. And we do therefore exhort Mr. Godwin carefully to preserve and deposit the receipts or prescriptions from which he derived most benefit in that complaint, recollecting that enthusiastic pleasure he should himself have felt, had he *encountered* such a document for his memoirs of Geoffrey Chaucer.

We now come to the Troilus and Creseide. Chaucer had referred to Lollius as the original author, from whom he had translated this tale; and Lydgate expressly mentions, that the title of the original work was *Trophe*. But no such author as Lollius is elsewhere mentioned, or known to have existed; and as the same tale is the subject of Boccaccio's Philostrato, Tyrwhit has supposed the English poem to have been taken from the Italian. In refutation of this opinion, Mr. Godwin offers some judicious remarks.

"Mr. Tyrwhit seems inclined to consider Lollius as the name of a man who had no other existence than in the forgery of Chaucer. But this is a strange hypothesis. What motive had Chaucer for such a forgery? The poem of Troilus and Creseide was certainly not written by Lollius Nibiens, a Roman historian of the third century, to whom it is thoughtlessly ascribed in Speght's and Urry's editions; since it is interspersed with ideas of chivalry, which did not exist till long after that period: and Mr. Tyrwhit perhaps had never heard of any other Lollius. It is surely, however, too hasty a conclusion, because his name has not reached us from any other quarter, to say that he never existed. How many authors, with their memories, even to their very names, may we reasonably suppose to have been lost in the darkness of the middle ages! Not to travel out of the present subject for an illustration, if the Filostrato, a considerable poem of so celebrated an author as Boccaccio, had so nearly perished, who will wonder that the original work, and the name of the author from whom Boccaccio translated it, have now sunk into total oblivion?

"There is a further very strong evidence of the real existence of Lollius, which occurs in the writings of Chaucer. One of our poet's most considerable works is entitled the House of Fame; and in this poem, among a cluster of worthies, he introduces the writers who had recorded the story of Troy. They are as follow: Homer, Dares, Titus (or Dictys) Lollius, Guido dalla Colonna, and Geoffrey of Monmouth.

"Boccaccio is known to have been frequently a translator. Very many of the tales in the Decamerone, that of Grisildis for example, to which we shall soon have occasion to refer, existed before his time. He assures us himself that he translated the Teseide from a Latin original. Is it not more than probable that the Filostrato came from the same source? Is it not obvious to imagine that Chaucer and Boccaccio copied from one original? Translation was peculiarly the employment of the first revivers of learning: nor did they hold it otherwise than in the highest degree honourable, to open to their unlearned countrymen the sacred fountains of knowledge, which had so long been consigned to obscurity and neglect.

"After all, however, the Troilus is by no means the exact counterpart of the Filostrato. To omit minuter differences, the Filostrato is divided into ten books, and the Troilus into only five. Add to which, the Troilus, which consists of about eight thousand lines, contains three thousand more than the Filos-

Digitized by Google

trato. Chaucer is supposed, by Tyrwhit and Warton, to have taken his Knight's Tale from the Tescide of Boccaccio. What has he done in this case? Most materially abridged his original. The Teseide is a poem of about ten thousand lines, and Chaucer has told the same story in little more than two thousand. It is not improbable, indeed, as a poem of Palamon and Arcite, the heroes of the Teseide, was one of Chaucer's early productions, that he first translated the Teseide, and afterward compressed it as we find it in the Canterbury Tales. Abridgment is infinitely a more natural operation in such cases than paraphrase. When a man of taste, divested of the partialities of a parent, surveys critically a poem of length, one of the things most likely to strike him is, that the poem contains superfluities which, with advantage to the general effect, might be lopped away. These considerations, even independently of the direct evidence of Chaucer and Lydgate, would induce an accurate impartial observer to adopt the hypothesis here maintained, that Chaucer in his Troilus went to Boccaccio's original, and not to Boccaccio, for the materials upon which he worked."

These arguments are sensible, and fairly advanced. But Mr. Godwin next proceeds to guess at the age of Lollius; for Lollius having existed, must have existed at some particular period, and therefore may with some degree of probability be assigned to the twelfth century, and considered as the contemporary of Wace and Thomas of Becket, because "there is a propensity in human affairs to ripen minds of nearly the same class and character in different places at the same time!" It is not indeed directly asserted, that Lollius wrote his Trophe at the very time when Joseph of Exeter produced his *De Bello Trojano*, but it is said to be probable,—a thing that may be believed,—in the same diffident tone in which we are told that Chaucer was probably brought up as a Roman Catholic!

The two ensuing chapters are employed in examining the poem of Troilus and Creseide, and the subsequent productions to which it has given birth. A specimen of Sir Francis Kynaston's Latin rhymed translation, might have well been inserted here: it is excellently done, and the effect, singular as it is, very pleasing.

The moral Gower, and philosophical Strode, form the subjects of the next examination. Of Strode little can be known, and nothing added to what is known, till his works shall have been examined, which we here find, according to Tanner, were (at least in part) printed at Venice, with the comments of Alexander Sermoneta, in 1517. Gower's manuscripts are among the many treasures which, to the shame of England, will be suffered to moulder away.

Mr. Godwin now discusses the question whether Chaucer belonged to the Society of the Inner Temple, and concludes by saying that much stress cannot be laid upon the supposition. But tho' the discussion is thus concluded, we must not suppose that the biographer concludes the subject also. No! he has told us that there is little or no reason to believe that Chaucer did study the law; but suppose he had studied the law, what "effect would have been produced upon his mind by this study?" Then comes the history of law in the fourteenth century, as far as Mr. Godwin understands it; and having spent ten pages upon this, he takes up the supposition on which he had before assured us no stress was to be laid, in order to try the effect of this study upon poor Chaucer, whose mind Mr. Godwin chuses to submit to as many experiments as we have seen inflicted upon a *subject*, by Messrs. Pegge and West, at Oxford.

"Chaucer is supposed to have been bred to the bar. If he practised in the profession, for however short a time, he must have contracted some habits of thinking and acting peculiarly appropriated to the man of laws. If he never entered upon actual practice, yet having had the profession in prospect, and frequenting the courts of law for the purpose of observing and commenting upon those modes of proceeding in which he was shortly to engage, he must have experienced some of the same effects.

"It may be amusing to the fancy of a reader of Chaucer's works, to represent to himself the young poet, accoutred in the robes of a lawyer, examining a witness, fixing upon him the keenness of his eye, addressing himself with anxiety and expectation to a jury, or exercising the subtlety of his wit and judgment in the developement of one of those quirks, by which a client was to be rescued from the rigour of strict and unfavouring justice. Perhaps Chaucer, in the course of his legal life, saved a thief from the gallows, and gave him a new chance of becoming a decent and useful member of society; perhaps, by his penetration he discerned and demonstrated that innocence, which to a less able pleader would never have been evident, and which a less able pleader would never have succeeded in restoring triumphant to its place in the community and its fair fame. Perhaps Chaucer pleaded before Tresilian or Brember, and

Digitized by Google

lived to know that those men, whose fiat had silenced his argument, or to whose inferiority of understanding, it may be, he was obliged to vail his honoured head, were led to the basest species of execution, amidst the shouts of a brutish and ignorant multitude.

"We have a right, however, to conclude, from his having early quitted the profession, that he did not love it. The objections which might present themselves to his mind, are serious and weighty. It has an unhappy effect upon the human understanding and temper, for a man to be compelled, in his gravest investigation of an argument, to consider not what is true, but what is convenient. The lawyer never yet existed, who has not boldly urged an objection which he knew to be fallacious, or endeavoured to pass off a weak reason for a strong one. Intellect is the greatest and most sacred of all endowments; and no man ever trifled with it, defending an action to-day which he had arraigned yesterday, or extenuating an offence on one occasion, which, soon after, he painted in the most atrocious colours, with absolute impunity. Above all, the poet, whose judgment should be clear, whose feelings should be uniform and sound, whose sense should be alive to every impression and hardened to none, who is the legislator of generations and the moral instructor of the world, ought never to have been a practising lawyer, or ought speedily to have quitted so dangerous an engagement."

The first part of this extract exemplifies Mr. Godwin's design of carrying 'the workings of fancy into the investigation of ages past." The latter part contains so much sound morality, that it is lamentable to see it tacked on to the tail of such trash and nonsense.

To this period of Chaucer's life, Palamon and Arcite is with some probability attributed, and the translation of Boethius. We next find him at Woodstock, and patronised by Edward III. It is unpleasant to observe with how incorous and invidious a spirit this writer always speaks of Tyrwhit, to whom the venerable poet is under far more lasting obligations than he will ever be to his present biographer. At the commencement of the work it is said that his father was probably a merchant, which is now assumed, and it is inferred, that as he was the son of a merchant, he probably received a competent paternal inheritance.

From this point the work begins to improve. Hitherto we have been toiling through pages of common place matter before we now arrive at history, though it is not the history of Chaucer. Mr. Godwin has now laid aside Henry and Warton, for Walsingham, Froissart, and Joshua Barnes, and enters upon the history of John of Gaunt, whom by a grand mistake he calls Chaucer's *kinsman*, because they married two sisters. A song inserted in the Book of the Duchess, is extracted as the composition of this prince, and such it certainly appears to be by Chaucer's expressions.

This circumstance has escaped the notice of Lord Orford, and of all former commentators.

In the second volume, Mr. Godwin enters upon the romance of the Rose, "a poem which, he says, may justly be regarded as the predecessor and progenitor of all that is most admirable in the effusions of modern, in contradistinction to the chivalrous poetry." An opinion more foolish, and unsupported by any fact, or shadow of fact, was, we believe, never hazarded in the history of literature.

What the biographer calls modern, in contradistinction to chivalrous poetry, is to be traced to Petrarca himself, if to any individual writer. This is notorious, and modern poetry is as regularly dated from Petrarca, as the Roman empire from Augustus.

The chapters, however, upon the romance of the Rose form, in our judgment, the best part of the present work. Mr. Godwin has perused the poem with enthusiasm; but his praise is sometimes strangely inapplicable. He recommends a discourse upon the art of love in this romance, to every one who is inquisitive respecting the manners of distant ages; whereas, in the whole eight hundred lines, all that relates to manners is comprized in the thirty which Mr. Ellis has quoted. As to the great discovery that men had the same passions and humours four hundred years ago that they have now,—it did not require an extract of eight hundred lines from Chaucer to convince any body of this.

We now enter upon the affairs of Spain, in which John of Gaunt, who is indeed the great hero of this work, bore so principal a part. Mr. Godwin seems not to have been aware that there exists a History of Peter the Cruel, by Mr. Dillon, drawn from purer sources than those to which he has had access.—Chaucer's Book of the Duchess is next examined: from this poem Mr. Godwin infers some particulars respecting the marriage of the poet.

Digitized by Google

"The circumstances here recited may further shew us, what were the motives which so long delayed the accomplishment of Chaucer's wishes. The lady who was honoured with his addresses may be presumed not to have been entirely indifferent to his person, his character, or accomplishments. But she could not resolve to quit the service of her royal mistress. This seems to be highly honourable to the queen. Chaucer, however, no doubt still promised himself, that he should be able to induce her to surmount this scruple of delicacy; especially as his addresses are said (and he has insinuated as much in the poem of the Dream) to have been countenanced by the Duke and Duchess of Lancaster, and perhaps by the queen herself. The lady, however, though mild (it may be, a little encouraging in her refusal,) still continued to elude the conclusion of his suit. At length, the main topic of her objections having been removed by the lamented death of the queen, we may naturally infer that their nuptials were celebrated, as soon as the general laws of decorum, and the ideas of female delicacy would allow: and we shall see reason hereafter to believe, that Chaucer's marriage could not have taken place later than the year 1370."

Pursuing these 'workings of fancy,' the philosophic biographer informs us, that though Chaucer was "a ten years suitor, we may be well assured that this circumstance was in him no indication of a whining and feeble temper, defective in discrimination, or nerveless and impotent to resolve." This is a pattern of the fine fustian which Mr. Godwin has introduced in his patch-work.

We pass over the intermediate chapters of ecclesiastical history. The next point of importance in the life of Chaucer is his mission to Genoa and visit to Petrarca. Here we have more workings of fancy!

"It is not possible for us at this distance of time, to ascertain whether Chaucer travelled across the northern part of Italy, from the Mediterranean Sea to the Adriatic, principally to visit the great laureated poet of that country, whose fame during his own lifetime was perhaps louder and more awe-inspiring than ever fell to the lot of any other mortal; or whether he was partly moved by the desire of beholding the other great maritime state of the fourteenth century; the rival of Genoa the proud, Venice, which was only twenty-two miles distant from the residence of Petrarca. On the road, also, he might visit Mantua, the birth-place of Virgil; Verona, which had given existence to Claudian; and many other places profusely adorned with the witchery of nature, or rendered mysteriously interesting by the association of former times. The visit to Petrarca, however, is the only incident of this journey which Chaucer has thought fit to transmit to posterity.

"Petrarca was at this time nearly seventy years of age, and he survived only by twelve months the visit of the English poet. It must have been a striking object to Chaucer to behold this grey-headed, yet impassioned, poet, in a period when the gift of poetry was so exceedingly rare; this correspondent of popes, of states, and of emperors; this poet who had been crowned by Paris and Rome, and from whose compositions Chaucer's infant lips had perhaps first drunk in the numerousness of verse. Petrarca was interesting to Chaucer, because Chaucer saw in him as it were the lineal descendant of the Ciceros, the Virgils, and the Ovids of Italy, in the days of its classical greatness. Chaucer was interesting to Petrarca for a different reason. He came from the *ultima Thule*, the *penitus toto divisos orbe Britannos*; that country which the wantonness of more genial climates among the antients had represented as perpetually enveloped in fogs and darkness. To later times the literature and poetical genius of Britain is familiar; no tongue so barbarous, as not to confess us the equals, while in reality we are in intellectual eminence the masters, of mankind.—But this was a spectacle altogether unknown in the times of Petrarca. The discovery he made was scarcely less astonishing than that of Columbus, when he reconnoitred the shores of the western world. He interrogated his guest; he proposed to him his most trying and difficult criterions; he exchanged with him the glances of mind, and the flashes of a poet's eye. Chaucer had already written his Troilus and Cresseide, and many of his most meritorious productions; he was more than forty years of age: we may imagine how he answered the ordeal of the Italian, and stood up to him with the sober and manly consciousness of a poet to a poet. Petrarca hesitated, suspected, and at length became wholly a convert; he embraced the wondrous stranger from a frozen clime, and foresaw, with that sort of inspiration which attends the closing period of departing genius, the future glories of a Spenser, a Shakespear, and a Milton."

From his grant of a pitcher of wine per day, Mr. Godwin argues that Chaucer was a man of gay and convivial temper, "who, it may be presumed, seldom sat down to the principal refreshment of the day, without the society of two or three chosen friends, whose manners and topics of conversation were congenial to his own!" From this fact he also deduces the following calculation of the poet's income.

"The circumstance of Chaucer's receiving his allowance of wine daily, seems

afford a considerable presumption that it was consumed from day to day as it was received. From this fact we may derive a reasonable inference as to the extent of Chaucer's fortune. We find him consuming four pipes of wine annually, the price of which, stated in modern denominations of money, was 180l. or 45l. per pipe.——The question then which it is necessary for us to examine is, what may be taken to be the whole annual expenditure of a man, whose consumption is to this amount in the single article of wine? It seems to be the height of absurdity to suppose, that Chaucer's disbursements under every other article were comprehended within the limits of his pension of twenty marks, that is, of 240l of modern money. Proceeding upon this datum of his grant of wine, we cannot with probability take his entire revenue at this period at a lower valuation than 1000l. of modern money, which, *reduced into* the denominations of Chaucer's *time*, is 55l. 11s. 1½d.

"Where then were the items of which this income was composed? Beside his pension and his grant of wine, he had also the grant of a house near the royal manor-house at Woodstock. Taking the rent of the house a man lives in at the tenth part of his income, Chaucer's house at Woodstock may be estimated, in modern denominations of money, at the value of 100l. per annum.—*This*, with his annuity at 240l. and his grant of wine at 180l. per annum, constitute a revenue of 520l. It is also not unfrequent for the grant of a house to be accompanied by certain other perquisites, tending to assist the holder in his means of subsistence. Still, however, there will remain considerable resources to be supplied, to raise Chaucer's income to the amount above specified.—These, as was hinted on a former occasion, may most obviously be supplied by the supposition that Chaucer inherited a paternal fortune, adequate to the ordinary purposes of subsistence. Nine years elapsed between the time when we know that Chaucer occupied the house granted him by his sovereign on the verge of Woodstock park, and the date of his first pension: and we must perceive it to be impossible that Chaucer should have tenanted a house, which we have found equal in accommodations to a modern house of the rent of 100l. per annum, at a time when he was destitute in other respects of the necessaries of life."

The next poem which comes under consideration is the House of Fame, in which Chaucer very honestly expresses a wish that all those who dislike that production may be hanged. We have then many historical chapters, which carry on the work to 1378, when the poet is supposed, by his present commentator, to have written the Complaint of the Black Knight, on occasion of the calamities and popular outcries against John of Gaunt. Former critics had conjectured that it was composed for the same prince, during his courtship of the princess Blanche. The opinion now advanced seems most conformable to the tenor of the poem.

In the next chapter comes the whole history of Wat Tyler, though in the former volume the author had told us that it was too well known to be recited. But it seems "this was the state of society which Chaucer saw, and which could not but occasion to him many profound reflections."

"He was a poet; and no man can be worthy of that name, who has not attentively studied the sensations and modes of feeling which various external impressions are calculated to produce in the human mind. He was the poet of character and manners; such he eminently appears in his last and most considerable work, the Canterbury Tales.—He was a statesman, closely connected with, and deeply interested in, the changing fortunes of the first prince of the blood. From all these reasons we may be convinced, that he was no careless and indifferent spectator of what was acting on the great theatre of public affairs. If John of Gaunt had not foreseen the tumults of this period, we may well believe that Chaucer foresaw them.—Not exactly in time and place; for that is not the province of human sagacity: but he saw the posture of society; he saw what was passing in the minds of men; he heard the low, indistinct, murmuring, pent up sound, that preceded this memorable crash of the elements of the moral world. He perceived the oppressed and fettered multitude shaking their chains, and noted their quick impatient pants after freedom and happiness. Like every good man, and every true lover of his species, it is reasonable to suppose, that he sympathised in their cause, and wished success to their aims, till he saw them conducting themselves in such a manner, as was no less destructive to themselves and calamitous to their lords, and as led to the introduction of universal ignorance and barbarism."

Before Mr. Godwin begins another history, we exhort him to *work off* his fancy.——By its violent workings we should conjecture, that on these extraordinary occasions he had adopted the wild painter's evening diet of raw pork or toasted cheese. Mr. Bayes's receipt of stewed prunes would suit his temperament better. It is the business of the historian to inform us what has been; we can guess for ourselves.

The Legende of Gode Women ap-

pears to have been written at the suggestion of Anne of Bohemia, Richard's queen. Here is introduced an account of the worship of the daisy, a whimsical affectation, of which, by some antiquarians Froissart is said to have been the author. It is much to be wished that the numerous poems of this admirable old writer were printed. The Flower and the Leaf is also analyzed here; a tale so well known in the translation by Dryden. Is Mr. Godwin accurate in asserting that our Roundel is the Rondeau of the French? If so, it is singular that no specimen should remain. Indeed we remember none earlier than that of Pope's, in which he replied to the foolish jest of a woman upon his size; by obscenity far more unpardonable. The Roundel may perhaps be derived from the *Redondilla* of the Spaniards: a word of similar import, though why so called is not easily discovered, as it seems to require nothing but a regular recurrence of stanza. If this be the case, many of Chaucer's *balades* may be *Roundels*; and that title may have been disused from its affinity to the French, which implied a species of poem altogether different.

The last work of the poet's which is examined in these volumes, is his Testament of Love, written after his return from exile, and during his imprisonment. In commenting upon the difficult allegory of this composition, Mr. Godwin observes, that Shakespere has composed more than one hundred and fifty sonnets, which, in their literal sense, are addressed to a man, with all the forms and expressions of the passion of love; but which probably cover some secret meaning that no critic has hitherto been so fortunate as to penetrate." Let Mr. Godwin read these sonnets: the assertion as it now stands is not more inaccurate, than it would be to say that Shakespere had written more than thirty plays upon Sir John Falstaff. For Chaucer's impeachment of his old political associates some palliating circumstances are pleaded: the most interesting circumstance in this sad transaction is, that it would not now be known that Chaucer had acted amiss, if he had not written his own apology!

The remainder of the work is chiefly political history: it represents, however, the chearful picture of Chaucer restored to prosperity, and living happily to the good old age of seventy-two. The Canterbury Tales are lightly touched upon, because the author was limited to two volumes, and had run to the end of his tether before he arrived at them. This is not to be regretted, as little could have been added to what had already been done by Warton and Tyrwhit.—The omission of any remarks on his Treatise on the Astrolabe is far more culpable; for it was the business of his biographer to have studied that treatise, and appreciated the scientific knowledge of Chaucer: but this was a *hard task*, so Mr. Godwin "skipt and went on."

By attempting too many things in this work, the author has failed in all. His time and labour would have been well employed, had he digested into one unbroken narrative all the facts which he could collect concerning Chaucer's life, and then proceeded to a chronological examination of his works. He should have compared his translations with the originals, and pointed out what were the main deviations, what the characteristic improvements, and failures; so to have exemplified the "mind of Chaucer." He should not have swoln his volumes with trite compilations upon chivalry, law, and the feudal system.—Instead of heaping together old information concerning the manners of the fourteenth century, because they must have produced an effect upon Chaucer, he should have elucidated those manners from his poems, and have endeavoured to shew what effect Chaucer produced upon his age, instead of what effect his age produced upon him. Some other vehicle should have been chosen for a history of Edward III., the Black Prince, Richard II. and John of Gaunt.—Chaucer is too important a personage to be made their gentleman usher. The consequence of blending all these subjects has been, that all are imperfect, confused and interrupted: the book is neither history, nor biography, nor criticism; but a heterogeneous mixture of all three.

The language is often bloated by attempts at eloquence, and often disfigured by the vile affectation of using common words in an uncommon sense; such as "*encountering* discoveries," "*neighbouring* the throne," and calling a man's death his *catastrophe*.

Having thus insisted upon the faults of the work, we should state what are its merits. The reign of Richard II. is perhaps better represented than in our common historians, though with all

Digitized by Google

pleader-like a partiality for John of Gaunt. Much light is thrown upon the minor poems of Chaucer; their chronological order seems satisfactorily arranged, and their design ascertained with as much precision or probability as could on so remote a subject be expected. Some facts also respecting his life have been recovered from public records, which, if not of material importance, at least attest the diligence of the biographer, and appear in their proper place.

Should Mr. Godwin undertake any other history, (and he has *now* some capital to begin with,) we advise him to recollect that *unity* is of as much importance in history as in the drama. He should also regulate the size of his work by his materials, and not his materials by the size of the work. Books which are made by the piece, will never be made well. The work for which these late studies have best qualified him, and for which perhaps the public would be most indebted to him, would be an edition of the works of Chaucer, exclusive of the Canterbury Tales. This would really be an acquisition to English literature.

ART. III. *Memoirs of the Life and Writings of the Reverend Alexander Geddes, LL. D. By* JOHN MASON GOOD. 8vo. pp. 580.

THE late Dr. Geddes was certainly one of those characters of superior interest, who not only acquire during their lives a portion of celebrity, but are entitled to more permanent commemoration, and justly claim a place in the records of posthumous fame. He was not merely the tranquil and retired scholar or philosopher, whose life glides away with little diversity of event, and little scope for observation; his mind presented bold and prominent features, worthy of the examination and analysis of the moralist; and his fortune and exertions placed him in situations more various and less common than usually belong to the lot of men of letters. The loss of the detailed biography of such a man would have caused a deficiency in the history of literature, which would have been justly the subject of regret.

Dr. Geddes has had the fortune to find met with a biographer worthy of him, in a man of learning and taste, and in those studies, the pursuit of which had been the principal object of his own literary labours. The claims of Dr. Good to public notice, were not to be first established by his present work: as a poet and linguist he has already displayed powers and attainments of a very respectable order. He possessed the singular advantage of intimate acquaintance with the subject of his memoirs; his work therefore contains the requisite materials of authentic and important information, which will vindicate him in having presented it to public notice, and which gave him also to the public a sort of claim upon his labour.

Alexander Geddes was a native of Scotland. He was born in the year 1737, of parents in a humble station of life, his father being the tenant of a small farm in the county of Banff, and in religious profession a roman catholic. In a remote village of Scotland, "*extra anni solisque vias*," under the instruction of a village-matron, the future biblical critic received his first rudiments of learning. In the scanty library which his father's cottage might be expected to afford, the principal volume was an English bible. In opposition to the common prejudice, that vernacular translations have been uniformly discouraged by the catholics, this volume he was taught by his parents to read with reverence and attention. It is a very admissible speculation of his biographer, that to this accidental circumstance may be traced, in some measure, the future complexion of his literary life.

From the humble species of instruction, of which alone he had hitherto enjoyed the opportunity, he was transferred gratuitously and liberally to the more useful care of a tutor, employed by the laird of the district in the education of his own sons. From this tuition he was removed to Scalan, an obscure seminary in the highlands, limited to the education of youths intended for the clerical office in the roman catholic church, whose education is to be completed in some foreign university. This college, not less melancholy than the paraclete of Abelard, is described as situated in a vale, "so deeply excavated and overhung with surrounding hills, as to require almost as constant a use of the lamp, as the subterranean cell of Demosthenes."

Digitized by Google

The merits of this seminary appear to have been as scanty as its fame is obscure, if a knowledge of the bible in the vulgar Latin were all the proficiency made in it by a pupil, certainly not indisposed to literature or diligence. From this inhospitable climate, however, at the age of twenty-one, he emerged into the bright region of Paris, and was entered as a member of the Scotch college in that city. Here, under able teachers, and with every advantage for study, he appears to have made the most rapid progress in those branches of learning to which his attention was directed, and the acquisitions which he here formed were all subservient to those critical pursuits, for which by this time his mind had received a decided inclination.

Having completed his course of study, he was invited by professor L'Avocat to remain in Paris, and take a share in the public labours of the college. This proposal he declined, and returned to Scotland in 1764, where he was shortly afterwards instituted to the office of a priest among the catholics of the county of Angus. Scarcely had he entered into this situation, when he received an offer more congenial to his wishes and objects of pursuit, of becoming a resident in the family of lord Traquaire; and in the leisure and opportunities of this situation, began to meditate and prepare a new translation of the scriptures. His continuance in this asylum was however interrupted by an incident of rather a romantic complexion, related with delicacy and propriety by his biographer. Feeling in his mind the progress of a growing affection, which he thought it his duty to repress, he snatched himself precipitately from danger, and again visited Paris. After such a residence in that city as we may presume to have been effectual for the attainment of its purpose, he revisited his native country in the spring of 1769.

We shall here introduce the biographer, continuing his narrative more at large in his own words.

"In returning a second time to his native country, Mr. Geddes dared not entrust himself to the fascinating spot, or re-engage in the domestic situation from which, in the preceding year, he had found it so necessary to fly. He accepted therefore of the charge of a catholic congregation at Auchinhalrig in the county of Banff, not far distant from the place of his nativity. This congregation, though numerous, laboured under a variety of disadvantages, and at the time in wh the subject of this biography was elec the pastoral office, was equally dimi in zeal and number. The members of w it consisted were, for the most part, p their chapel was in a state of irrep dilapidation; the condition of the par house was but little better, and the mos christian rancour had long subsisted bet themselves and their more wealthy, as as more numerous, brethren of the prot community.

"Never was there a man better qu for correcting the whole of these evils Alexander Geddes, and never did man himself with more ardour to their rem Activity and liberality were indeed the racteristic principles of his soul: much w ly prudence he never possessed, but his overflowed with the milk of human ki ness, and his nerves, when in their wo state of diseased irritability, still ra with benevolence. He proposed that old chapel should be pulled down; he p jected a new one; he rebuilt it on the which the former had occupied. He paired the dilapidations of the parso house; he ornamented it with fresh ha ments, and rendered it one of the pleas and most convenient in his country. not only, indeed, superintended these b ings, but laboured at them himself, as ready a carpenter, and as expert use of the saw and plane, as if he had professedly brought up to the trade. dening and carpentering were in reality times favourite amusements with him; constituted his chief relaxations from severity of study to the last moment of life; and I have frequently rallied him, at work, upon the multiplicity of his which, in the article of planes of dif mouldings, were more numerous than of many professed artists, and on the terity with which he handled them.

"To his humble, but neat and hosp cottage, it is to be expected therefore th added the luxury of a good garden. Geddes had drawn his knowledge of be rather from practice than theory, w nevertheless, he had not altogether lected. Satisfied with the indigenous b ties, as well as beauties of nature, he not largely seek for exotic ornaments; would the paucity of his means have mitted of any considerable indulgence in respect, had he even possessed the inc tion. But his flower, his fruit, and kitchen-garden, though little boastful of reign productions, were each of them pe in its kind, and the admiration of his f who were generously supplied, according their respective wants, from the abund it afforded:

——Dapibus mensas onerabat inemptis
VIRG. Georg. iv. 1
He piled their tables with unpurchased st

Digitized by Google

Never indeed was there a man more liberal diffusing to others the little of which he s possessed, than himself; never was a st better beloved by the members of his gregation. I did not know him myself many years afterwards: but I have been libly informed by a variety of persons o did know him at the time we are now aking of, and were intimately acquainted h his situation, that he seemed to live in hearts of every one of his hearers, that kindness and affability excited their afion, his punctilious attention to the ies of his office their veneration, and his nsive reputation for learning their imit confidence in his opinions.

"I have said, that at the time of his fix; at Auchinhalrig, he found a high degree rancour and illiberality subsisting, and ctually fomented, between his own congation and the surrounding community protestants To correct this evil, than ich a greater cannot exist, nor one more *tile* to the spirit of the sacred pages, to ch both parties reciprocally appeal, he ured with all his might. By an extenstudy and a deep knowledge of ecclesical history, he had freed himself comely from the bigotry which still attaches, no inconsiderable degree, to the more rant of his own persuasion. He knew ell, and was ready to admit as largely as protestant whatever, the alternate sys of force and fraud, by which the see of e has endeavoured to obtain an unjust poral supremacy over the great body of catholic church itself, to enslave the iences of the laity to its own views of ition and power, and to exercise, in a ty of highly important concerns, an rity which had never been officially ded to it, and concerning which the r will meet with a more detailed ac, when we advance to an analysis of ntroversial writings into which he was y afterwards compelled. Free and indent in his own mind, he took the scriptures alone as his standard of and exhorted every member of his gation to do the same, to study for f, and to submit to no foreign con excepting in matters fairly decided by tholic church at large, assembled in l councils. He could ridicule the inity of the pope, and laugh at images ics, at rosaries, scapulars, Agnus blessed medals, indulgencies, obiits, ges, as much as the most inveterate ant in his neighbourhood, and could dantly abhor the old-fashioned and ous doctrine, that faith ought not to with heretics. Claiming the fullest of conscience for himself, he was dy to extend it in an equal degree to and could therefore, with the utmost ity, embrace the protestant as well as tholic. Honesty of heart was the only st necessary to ensure his esteem, and where this was conspicuous, he never hesitated to offer the right hand of fellowship."

The liberality and merit of Mr. Geddes here introduced him to the acquaintance of many of those protestants, most distinguished in rank and literature, of whom Scotland could at that time boast. But even at this early period, he became an object for the exercise of that bigotry from his roman catholic brethren, which, in the subsequent course of his life, he was doomed to experience still more bitterly. Religious bigotry, however, in this country, can in general manifest itself only by petty exercises of private malice. A more serious evil, in which our divine was soon afterwards involved, was the embarrassment of his finances, resulting from the improvidence of his inexperience and generosity, from which he was relieved by the assistance of the late Duke of Norfolk. To prevent the recurrence of this embarrassment, he engaged with sanguine expectations in an agricultural speculation, the only consequence of which was, to plunge him in a few years still more deeply into distress. To retrieve this second failure of his hopes, he ventured on a new experiment, in the publication of "Select Satires of Horace translated into English verse, and for the most part adapted to the present times and manners." This work was so favourably received by the public, that its profits, added to some incidental assistance of his friends, were sufficient to extricate him once more from the difficulties in which he had suffered himself to be involved.

The success of his first literary work emboldened him to try his fortunes in the capital, a theatre better suited to the activity and talents of his mind, than the obscure situations to which he had hitherto been attached. This resolution was aided by the fresh persecutions which his liberality had drawn upon him, from his bigoted religious superiors in Scotland; and he accordingly removed to London in the year 1779, with the satisfaction of having experienced from the congregation which he had lately superintended, the most lively testimonies of affectionate regard. In the ensuing year, by an act of liberality worthy of commemoration, he received from the university of Aberdeen, the diploma, by which he was created doctor of laws.

His first appointment, after his arrival

Digitized by Google

in the metropolis, was to the situation of an officiating priest in the chapel of the Imperial ambassador. The literary advantages afforded by his leisure, and the use of the libraries of London, now encouraged him to resume his favourite project of accomplishing an improved translation of the Bible. Under the munificent patronage of the late Lord Petre, a distinguished nobleman of the catholic persuasion, who engaged to allow him a yearly salary of 200l. and to furnish his library with whatever books he should deem requisite for his purpose, his labours first began to advance towards maturity. A sketch of his proposed scheme he immediately published, and that he might engage with greater advantage in the execution of it, he soon withdrew himself from every other stated engagement. The ardent mind of Dr. Geddes could not, however, be expected to abstract itself wholly from the political circumstances of the period; and events at this time occurred sufficient to rouze his warmest feelings into exercise. These were the disgraceful riots which took place in many parts of England, and especially in London, on occasion of a bill introduced into the house of commons by Sir George Savile, the object of which was to relieve the roman catholics, who appear to yield to no class of their fellow-subjects in patriotism and loyalty, from certain penalties and disabilities to which they were legally subject. At this period he wrote a work, which was not however published till nearly twenty years afterwards, under the title of "A Modest Apology for the Roman Catholics of Great Britain, &c."

Notwithstanding these occasional deviations, arising from temporary causes, the great plan of translating the scriptures was never long relinquished, except from unavoidable causes, from the first moment in which it was seriously commenced. In 1783, he was introduced to the acquaintance of the celebrated biblical scholar, Dr. Kennicott, and by his means to that of the venerable prelate, bishop Lowth, to whom he communicated the particulars of his plan, and whose advice and instruction he solicited. With every encouragement from that distinguished scholar, the nature of his undertaking was disclosed at large to the public in the beginning of the year 1786, in a prospectus of his version. This we consider as one of the most interesting of the publications of Dr. Geddes; it is highly spirited, and discovers a great extent of critical and biblical knowledge. An analysis of it, and some ample extracts are introduced by the biographer.

An interval of six years elapsed between the publication of this work, and the appearance of the first volume of the translation. This period was not however, wholly occupied by the execution of the greater work in which he was engaged. In the chronological series of his publications, almost each of these years is marked by some production of his prolific pen. Of these several relate to his version, some to the catholic controversies of the day, and other topics of theological polemics others were occasioned by political events, and some were merely sportive effusions of his wit. Without entering into any minute account of these publications, we shall extract from this part of the work the relation of the circumstances by which Mr. Good was introduced to the acquaintance of Dr. Geddes, as it contains, with some just reflections, a portrait, the fidelity of which the original will be recognized by all by whom he was known.

"It was about the year 1793, I first became acquainted with Dr. Geddes. I met him accidentally at the house of Miss Hamilton, who has lately acquired a just reputation for her excellent letters on education, and I freely confess that at the first interview I was by no means pleased with him. I beheld a man of about five feet five inches high, in a black dress, put on with uncommon negligence, and apparently never to his form; his figure was lank, his meagre, his hair black, long, and without having been sufficiently subdued to the operations of the toilet, and his though quick and vivid, sparkling at time rather with irritability than benolence. He was disputing with one the company when I entered, and the tone with which at this moment he left his and rushed, with an elevated tone of and uncourtly dogmatism of manner wards his opponent, instantaneously suaded me that the subject upon which debate turned was of the utmost I listened with all the attention I could mand, and in a few minutes learned, astonishment, that it related to nothing than the distance of his own house New Road, Paddington, from the our meeting, which was in Guildford-

Digitized by Google

debate being at length concluded, or worn out, the Doctor took possession next chair to that in which I was and united with myself and a friend, on my other side, in discoursing politics of the day. On this topic eeded smoothly and accordantly for ne; till at length disagreeing with us ne point as trivial as the former, he e abruptly from his seat, traversed in every direction, with as indeter- parallax as that of a comet, loudly increase of voice maintaining his at every step he took. Not wishing the dispute, we yielded to him further interruption; and in the a few minutes after he had closed ague, he again approached us, retook n of his chair, and was all playful- od humour, and genuine wit.

on his retirement I enquired of our hostess, whether this were a speci- his common disposition, or whether had particularly occurred to excite ibility. From her I learned that, e of the best and most benevolent the world, he was naturally very ; but that his irritability was, at the period, exacerbated by a slight de- fever which had for some time af- spirits, and which had probably duced by a considerable degree of erited ill usage and disappointment. ly regarded him in a different light: his friendship, and I obtained it; as not long before I myself witnessed ctions a series of benevolence and e exertions, often beyond what pru- a regard to his own limited income ave dictated, that stamped a higher for him upon my heart, than all the information and profound learning universally known to possess, and gave him more promptitude upon bject that happened to be started, ver beheld in any other person. I irritable, but it was the harmless ion of a summer evening's Aurora, sooner appeared than it was spent, mischief ensued: and when I re- that it was this very irritability of t excited him to a thousand acts of , and prompted him to debar him- a thousand little gratifications, that t relieve the distressed and comfort owful, I could scarcely lament that ersed it; or, at least, I could not ntending that it carried a very ample along with it."

792 appeared the first volume of ion under the title of "the Holy or the books accounted sacred by nd Christians; otherwise called ks of the old and new covenant's fully translated from corrected of the originals, with various read- ings, explanatory notes, and critical remarks." This work, if completed on the same scale, must have extended to eight volumes in quarto, a formidable prospect for an author who had attained his fifty-sixth year at the publication of the first. A second volume appeared in 1797, and a volume of critical remarks in 1800. These were all which the author himself lived to publish, but we are informed that a part of his translation of the Psalms will make its appearance in another form.

The peculiarity of the religious creed of Dr. Geddes, in denying the divine legation of Moses, while he was a sincere and zealous advocate for that of Christ, is well known. It has found, and is likely to find, few abettors; least of all has it found one in the person of his biographer. It is to be regretted that Dr. Geddes disclosed his ideas on this subject so freely and so early, as they were by no means necessarily connected with the nature of his plan, and were calculated to give to the public at large that degree of offence which was likely materially to impede the encouragement, and ultimately the execution of his work. To combat the error of his opinions, where they are erroneous, is justifiable and laudable; but to refuse the writer the title of a christian, while he zealously maintains the divine authority of Christ's mission, on account of the apparent extravagancies of some other parts of his creed, is illiberal and absurd. These censures were however abundantly poured on him from every quarter; protestant and papist joined in the cry, not of heretic, but of infidel; and the declining days of this laborious and excellent scholar were embittered by unmerited odium and calumny.

By the protestant part of the community his undertaking had, in its early stages, been very generally and liberally patronized. The singularity of a new version of the scriptures, by a roman catholic divine, on the principles of rational criticism and enlarged judgment, attracted attention; and the acknowledged talents and qualifications of the author, gave encouragement to hope for his eminent success in this difficult and important task, the necessity of which now began to be generally acknowledged.

The more liberal part of the roman catholics distinguished themselves by an equally ready and generous support of this great undertaking. But by many

Digitized by Google

of that persuasion it was from the very first looked on with an eye of suspicion. "The English catholic community, which is divided into four districts, instead of dioceses, the London, or, as it is sometimes called, the southern, the middle, the northern, and the western, had at this time for their four official prelates, or vicars apostolic, James Talbot, superintendant of the first, Thomas Talbot of the second, Matthew Gibson of the third, and Charles Walmsley of the fourth; and as in almost every heretical country, except Ireland, which still retains a regular and independent hierarchy, the old prelatic titles have been dropped, and new ones adopted in their stead, taken from the unconverted regions of Africa or Asia, where hopes are entertained that churches may hereafter be formed:—the first of these vicars apostolic was dignified, by the papal chair, with that of the bishop of Birtha, the second of Acone, the third of Comana, and the fourth of Rama." Of these prelates, the two former appear to have been men of liberal minds; the two latter to have been actuated by the narrow prejudices which have hitherto been too generally attached to their profession. Dr. Geddes was not without anxiety to gain the countenance of these spiritual superiors. For this purpose, he had at an early period communicated his design to bishop James Talbot, soliciting at the same time his approbation and patronage of it. By this prelate he was informed, that though he should be very far from opposing this design, two reasons would prevent him from publicly patronizing it: the fear of censure from the prejudiced part of the catholics, and the thoughts which he and his brethren entertained of publishing a revised edition of the Douay translation; declaring also at different times that he withheld his name from the subscription, only lest his official approbation of the work should thence be inferred. Bishop Talbot, however, after having seen the proposals, prospectus, and specimens of the author, died before the publication of the first volume, and was succeeded by Mr. Douglas, titular bishop of Centuriæ, appointed to this office by the papal court, in opposition to Mr. Berington, who had been strongly supported by the wishes of the more liberal part of the English catholics. Douglas, in conjunction with his colleagues, Walmsley and Gibson, commenced their persecution by citing the author, before the publication of his work, to their tribunal, to reply to a charge of maintaining doctrines contrary to the catholic faith. Dr. Geddes, with due deference to the observances of his church, obeyed the summons, and in reply to their examinations, which extended not only to theological, but political creed, conducted himself with so much spirit and dexterity, that his judges, in all probability much against their inclination, were compelled to declare themselves satisfied. On the publication of his work, he transmitted a copy of it to Douglas, as the apostolical superintendent of his district, accompanied with a suitable letter. On the bishop's part haughty silence was observed; the circulation of the work was obstructed every way; and shortly afterwards a fulminating mandate was issued, setting forth that "as the church of God has at all times watched with a jealous care over the heavenly treasure of the sacred scriptures, and has condemned the practice of printing the said scriptures, any expositions of, or annotations on the same, unless they have been seriously examined and approved of by due ecclesiastical authority: hence it is incumbent on us to warn the faithful committed to our care, against the use or reception of a certain work of this kind, as far as it has yet appeared, which is destitute of these requisites, &c." To this encyclical prohibition, as it is called, bishop Thomas Talbot had the temerity and justice to withhold his name: it was subscribed by the three other vicars. Under this attack Dr. Geddes did not remain passive. His intention of publicly repelling it he signified in a letter to Douglas; and in consequence of his contumacy, he was informed by his vicar apostolic, that, unless his submission to the injunctions of the church were speedily offered, his suspension from the exercise of his orders in that capacity would be declared. Dr. Geddes, in the course of a few hours returned a spirited reply, setting the menaced sentence at defiance, which, in consequence, was suffered to fall with all its weight upon his head. An ample vengeance, however taken, by a pamphlet, which appeared after the expiration of the sentence, entitled, "A Letter from the Rev.

Digitized by Google

Alexander Geddes, LL. D. to the right reverend John Douglas, Bishop of Centuriæ."

The consequence of these persecutions was more serious to Dr. Geddes, than it would have been to a man of less irritable frame. He was seized with a lingering fever, brought on by the anxiety of his mind, from the effects of which it was nearly a twelvemonth before he was completely recovered. The last ten years of his life, though embittered by these contests, were, in other respects, nearly of the same complexion with those which preceded them, occupied in the diligent execution of his work, with occasional deviations, as any temporary object seized the attention of his excursive mind. The dates at which the subsequent volumes of his bible made their appearance we have already noticed. The most remarkable of his other publications, within this period, were three secular odes in Latin, celebrating the French revolution, a free imitation of the Ver-vert of Gresset, and especially his "Modest Apology" already mentioned, "addressed to all moderate protestants, particularly to the members of both houses of parliament." A list of thirty-five publications, some more serious, and some on lighter topics, besides many occasional contributions to periodical works, comprized within the space of little more than twenty years, marks the industrious career of this indefatigable scholar.

The closing years of his life were those of a melancholy cast. From the extensive nature of his great undertaking, without adequate support, he was deeply involved in pecuniary difficulties. What anxiety of mind must have been endured before he disclosed them to his friends: that disclosure however was followed by prompt relief. A severe loss was sustained by the death of his liberal patron, whose place however, in munificence, his son generously came forward to sustain. A most painful, ultimately fatal, disease, arising from a cancerous affection of the rectum, now made its appearance; his gradual decline perceptible to himself, and visible to his friends, and bowed down by accumulated suffering. he expired on the 26th February 1802. The last act of bigoted persecution was to forbid the performance of public mass for the deceased.

A shameless attempt was made to spread the belief, that on his death-bed Dr. Geddes had recanted what were termed his heretical opinions, and that this recantation was studiously concealed. This falshood, if it were worth refutation, there is direct evidence sufficient to refute.

Respecting the literary merit of Dr. Geddes's publications, it is not within our province to offer any detailed opinion. The force of his mind will perhaps be better estimated from the perusal of a narrative like the present, which collects his energies into one view, than from any of his single works. He often composed, as his biographer observes, precipitately, and occasionally in a state of high mental irritation. In all his works, therefore, with much to admire, a fastidious taste will probably find something to condemn. Of his poetry, either in Latin or English, we have seen little which we have been induced to place in a very high rank; nor does it indeed appear that any of his performances of this nature were considered by himself as more than relaxations from his severer studies. His Latin verses have all the appearance of having been written with great fluency, but they do not often remind us of classical antiquity. In polemics, his powers both of attack and defence appear to have been of the most formidable order; he was an acute logician, but in some of his arguments betrays perhaps the school in which his education was received. His critical attainments are unquestionable; in the grand requisites of fidelity of translation and approximation to the genuine reading of the text, his version, in all probability, greatly excels any which preceded it, but to its style something might perhaps be objected. To the general eulogium of his character, which is made by Mr. Good, no liberal mind will refuse its assent; "He was a benevolent man, an accomplished scholar, an indefatigable friend, and a sincere christian."

For much additional information respecting this distinguished character, as well as much curious matter incidentally connected with his life and writings, we refer our readers to the work of Mr, Good. His office of biographer we consider him as having, on the whole, very ably discharged. He is learned; he writes with elegance and ease, and his account is stamped, we had almost said, if that attainment be possible, with marks of absolute impartiality. The

Digitized by Google

appendix contains three Latin letters of Dr. Geddes's literary correspondence, the two first from MM. Paulus and Eichhorn, the last a reply of Dr. Ge to M. Eichhorn.

ART. IV. *The Life of General de Zieten, Colonel of the Royal Prussian Re Hussar Life Guards, Knight of the Order of the Black Eagle, &c. By Mad Blumenthal, first Lady of the Bed-chamber to her Royal Highness the Dowager Pr Henry of Prussia. Translated from the German by the Rev.* B. BERESFORD, P 2 vols. 8vo. pp. 680.

THE subject of the present biographical memoir, was one of the greatest generals of one of the wisest monarchs and ablest warriors that the world ever saw, Frederick the Great. To professional men these pages will be found peculiarly interesting, as the frequent narrative of important military operations, occasionally illustrated by plans, is clear and instructive. To the young unfriended soldier, they teach a lesson of confidence; they encourage him to repose on his own courage and good conduct; and bid him hope, that into whatever situation he is thrown, and whatever present obstacles are opposed to his promotion, valour will ultimately be rewarded.

John Joachim de Zieten was born on the 18th of May, 1699, at Wustrau, a village belonging to his family, within a few miles of Berlin. His father was a man of small fortune; and in his house the son was totally unprovided with the means of instruction and culture. In very early life, Joachim displayed that military enthusiasm which became the leading character of his life. At the age of fourteen, without patron, friend, or fortune, low of stature, feeble of voice, puny and unhealthy of appearance, he left his paternal roof, and entered into the service of Frederick William I. His father obtained for him the post of standard-bearer in the regiment of General de Schwendy, with whom he had some slight acquaintance. Young Zieten introduced himself to the general, and on this ground solicited his patronage. He was received with an air of such insufferable pride, superciliousness, and superiority, that he rushed from the room, and took no pains to conceal his indignation. Young Zieten took an early opportunity, by his courage, to efface the unfavourable impression which his diminutive person and undignified appearance inspired. The first person he chastised was a veteran serjeant, who had behaved improperly to him; he wounded him desperately in the face, and escaped unhurt himself. Soon after this, he crippled one of his comrades. A a continuance in the service of t years, he was appointed ensign (Jul 1720); but the regiment was after given to the Count de Schwerin, a n of the dutchy of Mecklenburg, wh mitted into it several of his own cou men, to the prejudice of the senior cers, and of Zieten in particular, w he disliked on account of his low st and the shrillness of his voice, which said, was not formed to give the wo command. Zieten finding himself peatedly superseded to make way others, demanded his dismission, immediately obtained it. This re ment was of great value to him: it here that he laid the foundation of moral virtues, which distinguished in future life as a son, a father, a husband. His chagrin and mortifica were extreme; but

> Sweet are the uses of adversity,
> Which, like the toad, ugly and venem
> Wears still a precious jewel in its he

In his retirement, he congratul himself on escaping from that vorte debauchery, into which he would pro bly have been drawn by his fellow cers, who at this time were particul intemperate in their sensual pursuits was thus better prepared to resist allurements of vice in maturer ye He reflected also, that he must rely his own resources only, on his own nius and resolution alone, for his fu success. Zieten's father died in the 1710: the young man now retired to paternal estate; extricated his af from the complicated law-suits in wh his father had left them involved, made provision for his mother and ters. His military ardor, however, al ed not; and at the end of two ye Frederick William I. who had freque ly seen him in regimentals at parade, quired concerning him, and made h the offer, which was very eagerly cepted, of a new commission, indemn ing him in point of rank for the time

Digitized by Google

ost in his retreat, which had been pro-
oked by General Schwerin's partiality
o the Mecklenburg officers.

Zieten joined his regiment, and endea-
oured to make himself perfect master
s well of the theory as the practice of
is profession. The superior genius of
he young man, together with his frank
nd noble deportment, gained him the
steem of all his brother officers, the se-
ond captain of the colonel-squadron ex-
epted, to which he belonged. This
an, jealous of the superior genius of his
ieutenant, during two years, took every
pportunity to thwart and mortify him.
he smothered flame at length burst out:
ieten challenged his superior officer,
as tried by a court martial, and con-
emned to one year's imprisonment in
he fortress of Friedericksbourg, whither
e was sent at the end of the year 1720.
t the expiration of his imprisonment,
ieten again joined the regiment; and, if
e bravery of her hero has not seduced
fair biographer into too flattering a
etch, behaved with the greatest propri-
y and decorum. All the officers sided
h Zieten; the conduct of his captain
considered as the effect of cowardice,
was shunned and despised, and medi-
d some deep revenge. Several at-
pts appear to have been intended upon
e person of Zieten; one was at length
cuted: the young hero was unexpect-
y attacked by his enemy, and had
rcely time to draw his sword, that he
ht parry the first blow. In the con-
Zieten's sword broke; he knew his
my too well to confide in his genero-
; and saved his own life by throwing
ilt in his face, with a violence that
d him to the ground. By partial
esentations to the king, who was
ht to consider Zieten as of a quarrel-
e and ungovernable temper, this af-
proved more serious than the former:
captain was condemned to suffer
months imprisonment for drawing
rst, and Zieten was broke for hav-
brown the hilt of his sword in the
in's face.

ieten now retired to Wustraw, where
ssed several months in a seclusion,
h at length became perfectly intole-
; he was induced to solicit the inter-
n of two general officers, who lived
miliar terms with the king, Marshal
ndenbrock and General de Flantz,
der that he might be reinstated.
e officers, aware of Zieten's merit,
tame his majesty's repugnance to
admit the suppliant. Frederick Wil-
liam, in the year 1722, had created two companies of hussars; and in 1730, he was anxious to organize a third at Berlin, to be composed of the finest men of the Bayreuth company, a company which the Margrave of Bayreuth, his son-in-law, had given him, and of the flower of the two already formed companies of Prussian hussars. The king had named the captain and the cornet, and Zieten, at the earnest solicitation of his two friends, Bundenbrock and Flantz, was appointed lieutenant; "on condition," were his majesty's words, "that he should behave himself in an orderly manner, and that his superior officer would keep a watchful eye over him." The impression which this humiliating interview with his majesty, in the presence of his brother officers, made in the mind of Zieten, was not effaced at the latest period of his life. He was at this time thirty-one years of age; and it was with the greatest impatience that he bore the frequent contumely of his superior officer, Captain de Benekendorf, who forgot no part of the instructions of his majesty.

Frederick William was so much pleased with his hussars, that at the end of the first year he created two additional companies; and at the end of the second, he increased them to three squadrons, which he composed of the flower of the youth, and of the choicest men of every other regiment. Zieten, who daily rose in the estimation of his majesty, was appointed captain of the second company, on the 1st of March, 1731. The king, proud of being in some sort the founder of his hussars, was anxious that, by seeing service, they should emulate his grenadiers. In the year 1736, he ordered sixty *body hussars*, as this corps was now called, and an equal number of those of Prussia, to join the Austrian army, and gave the command of them to Captain de Zieten, whom he recommended in very strong terms to General de Baronay, in whose school he imagined they might be perfected in their discipline.

Zieten's march lay through Weimar: at Buttstädt, a small town belonging to that principality, he received such exuberant hospitality from the duke, that his hussars and himself got drunk to the health of their host, and the most serious consequences were on the point of taking effect, but for the timely recovery of Zieten from his intemperance. A vio-

Digitized by Google

lent animosity prevailed in the detachment, which, as was just said, was composed of Berliners and Prussians, against each other. At the desire of the duke, they were to perform an evolution on the following morning, and a sham combat was to be exhibited. At the signal for firing, however, the two parties loaded with balls, and many were wounded on both sides. Zieten from this time resolved never again to be seduced into intemperance, and his resolution was not taken in vain.

On the 12th of May he arrived with his detachment at the Austrian camp, and was quartered in the neighbourhood of Mentz: his tutor, M. de Baronay, was not slow to discern the merit of his pupil. After having assisted in several desultory skirmishes against the French, Zieten imparted his wish of trying the strength and courage of his squadron to the general, who, pleased with his impatience, entrusted him with three hundred Austrian hussars to join the Prussians, and charged him with an enterprize of considerable importance. The object was to turn the enemy, by passing through a defile, to flank them, to alarm their quarters, and to retreat before they could collect their forces. The disinclination of his hussars to obey the *latter* part of the instructions, had well nigh been fatal to them: the skill and prudence, however, which Zieten displayed on the occasion, were so flattering to his military character, that they were reported to the king, who immediately advanced him (January 29, 1736) to the rank of a major. At the conclusion of peace, Major Zieten quitted the imperial army with the reputation of a good officer, and returned to Berlin, where the reception he met with from his majesty was extremely flattering.

During his absence, the king had been pleased to give M. de Benekendorf his dismission, and to appoint Lieutenant-Colonel de Wurm in his stead. This gentleman seems to have put the temper of Zieten to as severe trials as any officer under whom he had served. Zieten, however, soothed his irritated mind in the cultivation of domestic affections. About this time he married Leopoldine Judith de Jurgas, of the house of Ganzer, and of the family of his own mother; a lady, says our biographer, alike distinguished for her beauty and good sense, her virtues, and her amiable and dignified demeanour.

"The charms of domestic life continued for a while to temper the vexations with which the colonel strove to embitter it, yet, what was easy enough to foresee, at last took place. The unremitting malevolence of that officer at length tired out his major's patience, and they had recourse to the most violent measures. The distribution of a supply of horses was the immediate cause of their quarrel. The colonel had chosen the best for his own squadron, although it was customary to draw lots, for the more equal accommodation of the troops. The moment he was apprised of this innovation, Zieten conceived it to be his duty to expostulate with the colonel on the business. He took care to wait on him before the parade began, and stating the inconveniences that would attend this new manner of selection, earnestly entreated him to suffer things to remain on their old footing. The despotic officer felt himself offended at this advice, fell into a passion, and grew rude. Zieten, who, when the interests of the service were at stake, was utterly incapable of giving way, answered him in the like tone. The dispute became serious, they fastened the door, and drew upon each other. Their choler, which had been so long stifled and concentrated, broke out with mutual violence, and they fought with equal fury. The colonel, however, had soon reason to be astonished at finding in Zieten an adversary who seemed to be a match for him, and over whom he was not likely to gain the least advantage. Notwithstanding the low stature and apparent weakness of the major, he stoutly sustained the assault of his colossal foe. They were both wounded: the colonel in the head, and Zieten in the right hand. M. de Wurm now suddenly broke off the combat, with a view of carrying it on in another manner. He laid hold of his pistols, and presented one of them to Zieten; who, more wise and moderate than he, replied, "We have both of us lost blood considerably, let us in the first place have our wounds dressed, and dispatch the business of the parade, which waits for us; when we are cured, I shall expect to hear from you, and I shall leave to yourself the choice of weapons." These words, which were uttered in a cool and resolute manner, had their proper effect; the colonel grew calm, and a surgeon was immediately sent for. The guard was duly mounted, and the horses distributed by lot. The grudge, however, still rankled in the colonel's heart, and he wanted a favourable occasion to break out in explosion. An occasion soon happened, as we shall see in the sequel, and which made him pay dearly for his eagerness to take advantage of it."

In the year 1740.* Frederick William I. died; in him Zieten lost a pa-

* He died, May 31.—Rev.

Digitized by Google

whom he loved and respected, and whose dislike towards himself he had converted into esteem. A short time after the accession of Frederick II. the decease of the Emperor Charles VI. took place:* he was the last male heir of the House of Austria; but by virtue of the pragmatic sanction, his hereditary dominions devolved upon his eldest daughter, the archduchess Maria Theresa. The inheritance of the Austrian dominions was not likely to slide quietly into the hands of a female, although the pragmatic sanction had been guaranteed by almost all the powers of Europe. No sooner was the emperor dead, than four claimants, Charles Albert, Elector of Bavaria, Augustus III. King of Poland, the King of Spain, and the King of Sardinia came forward with pretensions to the inheritance. Maria Theresa, notwithstanding, took possession of her territories, when a more artful, treacherous, and powerful claimant started up: this was the King of Prussia; who, in order to prevent Silesia from being attacked by her potentates, *without the slightest intention*, as he expressed himself in his manifesto, *of violating* the interests of her Majesty, the Queen of Hungary, to whom he professed the strictest friendship, sent his troops into the dutchy of Silesia. The three squadrons of body hussars, under the command of Colonel de Wurm, accompanied the army, and the Prussian hussars still remained in their quarters. The occupation of Silesia was effected almost without resistance, and the hussars had no opportunity of displaying themselves in this successful campaign. During the repose of winter, Frederick had leisure to estimate the advantages of these light troops; he formed a body of regulations for them, and communicated it to their principal officers. At the opening of the second campaign, Zieten received orders to break up his winter quarters, and join the king's army. The hussars, who had now, for the first time, the honour of composing the van, chased a party of the enemy, who lost fifteen men, and these were the first prisoners which the Prussian hussars had ever taken. M. de Wurm had not forgotten his rencontre with Zieten, and an opportunity occurred in the early part of the campaign, which he thought would terminate the career of his antagonist. As de Wurm was reconnoitring the position of the enemy, he met a patrole of some hundred hussars, whom he attacked and dispersed; pursuing them to the entrance of a defile, the latter faced about, and harassed him considerably without opposition. Zieten, enraged at the audacity of the Austrians, and the inactivity of his commander, pushed forward and cried out, "Colonel, will you not put these fellows to flight?" "Why don't you do it yourself since you are so bold?" "With all my heart," said Zieten, "if you will support me." Zieten instantly marched and pursued his advantage, expecting that his retreat was secured by de Wurm, who, leaving him to his fate, had perfidiously retired to a neighbouring village. Zieten was in imminent peril; he nevertheless secured his prisoners, and effected his escape without the loss of a single man. On his return to the village, he demanded satisfaction of his colonel for his cowardly desertion. De Wurm, exasperated at the escape, and still more at the success of Zieten, replied by drawing his sword. The combatants were soon separated by an aid-de-camp, but de Wurm was wounded; he was confined to his tent, and Zieten as next in rank took the command. At this time he received orders from the king to repair with the whole corps to head-quarters, on business of an expedition then in agitation. Frederick reviewed every squadron; and in testimony of his regard for Zieten, raised him to the rank of lieutenant-colonel.

"Some days after this, the king determined upon dislodging the enemy from the post of Rothschloss, from whence they had made frequent excursions, and laid the country under contribution. He entrusted the enterprize to Colonel de Winterfield, his adjutant-general, who put himself at the head of some battalions of grenadiers, and the hussars of Wurm and Prussia under the command of Zieten. The enemy was strong, and their position almost impregnable. Before them they had a deep and extensive marsh, crossed by a long and narrow causeway, that lay in the face of a battery. Zieten began the onset, advanced at full speed along the causeway, and under a quick fire forced the passage, threw the enemy, who little expected to be attacked in front, into disorder, repulsed them after a vigorous resistance, and drove them close to a mill, along the side of a rapid stream, the bridge of which had been broken down. All retreat was thus cut off from the Austrians, while colonel de Winterfield was still engaging the infantry, and Zieten made a whole

* October 26, 1740.—Rev.

Digitized by Google

regiment of cavalry prisoners. But how great was his surprise, as well as his triumph, when he discovered he had been coping with the celebrated General de Baronay, his former preceptor in the art of war! The scholar not only surpassed the master, but had likewise taken him prisoner, had he not crossed the stream by the timely assistance of a plank, and immediately betaken himself to flight. The general the next day carried his justice and generosity so far, as to write the most obliging letter to his conqueror, in which he confessed himself vanquished, and observed that the master was but too happy in having been able to escape at all from so formidable a scholar."

Frederick was soon informed of this brilliant exploit of the hussars, which produced an universal sensation throughout the camp, and appointed Zieten to the rank of colonel. De Wurm now resolved at all events to retrieve his character: an opportunity offered, but his incapacity was so great, that, but for Zieten, both himself and followers would have fallen inevitable victims. Frederick dismissed him the service on a small pension, and named Zieten to be the chief officer of his hussars, after having united the six squadrons of Berlin and Prussia into a single regiment. About this time also, he was decorated with the order of military merit. The name of the hussars now began to be formidable; Zieten had the merit of being the father of all the heroes who succeeded him in this line of duty, as his regiment had that of being the model of all that were formed after him. In the course of this campaign, they signalized themselves on various occasions, but in no instance proved of more essential service than in aiding the splendid retreat of the Prince of Anhalt before Charles of Lorrain: Zieten covered the baggage, and led the vanguard, and acquitted himself with so much vigilance, ability and success, that when the Prussian army, retreating from the walls of Olmutz, arrived in Upper Silesia, they had scarcely sustained any loss. Soon after this, preliminaries of peace were signed at Breslaw, the Elector of Bavaria was chosen Emperor of Germany, by the name of Charles VII. and Silesia was ceded in full and perpetual sovereignty to Prussia.

In the brief biographical abstract which we are now making, it must be mentioned, that at the end of these two campaigns Zieten returned as poor as he had set out: frequent occasions of enriching himself had occurred; he had overrun Bohemia and Moravia at the head of his light troops, and had penetrated into Austria and Hungary. The king himself had hinted to him, in some letters, which are given in these volumes, that if his officers "should be able to procure any extraordinary emoluments, he should not examine the matter very nearly, provided they did not push things too far, &c.;" in short, he certainly had it in his power to amass considerable wealth with perfect impunity; but Zieten thought it his duty to check any spirit of plunder and unnecessary devastation which might appear among his troops.*

During the peace, Zieten divided his time between the enjoyment of his family, and the duties of his profession; he employed the interval between the first and second Silesian wars in improving his regiment, and perfecting their discipline. At the king's command, he tried the effects of various evolutions practised by the Austrian hussars, and adopted those which appeared to be best: himself and his officers too, made dispositions in writing on subjects which the king had given them, and which his majesty revised, in order to estimate their respective military knowledge.

Zieten was, at this time, a little hurt that the king, who had invited several Hungarian officers into his service, should suffer some of them to take precedence of him.

In the year 1748, his lady bore him a son, the only one he had by this marriage. The birth of a son, however, did not induce him to pay any attention to the improvement of his fortune. He entrusted the management of his farm, and all his domestic concerns to his wife, totally regardless of the produce.

Prussia now enjoyed two years peace; at the expiration of this time Frederick, in order to support the tottering fortunes of the emperor, again took the field, and in conjunction with France prepared to direct his operations

* The goodness of Zieten's heart was, at this time, eminently displayed in favour of a captain, who had persecuted him so unrelentingly in Prussia, and who had even induced Frederick William to cashier him. The captain had been dismissed the regiment for cowardice: he was compelled to lead a wandering life, despised by every body. Reduced to extreme necessity, at length he had recourse to Zieten, who raised the old man from the ground, assured him of his pardon, and from that moment became his avowed benefactor.

Digitized by Google

more against the Queen of Hungary. The order to march found Zieten ill in bed; the fatigue of service, to which he had submitted like the meanest subaltern, had made sad inroads upon his delicate constitution; the tender assiduities of Madame de Zieten could never induce him to alter his plan. In her letters, she had gently chid him for sleeping on the ground, exposed to the damps of night: and entreated him, as the greatest proof of love he could shew her, to be more careful of his health. But to no purpose: he was now in an alarming state; Frederick's command to march, however, was more efficacious than all the prescriptions of his physician. It was thought that he would not have lived to reach the place of rendezvous; he recovered, however, and was the first who met the enemy, whom in various recounters he defeated. The campaign opened prosperously: Prague surrendered to the Prussian arms, and its garrison of 12,000 men were made prisoners of war: Budweis was taken by the valour, chiefly of the hussars, and Frederick immediately raised Zieten to the rank of major general, ordering his commission to be post-dated eight months. At the battle of Czaslau, General Zieten gained laurels at a time when the Prussian army was disgraced by a toilsome and distressing retreat: himself, with his handful of hussars, performed prodigies of valour; and Frederick, when he heard of the engagement, was so delighted at the splendour of an achievement which had effected the deliverance of his rear, that he instantly mounted his horse, and met the conquering heroes on their way: he commended their valour, spoke of their behaviour in terms of consideration and gratitude, and placing himself at their head, marched in triumph through the whole army. Every man rushed out of his tent to see them pass by, and the camp resounded with "Long live the king!" "Long live Zieten and his troops!"

The campaign of 1744 was disastrous. "The military instructions for the general of his army," Frederick acknowledges it to be so, and takes his own share of the disgrace. A stop was put to the progress of his arms by the courage, conduct, and activity of Prince Charles of Lorrain.* Frederick was obliged to abandon Prague, and the other places of which he had taken possession in Bohemia, and make a precipitate retreat into Silesia. Zieten covered the retreat; and at the disastrous conflict on the banks of the Elbe, which were not to be defended against the superiority of the Austrians, gained himself immortal honour. Madame de Blumenthal asserts, that the "evacuation of Bohemia was executed without any loss, and that the troops marched in two columns, one of which the king commanded in person." Dr. Russel, in his History of Modern Europe (see vol. v. page 111) says, that "the Prussians, in their retreat, lost above thirty thousand men, with all their heavy baggage, artillery, and waggons loaded with provisions and plunder."

Thus terminated the campaign; at the end of which Frederick, in consideration of the eminent services of de Zieten, gave him a pension of twelve hundred dollars. The Empress of Russia too, notwithstanding the principles of neutrality she had adopted, presented his regiment, in compliment to their bravery, with three hundred valuable horses.

The king had now learnt the danger of venturing too far into the defiles of Bohemia; in the beginning of the campaign of 1745, Silesia therefore was again made the theatre of war. Zieten was here employed on a very delicate and perilous business: his regiment was, with the king's main army, between Patzkaw and Frankenstein. The Margrave Charles covered Upper Silesia, and occupied Jägerndorf and Troppaw. The Austrians took advantage of this inconsiderate division of the army, and separating into two parties, one encamped between the king and the margrave, and occupied all the posts of communication; whilst the other, encamping along the bank of the Oder, environed the latter. The king, seeing himself on the verge of a general engagement, resolved to recall the margrave; but the Austrians had guarded every avenue, and were so vigilant, that even couriers, chasseurs and spies, were immediately taken. The difficulty of communicating his orders seemed almost insuperable. Zieten was selected to execute this daring enterprise; an enterprise of so much peril in the eyes of Frederick himself, that in his instruction to the general he desired him to proclaim the order to the whole regiment, that in

* In this sketch, it will be discovered, that we frequently consult Dr. Towers's "Memoirs of the King of Prussia." It is necessary to compare the two narratives.—Rev.

case they should not be able to make their way sword in hand through the Austrian posts, each hussar that *escaped* might inform the margrave of his majesty's intentions. Zieten, before he set off, persuaded his lady, who had followed him to winter quarters, to return to Berlin, as something of a very important nature was about to take place.

The unparalleled boldness of the stratagem which de Zieten adopted, was crowned with the success it deserved. To force his way through the enemy was clearly impossible.

"During the course of the last campaign, and even during the winter excursion in Upper Silesia, his regiment had worn their summer dress, which consisted of red mantles and felt caps. Their fur accoutrements had not arrived from Berlin before the campaign had already closed; hence the Austrians were not as yet acquainted with that part of their regimentals, which moreover greatly resembled those worn by the hussars of Spleng, at this time making part of the division posted at Leobschutz. Zieten, who was aware of the latter circumstance, founded upon it his hopes of deceiving the enemy, by making his own hussars pass for theirs, and leading his Prussians in broad day light through their army."

He marched with affected carelessness and unconcern through the enemy's camp, followed one of their columns, under the appearance of making part of it, and made a colonel who, mistaking him for an Austrian, came to inform that his dragoons were close behind, a prisoner of war in the centre of his own camp! The alarm was given, but it was too late; and Zieten, with very inconsiderable loss, reached Jägerndorf, where he entered in triumph, and where he was received by the margrave with all the joy and admiration due to his courage and good fortune. The margrave immediately broke up his camp, and with the assistance of Zieten effected his march, and joined the king's army, notwithstanding that the Austrians made a variety of desperate and well concerted assaults to intercept this brilliant and victorious passage.

After this junction the whole army was eager to engage the Austrians: Frederick suffered not their impatience to subside, but gained a terrible and bloody victory over the enemy on the 4th of June, 1745, at Hohen-Friedberg. Having driven his enemies out of Silesia, he now entered Bohemia. In this battle general Zieten rescued general de Kiow from the hands of the enemy: this officer had scarcely passed the Strigaw, with the first ten squadrons of his brigade, when the bridge broke down. Zieten saw him on the point of being surrounded without the possibility of retreat, but he had anticipated and prepared for the accident: he had tried the depth of the stream, and now forded it with his corps of reserve, fell upon the enemy, and routed them.

The two hostile armies now lay so near each other, that they seemed to form but a single camp; they kept this position for near three months, perpetually engaged in desultory skirmishes. In one of these Zieten was of eminent service: two officers, with whose intemperate courage he was well acquainted, formed a design to carry off a whole regiment of Austrian Uhlans; Zieten, aware of the danger of the enterprise, followed them with his regiment without their knowledge, and lay in ambush in a wood. His friends succeeded in their attack; but eagerly pursuing the advantage they had gained, were on the point of being cut off, when the wary general sprung from his concealment, and effected their delivery, with the capture of some prisoners.

After the battle at Sohr, where Frederick gained a complete victory; "Where, says he, honestly enough, we should have been beaten, as I deserved if the abilities of my generals and the intrepidity of my troops had not saved me from that misfortune;" he broke up his camp, and returned to Berlin, where he entered in a sort of triumph, having in his train the cannon which had been taken in the last campaign, together with standards and colours, the trophies of his victories at Hohen-Friedberg and Sohr. He had not been here long, however, before he received information from Prince Leopold of Anhalt-Dessau that Prince Charles had not put his army into winter quarters, as he had succeeded in inducing Frederick to believe, but that a body of 10,000 Austrians under the command of Count de Gr— was marching towards Saxony. The king instantly quitted his capital, put himself at the head of his army in Silesia: the battle of Hennesdorf decided the fate of Prussia, and may be considered as the preliminary to the peace of Dresden. To the success of this battle Zieten materially contributed. the king entered Lusatia, without knowing precisely what posts were occupied by the enemy; the two central co—

of the army were composed of infantry, the two other of cavalry; the king led the first of the centre, and Zieten, at the head of his regiment, marched in the van. Zieten passing through a forest which led to Hennersdorf, discovered that that village was occupied by three regiments of Saxon cavalry, and one of infantry. The king's column, with the heavy artillery, had been misled into a marsh, and could give no support to Zieten, whose resolution, however, was instantly taken. He sent an officer to Frederick, informing him of the discovery, and saying that he would be before-hand with the enemy, for that he would attack them and keep them employed till his majesty should be able to assist him. Zieten found the garrison in motion, and the regiment of Saxe-Gotha ready to receive them with artillery; he immediately charged them, and was received with great coolness and resolution. Extraordinary efforts were necessary; Zieten was successful, and the whole regiment was cut to pieces. The regiment of Obyern suffered almost as much at that of Saxe-Gotha: each lost four field-pieces, all their colours and standards, with five kettle-drums, before the arrival of a third regiment of Prussian cavalry, and a part of the infantry. This rendered the victory complete: Frederick entered the town and established his camp here, and presented the regiments of general de Zieten and general de Ruesch each with two of the kettle-drums, as an accompaniment to their military music. The rest of the cavalry have not any; but every time these regiments take the field, their kettle-drums are deposited with great ceremony in the arsenal of Berlin. Zieten was accidentally wounded in this action, by the carelessness of one of his own soldiers, and was disabled during the remainder of the war.

The king of Prussia's account of this affair is not altogether so favourable as Madame de Blumenthal's: he says that the hussars, instead of improving their first success, were busied in plunder at the end of the village, (which was a very long one,) and gave the Saxons time to form at the other. These stood their ground, and probably might have been routed with little loss, if Frederick had not detached ten squadrons of cuirassiers and ten battalions of grenadiers to their support.

The treaty of Dresden was signed Dec. 25, 1745, and the seven years' war began 1756. Notwithstanding this long period of inaction, the narrative of Madame de Blumenthal flows in an unbroken current. To us, indeed, who take but little delight in the bustle and bloodshed of a battle, this part of her biography is as interesting as any other. It exhibits the picture of a valiant warrior in the midst of his family, caressing his children, and enjoying the society of an amiable, prudent, and affectionate wife. Zieten, retired to his country seat, now determined to rear a suitable mansion for his residence: like every one who engages in it, he had a passion for building, and with that carelessness about money concerns, which ever distinguished him, he laid the foundation of a mansion, to complete which his resources were very insufficient. Frederick made him a present of the timber and mortar; but Zieten, with an obstinate perseverance, from which his anxious wife could not divert him, borrowed loan upon loan, regardless of futurity.

In this period of his retirement, too, we see the mortifying picture of a high-minded man degraded in the eyes of an ungrateful sovereign, and bearing in manly silence his cold neglect and sullen alienation. Towards the conclusion of the war, Frederick had shewn some pointed preferences to general de Winterfield, and Zieten had, in a letter, remonstrated with his majesty on some occasion, wherein he conceived his own services undervalued.

Winterfield, perhaps, was made acquainted with the contents of this letter; at any rate, from this time he became the concealed, but most formidable rival and persevering enemy that Zieten ever had. He took every opportunity to insinuate that Zieten's military talents were very inferior; that he owed his fame to the good fortune of some rash and dangerous enterprises; and that in the calm of peace he had neglected to preserve the discipline of his hussars, who were extremely inferior to those of the Austrians, although the latter, unprepared for his mad assaults, had occasionally been confounded and defeated. Zieten, in the full consciousness of his past services, and of his present unabated zeal for the strict discipline and superiority of his troops, scorned to bow the

knee or solicit an explanation, and the triumph which his dignified conduct eventually gained was complete.

When Frederick saw the political horizon of Prussia again begin to darken; when he saw those vast preparations for hostility, which, on the eve of the seven years' war, threatened his kingdom with destruction, he remembered Zieten. The great Frederick had his littlenesses: he could listen to the idle slanders of envious flatterers, and in the day of trouble was not ashamed to court the man who had eminently contributed to that period of prosperity, during which he had the baseness to neglect and depreciate him. General Zieten's health had so materially suffered from the death of his wife and only son, and from the constant vexation he had experienced by the ingratitude of his king, that he expressed a desire to obtain his discharge.

If Frederick was not stung with remorse, at least he was not indifferent to his interests: an impending war, and the apprehension of losing one of his best officers, restored him to himself. He made every possible advance to reconcile the offended warrior; but the steps which he at first took, were not those to conciliate such a man as Zieten. His kind enquiries after the health of Zieten were thrown away, and all his smiles were laughed at. Frederick was so imprudent as to employ de Winterfield himself, the man who had done him so much injury, to conciliate him. He was received with coolness, and dismissed with dignity: but Zieten's return to the service was necessary to Frederick, and he resolved to call upon him himself, and alone. At first he attempted to make him acknowledge *his faults*, and was desirous to persuade him that he himself had been the sole cause of the misunderstanding, and closed his harangue with a promise of forgetting every thing that had passed, holding out his hand in token of reconciliation. Zieten receded—he scorned to acknowledge faults of which he had not been guilty, and

"—The moment of reconciliation began to appear more distant than ever, when the good genius of Prussia prompted the king with the following words: 'No; it cannot be possible that Zieten, my faithful general, on the approach of a perilous war, should abandon his king and his country, whose confidence he so fully possesses!'

"These few words triumphed over the firmness of our hero, and found the way to his heart. He threw himself at the monarch's feet, and vowed to shed the last drop of his blood in his service."

Before the opening of the campaign, the king raised him to the rank of major-general, and the reconciliation now effected produced a zealous friendship between the monarch and his officer, which never abated to the hour of their death.

Throughout her narrative, the partiality of Madame de Blumenthal to the hero of her story has led her to speak contemptuously of general Winterfield: if he employed those artifices which are here attributed to him, in order to intercept the rays of royalty, and prevent them from illuminating the retreat of Zieten, he is justly censurable But it ought to be mentioned, that after Frederick's reconciliation with his general, who had not concealed from him his suspicion as to the malicious interference of certain individuals, Frederick to the last continued his attachment to Winterfield, whom he considered as an officer of great talent and courage. Winterfield was killed by a cannon ball in the campaign of 1757, as he was leading up succours to some battalions who were engaged with the enemy: the king was much affected at his death; "I may find resources," said he, "against the multitude of my enemies, but how few men are to be found equal to Winterfield." Madame de Blumenthal's enthusiasm requires considerable abatement.

We are now come to the seven years' war; a war nominally undertaken for the recovery of Silesia, in favour of the house of Austria, but, in fact, as it is observed here, to palsy a political body, which the creative genius of its sovereign had indued with such energy as to excite perpetual jealousy and alarm. Zieten was as remarkable for his prudence and foresight as he was for his gallantry; and to enumerate the instances in which he displayed the one and the other would be to detail the events of the war. We must refer our readers to the historians of that bloody period; contenting ourselves with noticing a very few of those scenes in which he was engaged. He covered the Prussian army in the dangerous passage of the Moldaw, and turned the fortune of the day in favour of the Prussians at the celebrated bat

d Prague. Zieten had the command of the corps of reserve; the Austrians had actually broken the infantry, and put the cavalry to flight, when this able general, who anticipated the disaster rom some error which he had detected n the plan, rallied the fugitives, and y his spirit and presence of mind reatly contributed to the victory. The ing of Prussia, in his account of this attle, acknowledges that he lost 18,000 en, and estimates the loss of the Aus-rians at 24,000! Marshal Schwerin's leath, to use his own expression, wi-hered the laurels of his victory; at the ge of eighty-two this warrior rushed with the rallying cavalry, and was pierced with several bullets.

After the battle of Prague, Zieten oined the duke of Beverne, in order to revent Marshal Daun from marching o the relief of the prince of Lorrain, ho had thrown himself into Prague ith 40,000 of the routed army; with n inferior force they kept the marshal t bay. The face of affairs, however, on changed in consequence of the un-ccountable obstinacy of the king of russia, who discredited the uniform nd reiterated intelligence of his gene-ls as to the situation of the enemy; nd who was brought to unexpected tion before Colin, where he was com-tely beaten. On this day general ten performed prodigies of valour, nd by his address and foresight fre-uently frustrated some particular ma-uvres of the enemy. The line was oken in so many points, that prince aurice and general Zieten thought it per to fill up the chasm with their n squadrons; the fire of a formidable well-served battery, however, was destructive that it was necessary to rid of it. Prince Maurice engaged ten to put himself at the head of four iments of heavy horse, and attempt arry it: this daring and most despe-attempt was twice made, but in the nd onset Zieten was struck with a e-shot, and fainted on his horse. troops, who a moment before had ed the mouths of the cannon, were panic-struck at the loss of their ral, and fled. The ball grazed his , and carried away his cap; a se-discharge of grape-shot killed his e, and Zieten owed his life to the ity of M. de Berge, a cornet in ther regiment, who placed him on own horse, and conducted him to a place of safety. The general recovered, and his deliverer was an object of envy throughout the army.

At the retreat of the Duke of Beverne, General Zieten covered the rear, and after the disastrous battle of Breslaw, and the capture of the duke, completely saved the wreck of the army, by opposing the precipitate and pusillanimous retreat which his superior officers had commanded. He received the thanks of Frederick, and those officers, Generals Lestaitz, Kiow, and Katte, were put under arrest, while Zieten was appointed commander in chief to conduct the shattered army.

At Leuthen the carnage again was dreadful: victory decided in favour of Prussia; the Austrians were routed, and Zieten executed the fatiguing and perilous task of driving them before him for fifteen successive days, and recovering the complete possession of Silesia!

Moravia was the seat of the campaign in 1758, and here it was that General Laudohn had the honour of beating General Zieten, near Dohmstadtel. In this engagement, of nine hundred new recruits, all in the flower of their age and vigor of life, who were enlisted for the purpose of completing the regiment of Prince Ferdinand, not one hundred survived the affray; the rest, together with the gallant officer who commanded them, were left dead on the spot! This defeat brought on the loss of a convoy, consisting of between two and three thousand waggons loaded with provisions, military stores, and arms for the king's camp, and obliged him to raise the seige of Olmutz. It is thought that by his expedition into Moravia, and his ill-advised siege of Olmutz, Frederick lost the advantages which he might have derived from his victory of Leuthen; for the Austrian army, which was completely disorganized in the preceding winter, now availed itself of the time which the king lost before Olmutz to recover its complement and vigor.

According to the account before us, General Zieten was the cause that the disaster at Hochkirchen, bad as it was, was not still worse. The security into which Frederick was lulled, it seems was effected by one of his own spies who had been detected by General Daun, and compelled by him to continue his reports to the Prussians, and lead them astray. Frederick would not believe the reports of his generals that a suspicious move-

ment was making in the Austrian camp, and gave orders to the hussars to unsaddle their horses: Zieten contermanded the orders of his sovereign, and in half an hour afterwards had them re-saddled. The Prussians had been guilty of an oversight; they had neglected to occupy the heights that commanded the village of Hochkirchen. The Austrian troops set out at midnight, on a dark foggy night, took possession of the hill, and poured into the Prussian camp, where the carnage of sleeping and half naked soldiers was immense. Zieten's corps was prepared for the attack, and the retreat of Frederick over slaughtered thousands has always been considered as a remarkably fine one. He pitched his camp within half a league of the enemy, who dared not attack him, but on the contrary declined an action to which the king vainly endeavoured to provoke them. Madame de Blumenthal says, that Frederick lost all his artillery. Other historians, however, assert, with greater plausibility, that he performed his retreat under the fire of a part of his own artillery which was saved, and placed in the centre of his van. Frederick was slightly wounded in this affair: and the campaign had made such havock in Zieten's corps, that he was under the necessity of requesting the king's leave to select such officers as he found in the several regiments of the army who were proper for the hussar service. But the loss of the gallant and accomplished Colonel de Seelen, who was mortally wounded in the surprize of Hochkirchen, was irreparable.

The military talent and genius of Zieten was never more conspicuous than in his splendid retreat before Marshal Daun, from Soraw, in the campaign of 1759: the marshal, who was a very competent judge in such cases, had anticipated the defeat of his enemy, and could not—he did not desire to withhold his admiration at the courage and skill of a manœuvre which utterly disappointed his most sanguine expectations.

At the commencement of the campaign of 1760, the affairs of the king of Prussia were in a very critical state: 80,000 Russians approached Glogaw to assist the operations of the Austrians, and their junction seemed inevitable; 90,000 Austrians pressed him closely, and Zieten's march from the bank of the Elbe to the town of Lignitz, in opposition to the united forces of Daun and Laudohn, was one of the most painful and perilous that had been undertaken during the whole war. The king encamped at Lignitz: and the night before the battle took place which extricated him from his desperate situation, he knew not that the Russians were in the neighbourhood, or that the Austrians intended an attack. The army lay at rest: Major de Hund with Lieutenant de Wolfrath at day-break discovered the columns of Laudohn. They flew to apprize the king and found him with the Margrave Charles and General Zieten, in a small wood, round a fire, fallen asleep. In the battle, Laudohn lost 10,000 men; Frederick 6000 killed and 12,000 wounded. Frederick and Zieten had passed the night together beside a watch-fire; "uncertain," says our biographer, "of the hazards they were going to incur, they had suddenly separated at the alarm given by Major de Hund. The one and the other had fought for glory and their country, and they met again on the field of battle crowned with victory. Zieten congratulated the king; the king embraced Zieten, and advanced him to the rank of general of cavalry."

The last battle in which either Zieten or Frederick was personally engaged was when they divided the command between them and stormed the heights of Siptitz at Torgau: it is remarkable too, that this was the only one in which Zieten stained his sabre with the blood of the enemy—in this action he is said to have made very violent and desperate use of it.

In the campaign of 1761, Zieten was sent to prevent the junction of the Russian army with that of the Austrians; it had taken place however before his arrival. In this campaign he was generally near the king's person, who in all cases of difficulty consulted him, frequently in the dead of night, overwhelmed with despair or chagrin, sought his general's quarters, and received from him consolation, hope, and assistance. The last time that General Zieten beheld the fire of an enemy was at Schweidnitz, which, with its garrison of 11,000 men, surrendered to the Russian arms on the 19th of October, 1762: he frequently visited the trenches, exposed himself to the shells of the enemy, and saw them fall at his feet without any apparent concern. On the 16th of February following, the peace of Hubertsbourg terminated

nated the seven years' war—a war which established the military preeminence of Prussia, and made the king immortal.

Concerning this great general, a small portion of whose feats only we have been able to sketch with this rapid pen, it will be interesting to add something illustrative of his private character. Zieten is represented as benevolent and humane, pious from feeling and from principle; in the day of adversity he found consolation in religion: "I have lost every thing," said he over the cold remains of his wife; "beauty, virtue, prudence, piety, all these she possessed, but it is the Almighty who hath taken her from me." Neither forgot he his Creator in the day of prosperity: it was his constant custom, as soon as he was dressed, to order his valet to leave him. He then said his prayers, a duty which he was never known to neglect, even during his severest indispositions.

Zieten was a severe disciplinarian, but he was the father of every soldier under his command; he saw with his own eyes that they enjoyed every comfort which their situation admitted when duty was over, and by such offices of kindness and attention he won the affection of every hussar in his regiment. Unenvious of the merit of another, he was the first to do it honour, and frequently dissipated those capricious prejudices which Frederick conceived against individual officers, and even corps. In war he united wisdom with courage,

"—contempt of danger with perseverance, dexterity with presence of mind, and activity with the most perfect command of temper; he conceived his plans with the progressive views of the rising storm, and executed them with the rapidity of the thunderbolt. Unruffled in the heat of battle; singularly accurate and concise in giving his orders; foreseeing every thing, prepared for every thing; he was invariably able to turn the circumstances of the moment to advantage. His military glance was correct and infallible; he was equally admirable in attack and defence; capable of the most daring enterprises, and losing every idea of personal safety when his duty called him to engage in them, he never failed to acquit himself with success."

In his principles he was firm, and his probity was invincible: perfectly disinterested, he never enriched himself by unfair means.

"To general admiration and esteem were joined sentiments of a more tender kind and more congenial to his nature—the affection and confidence of his brother-officers and hussars. In the midst of the tumults of war he had ever preserved those social virtues which had marked the early period of his life. Guided and sustained by rational piety, his moral character still shone with undiminished lustre, while his talents, his faculties, his religious principles, acquired new force as he advanced in his brilliant career. The pernicious maxim, the maxim of his day, that the duty of a soldier superceded that of a man, was never adopted by him. The horrors of war, to which he had been inured, never steeled his heart to the softer calls of humanity; and such feelings he considered not only as far from degrading his profession, but even as one of its most noble appendages. Severe in the field, and inexorable in whatever regarded the duties of the military life, (because he himself was the first to set the example, and had no errors nor neglect on his own part to call for indulgence in favour of such as were guilty of either,) he was in all other respects remarkable for the gentleness and even the complaisantness of his manners. He was ever ready to accommodate those whom he commanded, to the utmost of his power, or to lighten with a kind word, a look, a smile, the burdens they had indispensably to sustain. His officers, his private soldiers, whom he loved with paternal affection, never solicited his counsel, his interposition, his succour in vain. Just and impartial in the extreme, he tolerated no oppression, no persecution; and though exact in the infliction of punishments, he was still more so in recompensing every noble, every liberal action.

"He had always acted with feeling and equity towards the hostile nations during the various incursions he had made among them. The laws of war never induced him to overlook the sacred rights of man. Far from countenancing any kind of exactions, he was the friend, the protector, the father of the unfortunate inhabitants of the places which became the immediate seat of war. Whenever he received orders to pillage an hostile country on leaving it, his custom was to observe the form only; he would cause a few windows to be broken, throw down a few stoves, displace or overturn the furniture of a house or two; but was never known to deprive the inhabitant of what was absolutely necessary to him, or to commit a single act of barbarity. The soldier loved him still more than he feared him. In every place his preservation was the object of universal concern. Not only his own country, but the nations who had known him as their enemy only, did ample justice to his disinterestedness and greatness of mind."

This does not appear to be a random panegyric on imaginary virtues; it is justified by a variety of anecdotes which are related in the work.

Digitized by Google

After the termination of his military career, which ended with the seven years' war, General Zieten lived twenty-six years in the full enjoyment of all the honour and glory which he had so arduously earned:

"His sovereign continued studiously attentive to distinguish him by fresh marks of his esteem, his friendship, it may almost be said, his veneration. The princes of the blood were eager to imitate the example of Frederick. Henry, Ferdinand, the presumptive heir to the crown, thought themselves honoured by the zeal they shewed to do justice to the merits of Zieten. The court, the strangers that visited Berlin, equally admired the attention which was shewn to this hero by those whose birth and rank were so far above his own; and, it was a fine spectacle for the whole country, to see the subject so noted and caressed by his master, and by the family of his king.

"These distinctions, for which Zieten was indebted to his merits only, were no longer imbittered by envy. His enemies had disappeared, and among the witnesses of his glory he could only reckon applauders and friends. His countrymen in general, whether in civil or military capacities, whether inhabitants of towns or villages, esteemed him, cherished him, and looked upon him as a father, revered him as a hero, and considered themselves in some degree as partakers of his glory."

The pleasure which Zieten experienced on returning to his favourite villa at Wustrau, after the perils of seven long campaigns, was heightened by a circumstance which did great honour to the Swedish troops. In one of their campaigns they had penetrated as far as this village, when hearing that it was the property of Zieten, *who was then waging war against them and their allies*, they not only refrained from touching any thing that belonged to him, but manifested the high respect they bore him, by placing sentinels before his house, examining his portrait with admiration, and by many other flattering attentions.

The general now went to Carlsbad for the recovery of his health: the inhabitants of every town he passed through gave him the most honourable reception, and testified, by the most unequivocal evidence, that in his career of victory he had treated Saxony and Lusatia more like a benefactor than an enemy. At Carlsbad he met Laudohn and several Austrian generals with whom he had recently fought: Laudohn and Zieten became inseparable friends.

At the age of sixty-five General Zieten paid Frederick the compliment of requesting his consent to a projected marriage: his majesty sent the following answer:

"My dear General de Zieten,

"By your letter of the 4th instant, you ask my consent to your marriage with Mlle. de Platen. I grant it with great pleasure, and wish you all possible happiness on the occasion. If I knew where the nuptials are to be celebrated, I should not fail to be with you, on purpose to dance with the bride. I remain your affectionate king,

FREDERICK."

The following year his lady presented him with a son: Frederick came from Potsdam to Berlin on purpose to be present at the ceremony of baptism, and stood sponsor for the infant, whom he immediately raised to the rank and pay of a cornet in his father's own regiment. Zieten, however, would never suffer him to rise, even to the rank of second lieutenant, till he was of age sufficient to do the duties of his station; he repeatedly and inflexibly resisted every offer of the royal bounty!

In the seventy-ninth year of his age Zieten experienced one of the most painful trials he had ever met with in the course of his life. It was in 1778: the Bavarian war had just broke out, and the troops had received orders to march; his equipments were ready, and himself was prepared, when he was informed that the king was going to make the campaign without him. No solicitation could avail: Frederick peremptorily insisted that the old warrior should rest from his fatigues. When the regiment left Berlin, he took leave of his pupil and companions, exhorting them in a short and pathetic speech to be mindful of what they owed to their country, their profession, and their reputation. The old man shed tears, nor was the regiment less affected on the occasion: in deep distress he returned to his home after their departure, and after a long silence and with a deep sigh exclaimed—"Alas! I have now nothing to do but raise a regiment of women!"

"At length he could no longer bear to reside in Berlin: he went to Wustrau, but unaccompanied with the ardour and activity which had hitherto attended him there. He caused several tables to be placed together in his dining-room, covered them with the best maps he could procure of the theatre of the war, and passed whole hours in poring over them. In a short time, he began to recover his former tranquillity of mind, be-

ame more gay and communicative; and, at his time it was, that the grateful woman, hom he honoured with his friendship and is confidence, and who has since ventured compile these memoirs; attentive to these citals, snatched from oblivion such partiulars as discretion permitted him to impart her, and has incorporated them in the onument she has raised to her hero."

General Zieten lived, as we have already said, twenty-six years with his second wife: by her he had two children. he family was a family of love; caressg and caressed, each seems to have nticipated the wishes of the other: as e advanced in years he became more entle, communicative, sociable, and indulgent. Frederick, at the age of seventy, would often pay his general, at ourscore, an unexpected visit. The rinces of the blood, and all the Prussian enerals were proud to imitate the exmple.

In December 1785, the king had returned to Berlin, in bad health. Zieten, ho had not seen the king for some onths, at the age of eighty-six went to e palace to pay his respects. The oment Frederick saw him,

"What, my good old Zieten! are you re?" said his majesty. "How sorry am I, at you have had the trouble of walking up staircase. I should have called upon myself. How have you been of late?" re," answered Zieten, "my health is not ss, my appetite is good; but my strength! strength!" "This account," replied the g, "makes me happy by halves only; you must be tired—I shall have a chair you." A chair was quickly brought. ten, however, declared that he was not all fatigued: the king maintained that he "Sit down, good father:" continued ajesty, "I will have it so; for I cannot you to be inconvenienced under my roof." The old general obeyed, and derick the Great remained standing be him, in the midst of a brilliant circle had thronged around them. After askim many questions respecting his hear his memory, and the general state of his h, he at length took leave of him in words; "Adieu, my dear Zieten (it his last adieu!) take care not to catch : nurse yourself well, and live as long ou can, that I may often have the plea of seeing you." After having said this, king, instead of speaking to the other and walking through the saloons as , retired abruptly, and shut himself up closet."

Zieten preserved his faculties to the last: his sight and hearing had been for some time impaired, but his general state of health was good; he

"Sunk to the grave with unperceiv'd decay,
While resignation gently slop'd the way."

He died on the 26th of January, 1786, in his eighty-sixth year:

"How sleep the brave, who sink to rest
By all their country's wishes blest!
When Spring with dewy fingers cold
Returns to deck their hallow'd mould,
She there shall dress a sweeter sod
Than Fancy's feet have ever trod;
By Fairy hands their knell is rung,
By forms unseen their dirge is sung;
There Honour comes, a pilgrim grey,
To bless the turf that wraps their clay;
And Freedom shall awhile repair,
To dwell, a weeping hermit, there." *

The finances of Zieten had been considerably decayed by his liberalities: in short he died poor! Frederick, who survived him but a few months, made a present to his widow and children of ten thousand dollars. The successor of Frederick raised a noble statue to the general's memory: it is considered as a fine piece of sculpture, and is the production of M. Schadow of Berlin. A plate and description of it are given in these volumes.

"Zieten was low of stature, meagre, but well-built; his face was oval, his hair dark-brown, his forehead flat, his eyes large and blue. His mouth was somewhat wide, his lips thick, and the under one marked with a deep scar. His features were strong, his countenance masculine and somewhat harsh, though not deficient in harmony. His looks were steady, his eyes full of expression and fire, and his face highly characteristic of seriousness and dignity.

"His attitude was erect, his gait free and easy. He was brisk in his motions, could use his sword in either hand, a circumstance that proved advantageous to him on several occasions. He danced with singular grace, rode boldly and with great ease; and to the very end of his life, he preferred the lightest and most mettlesome steed to any other. Whether on horseback or on foot, all his movements were alert: on all other occasions they were sedate and slow; and he who saw him in his chamber engaged in his domestic affairs, could hardly suppose him to be endowed with that degree of activity, resolution, and boldness which always characterised him in public.

"Averse to loquacity, he could say much

* Mr. Beresford has with great taste selected these appropriate lines as a motto to the

Digitized by Google

in few words. His answers were just and precise; his replies not deficient in point and smartness. His voice was rough and manly: he gave the word of command with peculiar distinctness. His whole person announced serenity, experience, and firmness of character; commanded attention, obedience, and respect."

These volumes contain a great many letters of Frederick the Great: they written by a lady of high rank, and enjoyed the personal friendship of ten, from whose lips she received a portion of the materials for his phy. The style of the translat easy and fluent: the work is print Berlin, and abounds with typogra errors.

ART. V. *The Cambrian Biography, or Historical Notice of celebrated Men among the cient Britons. By* WILLIAM OWEN, *F. A. S.* Small 8vo. pp. 345.

CONSIDERING ourselves as literary purveyors, whose duty it is to select, with caution, from the promiscuous banquet offered to the public, a sample of every article which we think productive of nutriment, or likely to gratify, without vitiating the taste; we are apt to be upon our guard against those *quintessences*, and *elixirs*, and *epitomes*, which are frequently exposed to sale, as containing a marvellous compression and condensation of knowledge, and professing to supersede the necessity for that more material and voluminous nourishment which is commonly prepared by legitimate cookery. With this impression on our minds, we first took up this little volume of Cambrian Biography.

The principality of Wales, it is true, presents to the eye of the geographer a small and insignificant spot, when compared with the extent of Great Britain: yet if we consider that it is the native country of genealogies, and that in its history, the arrival of the Saxons, whom we consider as our remote ancestors, is almost a modern event; it must appear strange that a duodecimo volume of less than 350 pages should be presented to the public as containing an adequate account of Cambrian biography.

Strange however as it does seem, we must in justice confess, that in our references to this little work we have never been disappointed; that we have found as many "historical notices" respecting every name with which we were acquainted, as Welsh history, or even Welsh tradition, could be reasonably expected to furnish; that many of the articles contain hints which, when properly followed up, appear likely to throw much new light on the obscurest parts of literature; and that in general the Cambrian Biography bears fresh testimony of the learning, the candour, and the modesty of the industrious author of the Welsh Dictionary.

Mr. Owen professes to have giv the present work, a mere outlin Welsh biography; and says, in his face, "at some future period, an other hands, such a meagre sket perhaps, may grow into a form consistent with its appellation. But the first instance, it was of import to bring together all the names de ing of remembrance, though the extent of the plan might admit of thing more than barely recording greater portion of them, so as to room for such memorials as relat the most important characters conn with history."

We are aware that nothing can more unjust, though nothing is common, than to criticise an author not doing what he never professed to We therefore can only lament that Owen's avocations are likely to prec him from completing the edifice, having employed so much labour research in the collection of materi But, as every book of reference s some value, inasmuch as it tends abridge the labour of the student, as Welsh literature appears likely to tract, in this inquisitive age, m more attention than has been hithe bestowed upon it, we think it our d to recommend a few obvious impro ments which may be introduced into future edition of this book, with l trouble to the author, and with gr convenience to the reader.

1st, As this dictionary is principa intended for the advantage of those w are strangers to the Welsh language, think that the name by which any ch racter is familiarly known to the En lish, should always be entered in i place, with a reference to the article under which it is afterwards more fully described. Thus Caractacus, Cassi bellaunus, &c. ought to stand in their natural order, because the ignorant reader is very likely to overlook them under

Digitized by Google

titles of Caradog and Caswallen. many instances this caution is still e necessary. What Englishman, instance, would look for Geoffrey Monmouth under the very unusual lation of Guffydd ab Arthur?

It were much to be wished that Owen would always quote his authorities, particularly in dubious cases. instance; the following is his account of the famous Walter de Mapes, acetious memory.

Walter de Mapes, an eminent writer flourished in the middle of the twelfth y, and who was chaplain to Henry I. was the son of Blondel de Mapes, who with Robert Fitzhamon to Glamorgan, obtained the lands of Gweirydd ab Sein Lord of Llancarvan; but he had the sity to marry Flur, the only child of rydd, that was living; and by whom had two sons, Hubert and Walter. t dying without heirs, Walter inhe- after his brother, and built the village rwalter, with a mansion for himself. stored most of the lands which he be- possessed of to the original proprietors; built the church of Llancarvan, as it stands. He translated the British Chro- into Latin; and he made a Welsh ver- of Geoffrey's florid paraphrase. He also a treatise on agriculture in Welsh, is extant in several manuscripts."

w Geoffrey himself professes to translated into Latin the British nicle from the original (whether h or Armorican) which was put his hands by Walter, archdeacon xford: if so, why should Walter Mapes, who became archdeacon half a century later, attempt to lant, by a new translation, the po- work of Geoffrey, unless he meant to prove the "the florid" paraphrase was unfaithful? And if he disapproved of that paraphrase, why did he translate it into Welsh, and thus contribute to give it more extended currency?

The following article will perhaps be thought to stand no less in need of vouchers.

"Plennydd, one of the three who first reduced bardism into a regular institution, enjoying rights and privileges, under the sanction of the nation. This was an event that took place far beyond the scope of all historical records, except the triadic traditions, which used to be repeated in all solemn meetings of the bards, druids, and ovates; it happened probably above a thousand years before the Christian æra."

The probability of this date is certainly not obvious; and those who doubt, without ridiculing its correctness, deserve to have their doubts removed either by arguments or by ancient authorities.

We do not mean, by selecting these, which we consider as among the most exceptionable articles, to depreciate the general merit of this small but valuable work, or to retract the favourable opinion of it which we have already expressed. We recommend it as containing a clear, correct, and, in general, a temperate account of the most striking events in Welsh history, and as contributing many curious particulars respecting the mythology and traditions of a nation which is interesting in many points of view, and whose opinions had perhaps an influence on the manners of the middle ages, which has been too much overlooked by common historians.

ART. VI. *Public Characters of* 1803-1804. 8vo. pp. 567.

UALIS ab incepto! Englishmen to have lost that healthy appetite hich their forefathers were famed; must now have something stimulant der to make it palatable: for plain they have no relish. It is very well n *in the trade* that a book sells best it satirizes with unusual severity, hen it flatters with extraordinary fulsomeness. The fragrant censer is applied to the nose of every individual *biographized* in this work. What we said in our notice of the former volume we repeat here: 'The book is compiled to satisfy vulgar curiosity, and the execution is in general as creditable as the design.'

T. VII. *A Defence of the Character and Conduct of the late Mary Wollstonecraft Godwin, founded on Principles of Nature and Reason, as applied to the peculiar Circumstances of her Case; in a Series of Letters to a Lady.* 12mo. pp. 160.

N forming a just estimate of so singu- a character as that of Mary Woll- stonecraft Godwin, it will be requisite to recur to something more, says the au-

Digitized by Google

thor of these letters, than a few single occurrences of her eventful life. Certainly: but why limit the proposition to "so singular a character" as that of Mrs. Godwin? The application of it is universal, for no character can be justly estimated by a few single occurrences. Not only her sentiments and views, he continues, ought to be maturely weighed in the balance of unprejudiced reason, but the circumstances which gave them birth should be also fairly investigated, and allowed to have their natural influence upon the subsequent events of her life. In delineating her character, therefore, the author has attempted to trace the circumstances that formed it, with the hope, as he expresses himself, of thus finding the best apology that can be made for certain individual points of her conduct, over which every reflecting and sympathizing heart would desire to throw an oblivious shade for ever. Surely there is more than a little inconsistency in bringing forward to public investigation "certain individual points" of the conduct of Mrs. Godwin, over which the author himself acknowledges it would be more charitable to throw the shade of oblivion! It is one among a hundred other suspicious circumstances belonging to these pages.

In another part of his volume, the author tells us that he does not pretend to vindicate the whole of her conduct, but that his object is merely to explain it upon her own principles, and to shew upon what foundation those principles were raised. Now the conduct of Mrs. Godwin was too obviously explicable on her own principles to stand in need of illustration; and the foundation upon which those principles were raised is scarcely less open to observation. Her contempt of the opinion of the world arose from a too flattering estimate of those abilities which she was compelled to exercise by the unkindness of her family; in early life she called them into action for a maintenance; they were luxuriant but wild; they bore fruit, but she mistook the nature of it. She mistook genius for judgment: of the former she had abundance, of the latter little; but nevertheless had the rashness to oppose that little to the accumulated stock, which age, experience, and wisdom united, had produced.

But if the author does not vindicate the whole of Mrs. Godwin's conduct, he may almost as well leave the task of vindication unattempted; there were but few parts of Mrs. Godwin's conduct indifferently good or indifferently bad: all her deviations from the established standard of morality were wide and glaring, and these only are those parts of her conduct which require vindication. But the fact is, that he leaves no part of it unapologized.

Uncharitable as the insinuation may seem, a suspicion has come across our mind on the perusal of these pages, that more is meant by them than meets the eye: the panegyric which pervades them of the moral character of this "amiable," this "incomparable" woman, as she is continually called, is extravagant; it is certainly unbecoming and unwise in the part of an advocate thus to extol a client, whose character he acknowledges stands in need of apology: it is suspicious. We find some inconsistencies in the defence too, which, notwithstanding the adducement of extenuating circumstances, is not such a defence, we suspect, as Mrs. Godwin would herself have made, or have suffered another to have made for her.

The first object of Mrs. Godwin's* affections was Mr. Fuseli; or, as it is coarsely expressed here, "the first sexual attachment that is plainly avowed," was towards that celebrated gentleman, whom she was in the habit of meeting at the hospitable table of Mr. Johnson. Mr. Fuseli was married; and Mrs. Godwin no sooner discovered the impression which his fascinating conversation and manners had made on her too susceptible heart, than to avoid the consequences which might ensue from an unequal conflict with her passions, she nobly resolved to leave the country: she remembered the poet's praise of him

"Who quits a 'scene' where strong temptations try,
And since 'tis hard to combat, learns to fly."

she profited by the praise, and deserved it for herself.

Mrs. Godwin left London; she went to France, where she resided between two and three years. At Paris she became acquainted with a man, the letters of whose name it gives us pain to find Mr. Imlay, who at that time was enjoying considerable reputation on account

* To avoid confusion of names we shall confine ourselves to that which she carried to the grave.

Digitized by Google

of his publication on the state of Kentucky. Mrs. Godwin's strong prejudices against the indissolubility of marriages, as being a condition of union inconsistent with the nature of man, were in all probability strengthened at this particular time: for it will be recollected, first, that her connexion with Mr. Imlay took place in France; and, secondly, that it took place at a period when the subject of marriage was discussed in the national councils of that country, the discussion producing throughout the republic a very material, and certainly a very lamentable change in the opinion of people on this serious and important subject. Her prejudices then, already strong, it will be acknowledged were probably strengthened by the almost universal coincidence of the public opinion with her own as to the dissolubility of the marriage union. To these *prejudices* was superadded a *reason* why she should not marry Mr. Imlay: she was in some pecuniary difficulties, and the generosity of her nature shrunk from the idea of involving the object of her attachment in her own embarrassments.

The author of the little volume before us dwells on this last circumstance; now he must very well know, that it affords not the shadow of an excuse for Mrs. Godwin's connection with Mr. Imlay, though it was a very sufficient and honourable reason why she ought not to marry him; and he disclaims the former as an extenuating circumstance, solely, the consideration of the country here, and the period when, the intimacy took place, on the false ground, that as a foreigner, Mrs. Godwin could possibly be influenced by the wild theories of an insane people to contemn legal sanctions, if she had deemed such essentially requisite, to confirm the morality of her connexion." Foreigners are as subject to the laws of the country, in which they chuse to reside, as natives; but the statement, it is very obvious, has nothing to do with the case: for all marriages in France are now more easily dissoluble than they were formerly; no laws were ever passed in that country to prevent marriages from being dissolved. The extenuating circumstance is the encreased confidence in her hastily conceived opinions on the subject of marriage, which Mrs. Godwin derived from the prevalence of similar opinions, among those with whom she was in the daily habit of conversing, and this, which is properly the only extenuating circumstance, the *defender* of Mrs. Godwin has thought proper to disclaim, while he dwelt upon another which he knew had no connexion with the question!

How does this gallant defender then apologize for the unsanctioned intercourse which took place between Mr. Imlay and Mrs. Godwin? As Mr. Imlay eventually proved to be the most unfeeling and cold-hearted of all cold-hearted and unfeeling men, our author sagaciously supposes that, in order to have won the affections of Mrs. Godwin, he concealed the deformity of his mind, "that he either assumed a character that was not natural to him, in order to impose upon her generous unsuspecting heart, or that she viewed him through a very fallacious medium." It is not very likely, indeed, that any woman should fall in love with a monster undisguised. Now for the apology; "when Mary Wollstonecraft gave to this second person an interest in her heart, she seems to have adopted the most efficacious mode of removing all traces of her former attachment, and of obviating its recurrence. I am induced to believe that she admitted the acquaintance of the latter person, in order to fix her affections, *in consequence of her relation to him*, rather than imagine that her affections were transferred from Mr. F. to him, prior to the commencement of their intimacy."

We are by no means certain that we comprehend the meaning of this exculpatory statement, the words which we have printed in italics are to us utterly unintelligible; in order to avoid misconstruction, we shall state our conception or misconception of its general meaning. In the first place, Mrs. Godwin is represented as having formed a connection with Mr. Imlay as the most efficacious mode of removing all traces of her former attachment to Mr. F. If this is true, what a compliment she paid Mr. Imlay! Himself is not the object of her affections, but she *tries* to love him for the purpose of obliterating a dearer attachment; but whether true or not, what an idea does the apologist convey of the delicacy of Mrs. Godwin's sentiments, and the refinement of her feelings!

We by no means intend to vindicate the conduct of this lady, with respect to her

Digitized by Google

intercourse with Mr. Imlay, or the gentleman to whom she was afterwards legally united; but we cannot sit in silence when motives are imputed to her which would have excited her utmost scorn and indignation. This article is already extended to a length which we did not foresee at the commencement of it, and we now feel it necessary to apologize for a still further extension of it.

The little book before us is entitled "A *Defence* of the Character and Conduct of Mrs. Godwin:" in the course of his labour the author seems to have discovered, that a defence and an apology are two distinct things, but he does not appear to be sufficiently aware, that the conduct which requires an apology cannot be defended, and that the conduct which is defensible very rarely requires an apology. We have more than once hinted our suspicion, that the author of this defence, or apology—call it which you will—is not so sincere in his regard for that character which he has summoned from the grave to stand a second time, as it were, before the bar of the public, as he affects to be; if, however, we are mistaken, if he is really and honestly anxious that the sentence which has been passed upon that ill-fortuned female should be revised and be reversed, he will think that our treatment of him requires an *apology*, although it is perfectly *defensible*. The feebleness of his defence is the strength of ours: it is that, connected with some inconsistencies that we have noticed, which first excited our suspicions; if we are mistaken, however, it is with great pleasure that we acknowledge and apologize. Let us now return from this digression.

Mrs. Godwin, it is universally allowed, was a very original thinker; she prided herself, foolishly enough perhaps, in thinking differently from other people. She was not, however, singular in her opinion, that those ill-sorted matches of convenience, where the heart is not interested, are so many prostitutions of the person, to which the law gives currency. Sexual intercourse is common to the birds of the air and the beasts of the field: in man only is that connexion ennobled by the feelings of the heart and the affections of the mind, and it is these feelings alone and these affections which distinguish it from mere animal intercourse. Where they are wanting the parties become brutified and degrade the dignity of their superior nature. [illegible] such extravagant and unwarrantable [illegible] cess did Mrs. Godwin carry this delic[illegible] of sentiment, that as the ceremon[illegible] marriage cannot in the eye of n[illegible] sanction a mere sensual connexion, neither did she conceive that a con[illegible] tion refined by sentiment and purifi[illegible] all the affections of the heart, requ[illegible] the ceremony of marriage to stam[illegible] with the seal of innocence. And yet [illegible] is the lady who is represented *by her logist* as having deliberately, and [illegible] mature calculation, "commenced a[illegible] timacy" with Mr. Imlay—not beca[illegible] exquisite as her feelings were, he ha[illegible] cited them in his favour, not because experienced any tender emotions, mental attachment towards him—[illegible] the connexion *preceded* the transfer o[illegible] affections, and was calmly set about a philosophic view to fix them!

Our author, however, thinks after that Mrs. Godwin's best apology, neglecting the marriage ceremony, [illegible] be sought for in the exercise of her [illegible] vate judgment, and he introduces her pleading her own cause before an i[illegible] ginary Custos Morum, who calls h[illegible] account for having despised the [illegible] nances of the law. A miserable de[illegible] she makes of it.

We had noted down some other [illegible] cumstances of weakness and incon[illegible] ency in the defence, which tend to co[illegible] borate our suspicions, particularly w[illegible] the conduct of Mr. Godwin is cens[illegible] for some passages in the memoirs of [illegible] wife. But the article is already l[illegible] and enough has been said, we trus[illegible] shew the weak and imprudent ma[illegible] to say the least of it, in which this [illegible] fence is conducted. Our object has [illegible] not to defend Mrs. Godwin, nor [illegible] to apologize for her conduct: it [illegible] been merely to do her justice, to r[illegible] the imputation of improbable and [illegible] honourable motives when others [illegible] to be found, less objectionable in t[illegible] nature, and more probable because [illegible] consonant with her character and s[illegible] ments.

Most true, indeed, it is, that there [illegible] certain individual points in the con[illegible] of Mrs. Godwin, "over which every [illegible] flecting and sympathizing heart w[illegible] desire to throw an oblivious shade [illegible] ever!" Knowing the generosity of [illegible] heart, the warmth of her affections, [illegible] superlative ardour and heroism of [illegible]

Digitized by Google

iendship,* and the steadiness of her rinciples, it is deeply to be regretted at her conduct in many material partiars can never be held up to imitation; was of a nature, indeed, so fraught th injury to civil society, that even ne circumstances of palliation which ich might be adduced in her favour inridually by the man who is disposed to aper the severity of justice with the derness of humanity, can scarcely be brought forward with impunity. But in enumerating her faults, let us forget not to contemplate her transcendant virtues! Of the one and of the other, she is now called to give an account at the tribunal of heaven; let *us*, therefore,

"No further seek her merits to disclose,
Or draw her frailties from their dread abode;
There they alike in trembling hope repose,
The bosom of her father and her God."

rt. VIII. *The Life of Richard Earl Howe.* *By* GEORGE MASON. 8vo. pp. 111.

MR. Mason's motto to this little vome would form a fine text for a funeral ation:

Let us now praise famous men,
e Lord hath wrought great glory by them,
through his great power, from the beginning:
re be of them, that have left a name beind them, that their praises might be reorted,
r seed shall remain for ever, and their ory shall not be blotted out."

e need not enter into the details of life; those parts which do not be to the History of England, are such e common to all men; a few anecs, that characterise the individual, e selected:

. Howe served on board the Bur- Captain Lushington, in 1743, when empt was made on the town of La a, upon the coast of Curacoa.

The attack was made; the Burford suf- considerably; and the captain was kill- the action. This attempt having failed, -martial was held, relative to the con- of the Burford. Young Howe was par- y called on for his evidence. He gave lear and collected manner, till he came e the death of his captain. He could oceed no farther; but burst into tears, ired. There subsists a more intimate between steady courage and sensibi- n the generality of men are aware of. 1761, he acted as Captain to Rear- his Royal Highness the Duke of board the Princess Amelia of 80 Spithead. In this situation he continued during the remainder of the war; the Duke of York being always second in command to a senior admiral. Once, when he was in this service, the lieutenant of the watch went to him at midnight, and awaked him, saying, 'My lord, don't be frightened, the ship is on fire close to the magazine.' He sprung up, and replied in an angry tone, 'What do you mean by that, sir? I never was frightened in my life. I will be with you in a moment: but, in the mean time, give directions that nobody attempts to disturb his royal highness.' He went down instantly, and ordered wet swabs, and other proper remedies to quench the fire. He then went again upon deck, and, seeing all quiet, retired to sleep with his usual composure. This anecdote is so egregiously mis-reported in the Naval Chronicle, that the writer thought it his duty to correct that statement from Mr. L'Epine's Memoir."

We recollect a somewhat similar anecdote of Lord Bridport, and relate it with the more pleasure, as that excellent admiral of the true old English school is still living. During the action of the first of June, one of his people came to inform him that the water was entering the ship fast. "Well, sir," said the old seaman, never altering his deliberate manner of speaking, "they may sink us, but they must not make us haul down that flag."

Mr. Mason, with commendable warmth, notices the conduct of administration towards Lord Howe in 1793.

"He always declared himself averse to the system of blocking up ports: he said, it was frequently ruinous to the shipping, and that,

allude to her noble conduct towards Miss Fanny Blood: the health of this lady be- decline, her physicians recommended her to go to Lisbon. At this time Mrs. kept a school for her support: she heard that her friend was likely to die in a country, when, spurning every interested and prudential consideration, she *bor- ms of money* and instantly set off for Lisbon to catch the last breath of her expiring Say ye, "whose clay-cold heads and luke-warm hearts can argue down, or your feelings, what would you have done? On her return, Mrs. Godwin found school had materially suffered by her absence. The author of the Defence, in- dwelling on such a noble trait of Mrs. Godwin's character, has contented himself ming at it.

Digitized by Google

from the uncertainty of winds, the possibility of adhering to such a plan was by no means to be relied on. (This part of his remark was pretty strongly verified in last war, when the French squadron got out of Brest, and landed troops in Ireland.) He thought it was much better to let the fleet lie ready in some sheltered situation, whence it might proceed to sea with almost any wind whatsoever: and he asserted, that the place he had described was Torbay. The writer of the foregoing sentences is perfectly unqualified for entering into any dispute on the subject; he barely reports the professional opinion of so established a character for naval knowledge, as Earl Howe. Let us now proceed to the history of our admiral's movements with his fleet in 1793. Hoisting the union flag at the main, he began his cruize off Brest, and in the bay, July 14th. Near a month after, he got sight of the French fleet, and chased them into Brest. He then returned into the Channel August 10th, and anchored in Torbay. On November 18th, while cruizing in the bay, he saw a squadron, to which chase was given, but they effected their escape. What was there in all this, to impeach the well-grounded high reputation of a veteran officer? Yet censure grew loud: he had anchored too much in Torbay. Surely he knew his own business, better than such wise land-men could teach it him. Yes, he wanted not knowledge, but heartiness. Good fortune had damped his spirit, or it was worn out. This was talking idly indeed. At no time of his life could he have been properly styled, brave through necessity. His income was always superior to his wants, as a single man; and when he married, he married an heiress; and anteriorly to that heroical instance of his cool intrepidity displayed at the shore of St. Cas, his family estate had fallen to him. If in his 68th year a youthful ardency might be deemed to have abated, the manly firmness of his soul was the more established in proportion. Whoever suspected him of backwardness, must have known little of the individual; his intimates saw to demonstration, that the most effectual performance of his duty was the ruling passion of his heart. This tumour of slander is a blotch upon Britons, an excrescence from the front of their liberty, but by no means

'*Ense recidendum:—ne pars sincera trahatur.*'
Ov. Met. I. v. 191.'

We shall see the foul eruption strike in again; even though ministers nourished the growth of it—by their silence. They could say, after the memorable first of June, that they had always confided in their admiral; but they chose not to say so now. This is no reflection of my own; they are the words of Earl Howe that I repeat. He had experienced the skulking principles of the same abettors in 1788."

With the same feeling he comments upon their depriving him of the garter.

"Public report asserted, that, antecedently to this visit, his Majesty of his own free will had offered his victorious admiral a vacant blue ribband, or order of the garter; and that this offer so graciously made, had been as thankfully accepted. For this I quote only report, because I never heard it in terms direct from the victor's own mouth. It was not the practice of Lord Howe, to divulge what had been imparted to him by his royal master. Yet neither did he contradict the report; and what he really said relative to the minister's behaviour on the occasion, to my own apprehension absolutely confirms it. The minister, it seems (unknown to his majesty) had already disposed of the vacant garter elsewhere."

Mr. Mason is indeed no friend to the late minister. After sketching with no friendly hand the character of Mr. Fox, he thus proceeds to delineate the man who, to the disgrace of England, has rivalled him in the struggle of power, and to the misfortune of the world, has succeeded in that rivalry:

"The other competitor for the prize has given remarkable proofs of his intimate acquaintance with the grand outlines of the British constitution. This he has manifestly evinced on the most trying occasions. He has zealously maintained the doctrines of the established government against its powerful enemies—whether designing or declared. That he has equally adhered to such doctrine in his own ministerial practice, is more than a hermit's slight social habitude with men enables him to vouch for. The writer must observe a total silence with regard to the deference peculiarly due from this exalted character to the prescriptive rights, and known regulations of the elected body of legislation: he can say nothing at all of the constitutional probity with which this duty has been performed. But for the same person's rhetorical abilities, he seems to have manifested a taste not only in a different manner from that of his rival, but different too from what has been and is conspicuous in the most eloquent speakers of very modern date. His master genius did not endow him with that rich imagination, which beamed so surprizingly on the auditors of Mr. Powis, after Lord Lilford; and which still shines forth with but little inferiority of lustre in the elegant orations of Mr. Wyndham. Nor is he in any degree a match for the singular buoyancy of Mr. Sheridan (if we may argue from the only printed copies of his speeches that are given to the public). Nor does he, like one much younger than himself, Mr. Hawkesbury,) in clear details of facts, or conveyed in an unvitiated style. But by spinning the thread of discourse to an almost immeasurable length without absolutely wearying to satiety the patient attention of an auditory, by thus making a declamation serve the

se of confounding and leading astray the
mprehension of those that are spoken to,
d (lastly) by bedecking periods with a
mpleter coat of varnish than any other
ourist's of the age, the declaimer relies on
rilliant fluency of sentences, as the sub-
ute for depth of knowledge in almost
y business that comes under considera-
.

It was long imagined by Britons in ge-
l, that one of these two competitors, or
ust some eloquent person of similar dis-
ion (that is, always ready to deliver his
ion in public upon all subjects whatever,
ith his cognizance or not) was an indis-
nsable prop for supporting state-matters in
r progress through a house of commons.
the closing period of the lately dissolved
should convince us, that a real man of
business, good common sense, and plain elocution, may be better adapted to the purpose. Let us encourage then a sanguine hope, that the time has come, and the day at length shone forth, when our representatives are finally disenchanted from the hold of an Athenian insanity; and that they will never be fascinated more into the delirium of personal idolaters, either at the striking up of sounding brass, or of a tinkling cymbal."

We do not like this work the less for the author's occasional references to himself and his own opinions. Mr. Mason has the caustic tone of an old man and an invalid; but his understanding is healthy, and he writes like an able and honest man.

rt. IX. *Lives of the Ancient Philosophers: comprehending a choice Selection of their best Maxims; written for the Education of a Prince, by the Author of Telemachus. Translated from the French, illustrated with Notes, and preceded by a Life of Fenelon. By* JOHN CORMACK. 12mo. 2 vols. about 280 pages each.

WE are glad to see a translation of instructive work in our own language; young persons will read it, and ed will read every thing which has e from the chaste pen of Fenelon, amusement and advantage.

The biographical sketch which Mr. Cormack has prefixed to these volumes, is chiefly taken from Chevalier's life of Fenelon, and from D'Alembert's Eloge. The few notes which are added by the translator, will be found extremely useful.

. X. *Eccentric Biography; or, Memoirs of remarkable Female Characters, Antient and Modern: including Actresses, Adventurers, Authoresses, Fortune-Tellers, Gipsies, Dwarfs, Swindlers, Vagrants; and others who have distinguished themselves by their Rashness, Dissipation, Intrepidity, Learning, Abstinence, Credulity, &c. &c. alphabetically arranged; forming a pleasing Mirror of Reflection to the Female Mind. Ornamented with Portraits of the most singular Characters in the Work.* 18mo. pp. 348.

E are by no means disposed to encourage the publication of such meagre ours, such scraps of biography as ; they cannot affect to serve any ose of utility. The lives of courtefortune-tellers, adventurers, &c. are kely to improve the morals of the generation, or to afford them even y rational amusement; they too disseminate a poison, which no antidote will reach, and obtain a disgraceful sale from the stimulant nature of the narrative, or the licentiousness of the language. We have carefully looked over some of those lives, where we dreaded to find the narrative unchaste; but the compiler deserves praise for having admitted no indecent anecdote, and having employed no improper language.

. XI. *Lives of illustrious Seamen; to whose Intrepidity and good Conduct the English indebted for the Victories of their Fleets, the Increase of their Dominions, the Extension their Commerce, and their Pre-eminence on the Ocean; including several Hundred Naval aracters, alphabetically arranged. To which is prefixed, a brief History of the Rise and ogress of the British Navy, and other important Particulars relative to the Subject.* mo. pp. 436.

HE same general objections of meaness and insufficiency, which we urgainst the subject of the preceding , very obviously apply to the eat; where, within the compass our hundred and thirty-six octodecimo pages, are compressed the lives of several hundred naval characters, and a history of the rise and progress of the British navy! If any one wants to know when an admiral or a captain was born, when promoted, in what actions he

signalised himself, and when he died, he may refer to this little pocket volume, and probably have his enquiries correctly answered; if he expects any thing more he will be disappointed. The book is *ornamented* with portraits of a few of the most celebrated characters. *Front ille fides!*

ART. XII. *The Works of the Right Honourable Lady Mary Wortley Montagu. Including her Correspondence, Poems, and Essays. Published by Permission from her Genuine Papers.* 5 vols. crown 8vo.

THE letters of Lady Mary Wortley, during her travels and residence in Turkey, have been long and universally admired as the best models in that kind of composition which our language affords. The liberality of her grandson, the marquis of Bute, therefore, in permitting the present enlarged collection of her epistolary writings to meet the public eye, must ensure for him the gratitude of every friend to polite literature.

Mr. Dallaway, the editor of these volumes, has prefaced them with "Memoirs" of the author, which yield to few similar performances in meagreness of information and tediousness of digression. The few facts we were able to collect from them, we shall lay before our readers as a necessary introduction to our subsequent remarks.

Lady Mary Pierrepoint, daughter of Evelyn, duke of Kingston, was born at Thorsby in Nottinghamshire, about the year 1690. Her father was induced by the early promise of her genius to bestow on her a classical education. —Under the same masters with her brother, she acquired the rudiments of Latin, Greek, and French; and her further studies were superintended by bishop Burnet, who did not fail to discover and applaud her superior talents. Her youth was principally spent in literary retirement; and it was not till 1714, two years after her marriage, that she blazed upon the court in the meridian of wit and beauty, and formed intimacies with Addison, Pope, and the other wits of the age. In 1717, she accompanied her husband on his embassy to the Porte, whence she wrote those admirable letters, to the accuracy of which, in the delineation of Turkish manners, and description of Turkish scenes, Mr. Dallaway has been enabled by local knowledge to bear the fullest testimony. In 1718, she returned to England, and entitled herself to the lasting gratitude of her country by introducing the practice of inoculation.

Her difference with Pope which terminated in an open and irreconcilable enmity, about the year 27, was the most important event of many subsequent years of Lady Mary's life, and was certainly the origin of most of those tales unfavourable to her reputation, which appear to have obtained too much credit both with her contemporaries and with posterity. Pope, mortified at finding himself, after all his fulsome adulation, superseded by the Herveys in the good graces of Lady Mary, and eclipsed in conversation by her wit, was provoked, after several skirmishes of petulant repartee, in which he appears to have gained no advantage, to resort to that cruel and dishonourable mode of attack by which any woman, however respectable, may be overcome by any man, however despicable. Female honour is a structure so easy to be assailed, so difficult to be defended, so impossible to be repaired, that to a mean unprincipled adversary (and such was Pope) it offers irresistible opportunities of inflicting injuries which cannot be retaliated.

How far any levities in her ladyship's conduct might give a plausible colour to scandal, which envy, vice, and folly were glad to believe of a beauty, a wit, and a satirist; but which unbiassed posterity will be loth to credit on the report of an enemy, contrary to many presumptions, cannot now be ascertained. The reasons which induced her to leave her native country in the year 17 with a resolution of passing the rest of her life in Italy, are equally involved in mystery:—it is by no means probable that the decline of her health, the motive assigned by Mr. Dallaway, was the real, or, at least, the only one. Her return to England in 61, immediately on Mr. Wortley's death, seems to imply at a separation from her husband as the true cause of her expatriation, but that this parting was amicable, and by mutual consent, is fully proved by the intimate epistolary intercourse kept up between them during the remainder of their lives. After an absence of two years, Lady Mary returned

Digitized by Google

solicitation of her daughter, the countess of Bute, to her native land, where she died in August 62.

The first of these volumes, besides the "Memoirs" and a translation of the Enchiridion of Epictetus, made by Lady Mary in her youth, which was scarcely worth publishing, contains such of her letters as were written before the year 1717. These are chiefly addressed to Mrs. Wortley, afterwards her mother-in-law, and to Mr. E. Wortley Montagu. Those to Mrs. Wortley are written in pure and elegant language, and afford many indications of the sprightly wit, some of the sarcastic humour, for which she was afterwards so eminent. But she had not yet completely thrown off the shackles of dull formality, and substituted her own inimitable ease and artless grace, in place of that style of high-flown compliment and affected humility then in vogue, which she herself afterwards did so much to bring into discredit.

Her correspondence with Mr. W. Montagu before their marriage, presents perhaps the most curious specimen of love letters ever disclosed to public view. The gentleman appears to have been much enamoured of her, but fearful that she had too little preference of him, and too great a love of general admiration and gay life, to make a good wife. "If I have you," he tells her, "I shall act against my own opinion." Quite opposite was the case of the lady: she greatly esteemed and respected Mr. Wortley, and was eager for the connexion, without being actuated, apparently, by any thing like passion. She warmly endeavours to convince him that he mistakes her character, that her taste is entirely domestic, and that an union would ensure the happiness of them both: at the same time she remonstrates with spirit against his suspicion and indecision; shows him that she does not trust his mercy, and more than once takes him farewel for ever.

To E. W. Montagu, Esq.

"Indeed I do not at all wonder that absence, and variety of new faces, should make you forget me; but I am a little surprised at your curiosity to know what passes in my heart. (a thing wholly insignificant to you) except you propose to yourself a piece of good-natured satisfaction, in finding me very much disquieted. Pray which way would you see into my heart? you can frame no guesses about it from either my speaking or writing; and supposing I should attempt to shew it you, I know no other way.

"I begin to be tired of my humility: I have carried my complaisance to you farther than I ought. You make new scruples: you have a great deal of fancy; and your distrusts being all of your own making, are more immoveable than if there were some real ground for them. Our aunts and grandmothers always tell us, that men are a sort of animals, that if ever they are constant, 'tis only where they are ill used. 'Twas a kind of paradox I could not believe: experience has taught me the truth of it. You are the first I ever had a correspondence with, and I thank God I have done with it for all my life. You needed not to have told me you are not what you have been: one must be stupid not to find a difference in your letters. You seem, in one part of your last, to excuse yourself from having done me any injury in point of fortune. Do I accuse you of any?

"I have not spirits to dispute any longer with you. You say you are not yet determined: let me determine for you, and save you the trouble of writing again. Adieu for ever:—make no answer. I wish among the variety of acquaintance, you may find some one to please you; and can't help the vanity of thinking, should you try them all, you won't find one that will be so sincere in their treatment, though a thousand more deserving, and every one happier. 'Tis a piece of vanity and injustice I never forgive a woman, to delight to give pain; what must I think of a man who takes pleasure in making me uneasy? After the folly of letting you know it is in your power, I ought in prudence to let this go no farther, except I thought you had good nature enough never to make use of that power. I have no reason to think so: however, I am willing, you see, to do you the highest obligation 'tis possible for me to do; that is, to give you a fair occasion of being rid of me.

"M. P."

How this singular couple contrived to make a match at last does not appear: but married they were, without the consent of her father.

The second and almost half the third volume of the present collection, are occupied by the well known "Letters during Mr. Wortley's embassy," of which it is needless for us to speak. The letters to the countess of Mar which succeed, contain much of the tittle-tattle of a licentious court, and many sagacious remarks on life and manners, of which her ladyship was a curious observer and sharp-sighted critic. We are compelled to pronounce these letters the most entertaining that ever were written, though we must at the

Digitized by Google

same time confess, that they contain several expressions which, even in an age less delicate than the present, must have appeared too bold to escape a female pen; and breathe a spirit of libertine levity, which it may be difficult to avoid inhaling in the corrupt atmosphere of a court, but which imparts a taint that neither wit the most brilliant, nor good sense the most admirable, can disguise or palliate. That woman must have been more than a saint who could refrain from talking scandal, when she was capable of clothing it in such a style as this!

"Poor Lady G—— is parting from her discreet spouse for a mere trifle. She had a mind to take the air this spring in a new yacht (which Lord Hillsborough built for many good uses, and which has been the scene of much pleasure and pain): she went in company with his lordship, Fabrice, Mr. Cook, Lady Litchfield, and her sister, as far as Greenwich, and from thence as far as the mouth of the Nore; when to the great surprize of the good company, who thought it impossible the wind should not be so fair to bring them back as it was to carry them thither, they found there was no possibility of returning that night. Lady G——, in all the concern of a good wife, desired her lord might be informed of her safety, and that she was no way blameable in staying out all night. Fabrice wrote a most gallant letter to Lord G——; concluding that Mr. Cook presents his humble service to him, and let him know (in case of necessity) his wife was in town: but his lordship not liking the change, I suppose, carried the letter straight to the king's majesty, who not being at leisure to give an audience, he sent it in open by Mahomet; though it is hard to guess what sort of redress he intended to petition for—the nature of the thing being such, that had he complained he was no cuckold, his majesty at least might have prevailed that some of his court might confer that dignity upon him; but if he was, neither king, council, nor the two houses of parliament, could make it null and of none effect. This public rupture is succeeded by a treaty of separation, and here is all the scandal that is uppermost in my head. I should be glad to contribute any way to your entertainment, and am very sorry you stand in so much need of it. I am ever yours,

"M. W. Montagu."

But Lady Mary, with all her sprightliness, had certainly too much good sense, probably too many right feelings, to be happy in such a continued scene of vice and folly; and the spleen of the following letter does her more honour than all the wit of the former.

"This is a vile world, dear sister, and I can easily comprehend, that whether one is at Paris or London, one is stifled with a certain mixture of fool and knave, which most people are composed of. I would have patience with a parcel of polite rogues, or downright honest fools; but father Adam shines through his whole progeny. So much for our inside; then our outward is so liable to ugliness and distempers, that we are perpetually plagued with feeling our own decays and seeing those of other people. Yet, sixpennyworth of common sense, divided among a whole nation, would make our lives roll away glibly enough; but then we make laws, and we follow customs: by the first we cut off our own pleasures, and by the second we are answerable for the faults and extravagance of others. All these things, and five hundred more, convince me (as I have the most profound veneration for the author of nature) I am satisfied I have been one of *the condemned* ever since I was born; and in submission to the divine justice, I have no doubt but I deserved it in some pre-existent state. I will still hope that I am only in purgatory; and that after whining and pining a certain number of years, I shall be translated to some more happy sphere, where virtue will be natural and custom reasonable; that is, in short, where common sense will reign. I grow very devout, as you see, and place all my hopes in the next life, being totally persuaded of the nothingness of this. Do you remember how miserable we were in the little parlour at Thoresby? we then thought marrying would put us at once in possession of all we wanted. Then came, though, after all, I am still of opinion that it is extremely silly to submit to ill fortune. One should pluck up a spirit, and live upon cordials when one can have other nourishment. These are my present endeavours, and I run about, though I have five thousand pins and needles in my heart. I try to console myself with a young damsel,* who is at present every thing I like—but, alas! she is yet in a white frock. At fourteen, she may run away with the butler:—there's one of the blessed effects of disappointment; you are not only hurt in the thing present, but it cuts off all future hope, and makes your very expectations melancholy. *Quelle vie!*

"M. W. M."

The letters written to her husband and daughter during her last residence abroad, exhibit this extraordinary woman in yet another point of view. They show her, after passing the meridian

"* Her daughter, afterwards countess of Bute."

Digitized by Google

life in all the splendours and frivolities of the great and busy world, again retiring to a rural privacy, resembling that of her early years, once more returning to the studies which had then occupied her thoughts and formed her chief enjoyment; soothing the pains of exile by philosophic reflection, by the contemplation of the beauties of nature in the delicious climate of Italy, and by the pleasing pursuits of agriculture and gardening. Not as formerly, amusing herself with the dreams of hope and delusions of fancy, but calmly imparting to her posterity the lessons of grey experience, and the results of extensive reading and sober meditation: and whilst her wit, instead of arming with its lightnings the uplifted hand of satire, now gilds the brow of wisdom with bright, but lambent, glories. Her pictures of the world are indeed somewhat dark and uninviting;—but when have knowledge and sagacity been employed in making discoveries entirely to the advantage of human nature? From volumes so rich in striking passages, it is no robbery to select a few, for the confirmation of our remarks, and the entertainment of our readers. The following observation is so just, that it is strange it should be so new:

"I find tar-water has succeeded to Ward's drop: it is possible by this time that some other quackery has taken place of that; the English are easier than any other nation imposed by the prospect of universal medicines; nor is there any country in the world where the doctors raise such immense fortunes. I attribute it to the fond credulity which is in all mankind. We have no longer faith in miracles and reliques, and, therefore, with the same fury, run after remedys and physicians: the same money which, three hundred years ago, was given for the health of the soul, is now given for the health of the body, and by the same sort of people, women and half-witted men: in the country, where they have shrines and vows, quacks are despised, and monks and confessors find their account in managing the fear and hope which rule the actions of the multitude."

Among many excellent observations on female education, in her ideas on which subject Lady Mary anticipated the present age, we meet with these:

"I cannot help writing a sort of apology for my last letter, foreseeing that you will think it wrong, or at least Lord Bute will be extremely shocked, at the proposal of a refined education for daughters, which the generality of men believe to be as great a profanation, as the clergy would do, if the laity should presume to exercise the functions of the priesthood. I desire you would take notice, I would not have learning enjoined them as a task, but permitted as a pleasure, if their genius leads them naturally to it. I look upon my grand-daughters as a sort of lay nuns: destiny may have laid up other things for them, but they have no reason to expect to pass their time otherwise, than their aunts do at present; and I know, by experience, it is in the power of study not only to make solitude tolerable, but agreeable. I have now lived almost seven years in a stricter retirement than yours in the isle of Bute, and can assure you, I have never had half an hour heavy on my hands, for want of something to do. Whoever will cultivate their own mind, will find full employment. Every virtue does not only require great care in the planting, but as much daily solicitude in cherishing, as exotic fruits and flowers. The vices and passions (which I am afraid are the natural product of the soil) demand perpetual weeding. Add to this the search after knowledge (every branch of which is entertaining), and the longest life is too short for the pursuit of it; which, though in some regard confined to very straight limits, leaves still a vast variety of amusements to those capable of tasting them, which is utterly impossible to be attained by those that are blinded by prejudice, the certain effect of an ignorant education. My own was one of the worst in the world, being exactly the same as Clarissa Harlow's: her pious Mrs. Norton so perfectly resembling my governess, who had been nurse to my mother, I could almost fancy the author was acquainted with her, she took so much pains, from my infancy, to fill my head with superstitious tales and false notions. It was none of her fault, that I am not at this day afraid of witches and hobgoblins, or turned methodist. Almost all girls are bred after this manner. I believe you are the only woman (perhaps I might say, person) that never was either frighted or cheated into any thing by your parents. I can truly affirm, I never deceived any body in my life, excepting (which I confess has often happened undesigned) by speaking plainly, as Earl Stanhope used to say (during his ministry) he always imposed on the foreign ministers by telling them the naked truth, which, as they thought *impossible* to come from the mouth of a statesman, they never failed to write information to their respective courts directly contrary to the assurances he gave them. Most people confound the ideas of sense and cunning, though there are really no two things in nature more opposite: it is in part, from this false reasoning, the unjust custom prevails of debarring our sex from the advantage of learning, the men fancying the improvement of our understandings would only furnish

Digitized by Google

us with more art to deceive them, which is directly contrary to the truth. Fools are always enterprising, not seeing the difficulties of deceit, or the ill consequences of detection. I could give many examples of ladies whose conduct has been very notorious, which has been owing to that ignorance, which has exposed them to idleness, which is justly called the mother of mischief. There is nothing so like the education of a woman of quality as that of a prince: they are taught to dance, and the exterior part of what is called good breeding, which, if they attain, they are extraordinary creatures in their kind, and have all the accomplishments required by their directors. The same characters are formed by the same lessons, which inclines me to think (if I dare say it) that nature has not placed us in an inferior rank to men, no more than the females of other animals, where we see no distinction of capacity; though, I am persuaded, if there was a commonwealth of rational horses (as Doctor Swift has supposed), it would be an established maxim among them, that a mare could *not* be taught to pace. I could add a great deal on this subject, but I am not now endeavouring to remove the prejudices of mankind; my only design is to point out to my grand-daughters the method of being contented with that retreat, to which unforeseen circumstances may oblige them, and which is perhaps preferable to all the show of public life."

"I can't forbear saying something in relation to my grand-daughters, who are very near my heart. If any of them are fond of reading, I would not advise you to hinder them (chiefly because it is impossible) seeing poetry, plays, or romances; but accustom them to talk over what they read, and point out to them, as you are very capable of doing, the absurdity often concealed under fine expressions, where the sound is apt to engage the admiration of young people. I was so much charmed at fourteen, with the dialogue of Henry and Emma, I can say it by heart to this day, without reflecting on the monstrous folly of the story in plain prose, where a young heiress to a fond father, is represented falling in love with a fellow she had only seen as a huntsman, a falconer, and a beggar, and who confesses, without any circumstance of excuse, that he is obliged to run his country, having newly committed a murder. She ought reasonably to have supposed him, at best, a highwayman; yet the virtuous virgin resolves to run away with him, to live among the banditti, and wait upon his trollop, if she had no other way of enjoying his company. This senseless tale is, however, so well varnished with melody of words, and pomp of sentiments, I am convinced it has hurt more girls than ever were injured by the worst poems extant."

On the authors of the day her remarks are always shrewd, and often [illegible]. For instance,

"I own I have small regard for Lord [illegible]lingbroke as an author, and the highest [illegible]tempt for him as a man. He came into [illegible] world greatly favoured both by nature [illegible] fortune, blest with a noble birth, heir [illegible] large estate, endowed with a strong co[illegible]tution, and, as I have heard, a beau[illegible] figure, high spirits, a good memory, a [illegible] lively apprehension, which was culti[illegible] by a learned education: all these glo[illegible] advantages being left to the direction [illegible] judgment stifled by unbounded vanity, [illegible] dishonoured his birth, lost his estate, ru[illegible] his reputation, and destroyed his health, [illegible] a wild pursuit of eminence even in vice [illegible] trifles.

"His confederacy with Swift and [illegible] puts me in mind of that of Bessus and [illegible] sword-men, in the King and no King, [illegible] endeavour to support themselves by g[illegible] certificates of each other's merit. Pope [illegible] triumphantly declared that they may [illegible] say whatever silly things they please, [illegible] will still be the greatest geniuses nature [illegible] exhibited. I am delighted with the com[illegible]rison given of their benevolence, which [illegible] indeed most aptly figured by a circle in [illegible] water, which widens till it comes to not [illegible] at all."

Fielding was her relation and friend [illegible] she blamed his dissolute manners, [illegible] pitied the poverty which compelled [illegible] "to throw into the world what he ou[illegible] to have thrown into the fire." She [illegible] draws his character:

"I am sorry for H. Fielding's death, [illegible] only as I shall read no more of his writ[illegible] but I believe he lost more than others, as [illegible] man enjoyed life more than he did, the [illegible] few had less reason to do so, the higher [illegible] his preferment being raking in the low [illegible] sinks of vice and misery. I should think [illegible] a nobler and less nauseous employment [illegible] be one of the staff-officers that conduct [illegible] nocturnal weddings. His happy constitu[illegible] (even when he had, with great pains, [illegible] demolished it) made him forget every th[illegible] when he was before a venison pasty, or [illegible] a flask of champaigne; and I am persua[illegible] he has known more happy moments th[illegible] any prince upon earth. His natural spi[illegible] gave him rapture with his cook-maid, an[illegible] cheerfulness when he was starving in a g[illegible] ret. There was a great similitude betwe[illegible] his character and that of Sir Richard Ste[illegible] He had the advantage both in learning, an[illegible] in my opinion, genius: they both agreed [illegible] wanting money in spite of all their frien[illegible] and would have wanted it, if their hereditar[illegible] lands had been as extensive as their im[illegible] nation; yet each of them was so formed [illegible] happiness, it is pity he was not immortal."

Digitized by Google

With two passages relative to her own tastes and feelings in the last years of her life we reluctantly close our extracts.

"I no more expect to arrive at the age of the duchess of Marlborough, than to that of Methusalem; neither do I desire it. I have long thought myself useless to the world. I have seen one generation pass away; and it is gone; for I think there are very few of those left that flourished in my youth. You will perhaps call these melancholy reflections: they are not so. There is a quiet after the abandoning of pursuits, something like the rest that follows a laborious day. I tell you this for your comfort. It was formerly a terrifying view to me, that I should one day be an old woman. I now find that nature has provided pleasures for every state. Those are only unhappy who will not be contented with what she gives, but strive to break through her laws, by affecting a perpetuity of youth, which appears to me as little desirable at present as the babies do to you, that were the delight of your infancy. I am at the end of my paper, which shortens the sermon."

* * * *

"Daughter! daughter! don't call names; you are always abusing my pleasures, which are what no mortal will bear. Trash, lumber, idle stuff, are the titles you give to my favourite amusement. If I called a white staff a stick of wood, a gold key gilded brass, and the ensigns of illustrious orders, mounted strings, this may be philosophically right, but would be very ill received. We have all our play-things, happy are they that can be contented with those they can obtain: those hours are spent in the wisest manner, that can easiest shade the ills of life, and are the least productive of ill consequences. I think my time better employed in reading the adventures of imaginary people, than the duchess of Marlborough, who passed the latter years of her life in paddling with her will, and contriving schemes of building some, and extracting praise from others, to no purpose; eternally disappointed, and eternally fretting. The active scenes are over at my age. I indulge, with all the art I can, my taste for reading. If I would confine it to valuable books, they are almost as rare as valuable men. I must be content with what I can find. As I approach a second childhood, I endeavour to enter into the pleasures of it. Your youngest son is, perhaps, at this very moment riding on a poker, with great delight, not at all regretting that it is not a gold one, and much less wishing it an Arabian horse, which he could not know how to manage. I am reading an idle tale, not expecting wit or truth in it, and am very glad it is not metaphysics to puzzle my judgment, or history to mislead my opinion: he fortifies his health by exercise; I calm my cares by oblivion. The methods may appear low to busy people; but, if he improves his strength, and I forget my infirmities, we both attain very desirable ends."

On the whole it may safely be affirmed, that Lady Mary's present letters confirm the pretensions of her sex to peculiar excellence in the epistolary style; and that however highly France may estimate her Sevigné, England may claim a loftier station for her Montagu. In wit, perhaps, they were equal; and if our countrywoman is surpassed in tender sentiment and the lighter graces by her French rival, she greatly surpasses *her* in philosophy, in good sense, in solidity, and energetic conciseness.

The poetry of Lady Mary partakes much of the character of her prose. The Town Eclogues, all of which appear to have been hers, and many other of her earlier and lighter pieces, are well known:—as a specimen of her later and graver ones, we select two stanzas written in her Italian retreat, which afford a better summary of her life, and most other lives, than any which it is in our power to offer.

"Wisdom, slow product of laborious years,
The only fruit that life's cold winter bears;
Thy sacred seeds in vain in youth we lay,
By the fierce storm of passion torn away.

"Should some remain in a rich gen'rous soil,
They long lie hid, and must be rais'd with toil;
Faintly they struggle with inclement skies,
No sooner born than the poor planter dies."

ART. XIII. *General Biography; or Lives, Critical and Historical, of the most eminent Persons of all Ages, Countries, Conditions, and Professions, arranged according to Alphabetical Order. Composed by* J. AIKIN, *M. D. the Rev.* THOMAS MORGAN, *and Mr.* WILLIAM JOHNSTON. 4to. vol. IV. (from Fab. to Gyl.)

HAVING already noticed this interesting work (see Ann. Rev. for 1802, p. 17.) we shall content ourselves, on the present occasion, with announcing the appearance of the fourth volume, and giving a short summary of its contents. The volume before us comprehends the letters F. and G., under which a number of first-rate characters are included. Among the sovereigns, the Prussian Frederics hold the highest rank; and of these, the life of Frederic the third, or the Great, as he is usually called, is detailed considerably at length,

Digitized by Google

and in a very masterly manner. The estimate of the character of this Prince, both as a sovereign and as a man, we shall select, as an excellent specimen of the judgment and impartiality of the biographer.

"Frederic undoubtedly deserves a conspicuous place among *great princes*. As a general, though he committed faults, yet his celerity and enterprize, his quickness in seizing the precise moment of advantage, the comprehension and accuracy with which he directed complicated plans, his foresight in providing for all events and exigences, the boldness of his designs, and vigour of his execution, have, perhaps, scarcely been surpassed since the time of Cæsar. He was somewhat inclined to rashness, but his situation often justified great hazards. That he was lavish of the lives of his soldiers, was rather a defect in feeling than in judgment. They were the instruments with which he was playing a great game, and he made it finally a winning one. His political talents were very considerable, and well adapted to absolute monarchy. As a man of letters he would probably have shone even independently of his rank, or rather, perhaps the more, had he had the education and employment of a mere man of letters. His judgment was naturally solid, but in some degree perverted by his early prejudices in favour of the superficial French school. His conversation was lively and brilliant, often sarcastical. He was quick at repartee, and readily felt it. A declared unbeliever in revealed religion, his notions as to natural religion seem to have fluctuated; but his morals were uniformly guided by no other rule than his pleasure and interest. He appears to have had little sensibility, and was capable of severe and even cruel actions. Voltaire once characterised him from a marble table that stood before him—as *hard* and *polished*. Yet love of justice and humanity took their turns in his mind, and many examples are related of his clemency and placability."

The crafty Ferdinand of Spain and the gallant Francis of France are interesting and well executed portraits: the popes of the name of Gregory are faithfully characterized by Mr. Morgan, and the sketch of the leading events in the busy reign of Gustavus III. of Sweden, attests the care and accuracy of Mr. Johnston.

Of the statesmen and political personages, the most eminent in the present volume are, Franklin, the Guises, and Gracchi. Thomas Firmin, a London merchant, most honourably distinguished for his unwearied and extensive benevolence, though remarkable neither for science, literature, or rank, is very properly admitted among the worthies of the human race, and is recorded in a manner suitable to his high merit.

The life of Fox, the father of the sect of Friends, or Quakers, is an extremely interesting article, and contains some original information. Bernard Gilpin, the apostle of the north, is the subject of a very pleasing memoir, skilfully abridged from the detailed account of this venerable divine, published by his descendant the vicar of Boldre. The ambitious and persecuting Bishop Gardiner affords a useful but horrible example of the diabolical spirit of religious intolerance. A few new names appear among the theologians; the principal of which are, the learned and irritable Geddes, and Dr. Gerrard, professor of divinity at Aberdeen, for the sketch of whose life the present work is indebted to the Supplement to the Encyclopædia Britannica.

Grotius stands pre-eminent among the men of literature; he is evidently a favourite with his biographer, and has received peculiar and deserved attention. Gibbon, and Dr. Farmer, the late vice-chancellor of Cambridge, here make their appearance for the first time, we believe, in a work of general biography. Several distinguished foreigners, also, hitherto only known by name to the British public, are introduced in this volume; among whom we have observed Filangeri, a learned Italian, author of a celebrated work on the science of legislation; Fulda, the great German philologist; Galeani, the patron of the splendid map of the Neapolitan dominions; and Genovesi, a distinguished professor of moral philosophy at Naples.

The lives of Fielding, Foote, Garrick, Gay, Goldsmith, La Fontaine and Gray, are all from the pen of Dr. Aikin, and contain a fund of excellent criticism on the character of these authors and the literary rank of their works. By way of sample we shall quote the concluding remarks on Gray.

"Many instances may be brought to prove that poets are not, more than other men, the creatures of passion, thoughtlessness, and caprice; and that of Gray is among the number. With a warm imagination, he had cool affections, and a calm sedate disposition. He was attentive to economy, yet void of the least tincture of avarice. Delicacy, with respect to pecuniary matters, was, indeed, carried by him to a degree of excess; for it was

him reject, with a soft of disdainful pride, those emoluments which he might honourably have derived from his literary exertions. The character of an author by profession was that he peculiarly shunned; yet (so difficult consistency) it could have been only upon the strength of his public reputation as a writer, that he became a petitioner for a lucrative sinecure. His friend, Mr. Mason, attests his secret bounty, even when his circumstances were the most narrow. He was very careful of himself, and so timorous, that it is said, some of the finest views in a tour to the lakes escaped him, because he did not choose to venture to those spots where they were to be seen. This want of personal courage singularly contrasts with the manly and martial strains of his poetry. In morals he was temperate, upright, and a constant friend to virtue. His religious opinions were not known, but he always reprobated the dissemination of scepticism and infidelity. Few men of his reputation have had less vanity, and he bore with good humour and easy negligence all the critical attacks upon his compositions. As the *learning* of Gray was entirely for his own use, and produced no fruits for the public, it has no claims to particular notice. From the testimony of his friends, it seems to have comprised almost every topic of human enquiry, excepting those belonging to the exact sciences. We are almost tantalised with accounts of the valuable remarks he made upon authors and subjects in the course of his reading, which, if so deep and original as they are represented, ought in some manner to have been brought to public view. If he was, as one of his admirers has asserted, 'perhaps the most learned man in Europe,' never was learning more thrown away. It is exclusively as a *poet* that his name deserves to be transmitted to posterity. In this capacity, the small number of his compositions, compared with the high rank he has attained, must be considered as indicative of an uncommon degree of excellence in his art. And, in reality, no one appears to have possessed more of that faculty of poetical perception which distinguishes among all the objects of art and nature what are fittest for the poet's use, together with the power of displaying them in their richest colours. That many of these objects were derived to him from the books of other writers will not be denied by a judicious admirer; and if a distinction is to be made between the poet of nature and the poet of study, he is certainly to be ranged in the latter class. It has already been remarked, that his two principal odes are expressly addressed to prepared readers; and to enter into his beauties, both of diction and versification, a course of poetical study is necessary. Even with such a preparation, the delight they afford will not be the same to all, as is manifest from Dr. Johnson's derogatory strictures; in which, however, candid readers have discovered more ill-nature than taste. In pure invention Gray cannot be said to excel, neither is he highly pathetic or sublime; but he is splendid, lofty, and energetic; generally correct, and richly harmonious.—Though lyric poetry is that in which he has chiefly exercised himself, he was capable of varying his manner to suit any species of composition. Perhaps he was best of all qualified for the moral and didactic, if we may judge from his noble *fragment* of 'An Essay on the Alliance of Education and Government." But the number of his fragments indicates a want of power to support a long-continued flight; and it would be too indulgent to suppose that he *could* have performed all that he planned. As a writer of Latin verse he is perhaps surpassed by few in classic propriety, and certainly excels the ordinary tribe of Latin versifiers in novelty and dignity. The familiar letters of Gray are entertaining and instructive. They are free from all parade, and possess a fund of pleasantry, sometimes bordering upon quaintness."

There are several new articles of foreign naturalists, chiefly with the signature of Mr. Johnston, in which, however, although we meet with satisfactory accounts of the leading events of their lives, and accurate lists of their publications, we miss those concise but highly useful and interesting estimates of the value and object of their writings, which we meet with in the other departments. Such a summary would have been peculiarly desirable in the lives of Ferber the mineralogist, Reinhold Forster, and Gmelin; and Gledifsch the acute investigator of the cryptogamous vegetables.

ART. XIV. *An Account of the Life and Writings of Thomas Reid, D. D. F. R. S. Edinburgh; late Professor of Moral Philosophy in the University of Glasgow. By* DUGALD STEWART, *F. R. S. Edinburgh. Read at different Meetings of the Royal Society of Edinburgh.* 8vo. pp. 222.

THE calm and unambitious life of a philosopher recorded in these pages is but little calculated to attract public notice. In the exemplary discharge of the duties, first, as a Christian minister, and afterwards as a teacher of moral philosophy, in the universities of Aberdeen and Glasgow, he "held the noiseless tenor of his way" for forty-four years. At this period, in 1781, being then upwards of seventy, with faculties matured, but unimpaired, he resigned the professorial dignity, and devoted the whole vigour of his mind to those

metaphysical investigations that had long engaged his attention. The result of his meditations was, a series of *Essays on the intellectual Powers of Man*; which appeared in 1785, and a treatise on the *active powers*, published in 1788. These works, although they encountered some opposition in Scotland, and were severely and somewhat illiberally attacked by Dr. Priestley, raised the character of their author to considerable eminence, as a sagacious observer of the phenomena of mind. Having thus terminated his public literary labours, Dr. Reid occupied the last eight years of his life in retracing the mathematical pursuits of his earlier years, in the investigation of the new and more philosophical principles of modern chemistry, and in composing occasionally short essays for friendly discussion in a philosophical society of which he was a member. Thus agreeably employed, respected by the public, beloved by his friends, and retaining a considerable share both of mental and bodily activity, he reached his eighty-seventh year; when a violent disorder terminated his life, after an ineffectual struggle of about a fortnight, on the 7th of October 1796.

The principal part of the volume before us is occupied by remarks upon Dr. Reid's metaphysical works, and a defence of his system from some fundamental objections. On some points Professor Stewart has successfully vindicated his venerable tutor; but on others we are of opinion that he has completely failed. The total indifference, however, of the English public, to the subject in question, deters us from entering into the discussion.

ART. XV. *The Revolutionary Plutarch; exhibiting the most distinguished Characters, literary, military, and political, in the recent Annals of the French Republic; the greater Part from the original Information of a Gentleman resident at Paris. To which, as an Appendix, is reprinted entire, the celebrated Pamphlet of "Killing no Murder."* 8vo. Two vols.

ART. XVI. *History of the French Consulate under Napoleon Bonaparte: being an authentic Narrative of his Administration, which is so little known in Foreign Countries. Including a Sketch of his Life. The whole interspersed with curious Anecdotes, and a faithful Statement of interesting Transactions until the Renewal of Hostilities in 1803. By* W. BARRE, *Witness to many of the Facts related in the Narrative.* 8vo. pp. 536.

FEAR is always cruel. The Romans had once been driven to the very brink of ruin by the abilities of Hannibal, and never after thought themselves secure till their persecutions had driven the exiled warrior to self-destruction. The ambition of Louis XIV. was stopped in the midst of its career by William III.: and when the victorious arms of the confederates were on the point of inflicting on France the desolation which had attended the march of her troops through the states of Germany, and the provinces of Belgium, a plot to assassinate the redeemer of the liberties of Europe was contrived by the French ministry, and sanctioned by its monarch. The ungenerous policy of England filled Ireland with disaffection, and her alarmed ministers of torture were let loose to quell, by means which would have disgraced even an Alva, the commotions of her own raising. Bonaparte has threatened us with invasion, and Englishmen have been found to propose an atrocious and unsparing warfare, which in modern times has been commanded only by Robespierre, and has been practised by none. In the late war and in the present the British ministry has been loudly accused of participating in, and encouraging those plans of assassination, which have been directed against the person of the chief magistrate of France. Let the ministry, if they can with truth, vindicate themselves from so black a charge by a solemn and authentic disavowal; and let the British public show the high honour and intrepid courage, for which they have long been renowned, by consigning to merited contempt and abhorrence all works, together with their authors, whose direct tendency is to degrade the generous and high-spirited patriot into the lurking assassin.

Digitized by Google

CHAPTER X.

POETRY.

THE poetical productions of the last year have been unusually numerous, and f unusual merit. We do not mean to say that all, or even a majority of them re entitled to public notice, but the proportion of those that are so is considerably reater than might reasonably be expected. Mr. Turner, the Historian of the Anglo-Saxons, has been engaged in the study of Welch Literature, and has evinced is attachment to the ancient language of Britain, by publishing a satisfactory indication of the genuineness and antiquity of many poems popularly attributed o Taliesin, Merdhin, and the other great bards of Wales: judging from the speimens which this gentleman has translated in the course of his work, the poems in uestion are certainly worthy of appearing in an English version, but are more kely to be consulted by the antiquary and historian, than resorted to by the ver of poetry. The re-publication, by the late Mr. Ritson, of the most celeated Metrical Romances, is a very important service conferred on the literature his country: on the knowledge and incorruptible fidelity of this editor the public ay rest with liberal confidence, and will be inclined to excuse or overlook the inmperate abuse into which his regard for critical veracity has not unfrequently rayed him. The third and last volume of Mr. Scott's Minstrelsy of the Scottish order has made its appearance, and will add considerably to his reputation as a et, without impeaching his taste in any other respect. Mr. Ellis has published a w and improved edition of his elegant and learned Specimens of English Poetry, om the earliest Ages, to the middle of the seventeenth Century. Dr. Darwin's emple of Nature will not, in our opinion, add greatly to his fame, either as a poet or hilosopher. Mr. Maurice, the author of the History of India, has collected his attered poems, together with some new pieces, into a very interesting volume, f characteristic of which is splendour and harmony without much pathos. The humous poems of the late Mr. Moore, are an affecting proof, that genius, ste, piety, and poetic fire, are not of themselves sufficient to dissipate the deep urity with which modest worth is too often enveloped. We trust that the ng candidate for poetic fame who has celebrated Clifton Grove with the first al warblings of his melodious muse, will find the patronage which he so amply rves. A translation of some of the shorter Poems of Camoens has been pubed by Lord Strangford, who, with singular want of judgment, has contrived to ess us with high respect for his abilities as a poet, at the entire expence of his uracy as a translator. The Pleader's Guide, attributed by public report to the of the author of the New Bath Guide, contains more genuine wit and humour n we have met with for several years: And the Poems of Mrs. Grant impress with high and equal respect for her domestic virtues and her natural talents.

Digitized by Google

ART. I. *Vindication of the Genuineness of the Ancient British Poems of Aneurin, Taliesin, Llywarch-Hen, and Merdhin: with Specimens of the Poems.* By SHARON TURNER, *F. A. S.* 8vo. pp. 284.

THE Myvyrian archaiology of Wales has thrown much light on the early antiquities of Great Britain. It contains close translations of many poems, ascribed to bards of the sixth century, which have been preserved in manuscripts, said to be of the twelfth century; and which, with some deductions for interpolation, and some for modernization, really appear to have been written by the persons whose names they bear: Aneurin, Taliesin, Llywarch, and Merdhin. They respect Arthur, Geraint, Urien, and other heroes, hitherto only known from the mythological chronicles of the romancers.

Of Welsh population and civilization the probable history is difficult to evolve. Traces of a Cimmerian tribe may be found on the skirts of Anatolia, afterwards in Thrace, next among the Alps, in Denmark, and in Gaul, finally in Britain. But the continental Cimmerians appear to have been a savage, pastoral people, ignorant of the arts of life. The Cimmerians of Cornwall and Britany, on the contrary, the Armorican or *sea-shore* Cimmerians, appear early to have attained a high degree of civilization; and when discovered by Julius Cæsar, were already subjected to the bardic discipline, accustomed to the use of Greek letters, and attached to various Phœnician divinities. It may be inferred, therefore, that they derived their civilization, not from their Cimmerian progenitors, but from Phœnician traders, who communicated to them the same alphabet which they had already conferred on the Greeks, and who founded civil and religious regulations analogous to their own. The insertion of these buds of refinement was of course gradual and successive; but tradition distinguished an eminent effort at colonization, a sensible intrusion of emigrants, "who had crossed the hazy sea," natives, says Taliesin, of Gafis, who, under Hu the mighty, came from the summer country, and instructed the Cimmerians in agriculture. After the arrival of Hu, the island is said to have been named Britain, from a governor of his appointing. These persons are probably the Corineus and Brutus, so celebrated by Jeffrey of Monmouth: for Gadarn-Hu, or Hu the mighty, differs little from Corineus. These settlers are stated to have fled from the destruction of their city by a foreign power; their domestication must have preceded the arrival of Julius Cæsar by a century, to account for the progress of their arts and institutions: it seems probable, therefore, that Carthage is the Gafis of Taliesin, and that the refugees from Roman devastation came hither by sea, with what property they could remove, and founded our love for order and for commerce. This is further corroborated by the circumstance, that they are stated previously to have attempted a settlement in Aquitain.

It is peculiarly probable that the taste for pedigrees, so notoriously cultivated by the Jews and Arabs, should have been introduced by a Phœnician or Carthaginian colony; and it is remarkable, that the oldest of all the Welsh pedigrees, that which Tysilio gives of Cassibellan, precisely amounts to Hisychion: that is, Hu-ysgown, or the great Hu, whom Gwyn ab Nudd, a bard of the fifth century, appears to consider as the introducer of oxen, and who perhaps really introduced the *ychain bonheddig*, the oxen with high prominences, or buffaloes, noticed in the triads. To his descendant Coel, the grandson of Caractacus, is ascribed the introduction of the water-mill: the captivity of his family probably occasioned him to learn in Italy both its use and method of construction.

To the intelligence contained in the triads Mr. Turner seems little attached, he abandons them to shy suspicion.

"I do not propose," he says, "this work to be a vindication of all the poems that have been genetally attributed to Aneurin, Taliesin, Merdhin, or Llywarch-Hen, or promiscuously published as theirs. My object is to authenticate the genuineness of such of them as I think beyond all dispute; and they are the following:

"Of ANEURIN—The Godolin.

"Of LLYWARCH HEN—The Elegy on Geraint ab Erbin—Ditto on Urien Rheged—Ditto on Cynddylan—Ditto on Cadwallon—The Poem on his Old Age—Ditto to Madawyn—Ditto to the Cuckoo.

"Of MERDHIN—The Avallenau.

"Of TALIESIN—The Poems to Urien and on his Battles—his Dialogue with Ma-

Digitized by Google

hin—the Poems on Elphin—and his Historical Elegies.

"In selecting the above, I do not mean to insinuate that some others, which are ascribed to these authors, may not be genuine likewise. I am satisfied that some are not genuine, and that some have been interpolated. There are several others, however, specially of Taliesin, which may be genuine. But I conceive that the question which presses is, not whether this or that poem is to be accredited, because a simpler investigation of its evidences might determine that, if a given number had been already admitted, but whether there are *any* which ought to be placed in an age so early. The prevailing scepticism denies that there are any genuine poems of the sixth century extant. It asserts, that every Welch poem, referred by Welchmen to this ancient period, is a factitious composition of the twelfth or succeeding century. My duty, therefore, if I attempt to impugn this scepticism, is to shew that there are genuine works of the 6th century now in existence. I adduce the poems above selected as such. If my arguments are successful as to these poems, then any others may be added to the accredited number, which judicious and learned criticism shall allow to be genuine, after due consideration.

"Now of the Godolin, I have mentioned, that, until very lately, a *MS.* of it was in the Hengurt library, which seemed to be of the hand-writing of the twelfth century. I am informed that it was in hand-writing of appearance very similar to the book of Taliesin, which is yet in the library, and may be seen by any one. A complete transcript of the Godolin was made by Mr. Vaughan, in the time of Charles the first, and many copies of it, of various dates, exist in Welch collections.

"The poems of Llywarch-Hên, above mentioned, are in the black book of Caermarthen, and in the red book of Hergest. They are a part of Mr. Vaughan's transcript, with others.

"The Avallenau of Merdhin is in the black book of Caermarthen, with others that are ascribed to him. It is in sir Hugh Penrhyn's transcript, made in the time of Henry the eighth, in the Kutta Kyvaruydh, and in other transcripts.

"Of Taliesin, the dialogue with Merdhin, the graves of the warriors, and a few others, are in the black book of Caermarthen. Most of these, which I have mentioned to be his, with others in the MS. called the book of Taliesin, in the Hengurt library, which was written in the twelfth century, or nearly so, some are in the red book of Hergest, some are in Mr. Vaughan's transcript, and some in y Kutta Kyvaruydh.

"What other ancient *MSS.* of any of the poems of these bards, are in the Macclesfield or other collections, I cannot state, as I am not informed. But I conceive, that from the above statement, I am authorized to affirm, that there are MSS. of poems of these four bards now extant, which were written in or before the twelfth century. I will confirm this assertion by shewing, 2ndly, That these poems, or some of them, and their authors, have been mentioned or alluded to by a series of bards, whose works still exist undisputed, from before the twelfth century to a recent period."

Mr. Turner proceeds through his defence in great detail, and with great success. Of those proofs deducible from the language of the poems, we cannot judge; the persons mentioned, and the ideas brought forward, may well have been familiar at the time in question; the talent necessary to forge poems so probable, would have secured poems superior; the inexplicability of many allusions, especially in Taliesin, throw back the compositions to a period which it must be highly interesting to illustrate and to decypher. Let us suppose that to Llywarch are ascribed poems, too remote in their chronology to have been written by one man, unless a patriarchal longevity be attributed to him; this would only render the existence of two or three Llywarchs probable. The profession of bard, in the case of Taliesin, was also hereditary. The ode to the cuckoo has a something not antique about it: so has the ode to the rose in Anacreon. Yet who disputes the genuineness of the earlier simpler songs, because a polished, finished, elaborate, exquisite one happens to be attached.

It has been objected that these Welsh bards call the English, both *Eisyl*, that is Angles, *Saeson*, that is Saxons, and *Allmyn*, that is Alemanni, at a time when the Anglo-Saxons were so newly imported, that they could not yet have imposed their name on the nations at war with the Welch, and when the Alemanni were restricted to the neighbourhood of Switzerland. It is, however, by no means clear that these denominations were first introduced with Hengist and Horsa, who indeed were leaders of the Jutes. There must have been an extensive gothic population in the country, long before this pretended importation of the gothic race; and it is not unlikely that Angles and Saxons were resorted to as defenders against the Picts, because Angles and Saxons were the tribes to be defended. Nor is it unlikely that any and every army, indiscriminately recruited among the gothic na-

tions, should have been called an army of Alemanni, or *all-men*, whether it was led against Clovis or Arthur.

The following passage throws much light on the religious tenets of the Druids:

"They mention three regions of existence, which, it is very curious to observe, they denominate cylchau, or circles.*

"In the *cylch y Ceugant*, or the circle of the all-inclosing circle, there was nothing either alive or dead, but God (Dun), and he only, could pervade it. The circle of *Gwynvyd*, or felicity, is that which men are to pervade after they have passed through their terrestrial changes. But the circle of *Abred*, or evil, is that in which human nature passes through those varying stages of its existence which it must undergo, before it is qualified to inhabit the circle of felicity.

"All animated beings have three states of existence to pass through. The state of Abred, or evil in Annwn, or the great deep; the state of freedom, in the human form; and the state of love, which is happiness, in the nev, or heaven. All beings, but God, must therefore undergo three angen, or necessities. They must have a beginning in Annwn, or the great deep; a progression in Abred, or in the state of evil; and a completion in the circle of felicity in heaven.

"In the evil state of Abred there are three angen, or necessities. There must be *existence* in its least possible degree, which is its commencement. There must be the *matter* of every thing, from which proceeds increase, or progression of existence, which cannot be in the other states, and there must be the *forms* of all things whence discriminating individuality.

"The three necessary causes of the state of Abred, are to collect the matter of every nature, to collect the knowledge of every thing, and to collect power to destroy Gwrth (the opposing) and Cythraul†, and to divest ourselves of evil. Unless every state of being is thus passed through, there can be no perfection.

"The three chief infelicities attached to the state of Abred are, that we incur necessity, oblivion, and death; and these things are the divine instruments for subduing evil (Drwg) and Cythraul. The deaths which follow our changes are so many escapes from their power.

"Humanity must necessarily suffer change, and choose; and as it has the liberty of choosing, its sufferings and changes cannot be foreseen.

In passing through the changes of life attached to the state of Abred, it is possible for man, by misconduct, to fall returning into the lowest state from which he has emerged.

"There are three things which will inevitably plunge him back into the circle of Abred. Pride,—for this he will fall to Annwn, which is the lowest point at which existence begins; falsehood, which will plunge him to Obryn‡; and cruelty, which will consign him to Cydvil§: from these he must proceed again in due course, through changes of being, up to humanity.

"From this exposition we see that the bardic transmigration was from Annwn through the changes of Abred to the felicities of heaven. These changes never ended till man had fitted himself for heaven. If his conduct in any one state, instead of improving his being, had made it worse, he fell back into a worse condition, to commence again his purifying revolutions.

"Humanity was the limit of the degrading transmigrations. All the changes above humanity were felicitating.

"To acquire knowledge, benevolence, and power, is the object of the human state; and these, as they require liberty and choice, cannot be attained in any state previous to humanity. Knowledge, benevolence, and power, are the arms by which Drwg and Cythraul are to be subdued: humanity is the scene of the contest.

"I will now only add, that to have traversed every state of animated existence, to remember every state and its incidents, and to be able to traverse every state that may be desired for the sake of experience and improvement, is that consummation which can only be attained in the circle of felicity. In this circle man will be still undergoing revolutions of existence, but happy ones, because he only can endure the eternities of the circle of infinity without changing. Man's life and changes in the circle of felicity will consist in perpetual acquisition of knowledge, love, and joyful variety, and occasional repose.‖

* "We cannot avoid recollecting here, that the great druidical temples of Stonehenge and Avebury, the smaller remains in Cornwall, that formerly in Jersey, now removed to Lord Conway's park, and others, exhibit *circles* of stones, as the essential form of their structure.

† "Cythraul is the British name for the devil; it means the destroying principle, and may have been derived from the ancient mythology of the nation: I have therefore preserved the name in the text.

‡ "Obryn literally means, "something nearly equivalent." It therefore implies a retrograded transmigration adequate to the fault committed.

§ "This literally means 'a corresponding animal,' or a transmigration into some vicious animal.

‖ "The book of bardism, containing these tenets, has not yet been printed. It is said it will appear in the fourth volume of the Welch Archaiology. But copious extracts

" He may visit again the scenes of humanity for his pleasure, but cannot incur any moral depravity.

" Such is the bardic doctrine of transmigration, as it appears in the book of bardism. How far it transmits the tenets of the druids on this subject, or what modifications christianity introduced, cannot now be ascertained. By recollecting this doctrine of transmigrations, we may understand many passages of Taliesin. His Hanes Taliesin is a recital of his pretended transmigrations; and when we read in his other poems, that he has been in various shapes, as a serpent,¶ a wild sow, a buck, or a crane, and such like, we must call to mind, that those scenes of existence in Abred, which were between unknown and humanity, were the changes of being in the bodies of different animals. One great privilege of the being, who was far advanced in his progression to the circle of felicity, was to remember all the states through which he had passed. Taliesin seems to have been eager to establish his claims to such a successful probation. He is perpetually telling us what he has been. Oblivion is one of the courses of Abred; the recovery of memory was a proof that Drwg and Ahraul began to be overcome. Taliesin therefore as profusely boasts of his recovered reminiscence, as any modern sectary can do of his grace and election.

" There is so much of Taliesin's poetry which no one can understand, that I cannot place him, in point of intrinsic merit, below the other bards, although, in the estimation of his countrymen, he seems to have been ranked in a superior class."

We can not but wish that this book had been accompanied with an appendix, containing a complete copy of the poems illustrated. It is natural to expect in these the reliques of a high degree of literature and information. In imitation of Britain, and in concert with it, Armorica, the north-west corner of Gaul, declared, about the year 410, the revolt of Constantine against the Roman emperor Honorius; but it did not resume on the death of the rebel its ancient allegiance. Under a constitution, in which the clergy, the nobility, and the city-corporations had all a formal influence, it continued in a state of independence until Charlemayne. The titular sovereignty of Clovis, who, by an opportune conversion to christianity, obtained the voluntary submission of the Armoricans, encroached so little on the real franchises of the burghers, that neither he nor his royal successors rivalled in power the metropolitan mayors. The conduct of the independent British was similar. First they hired the protection of the gothic stragglers; next they conferred a limited and local sovereignty; and finally they submitted wholly to the sway of the barbarian intruders: a revolution which may be considered as completed throughout this island, with the exception of a few Welsh mountains, under-Offa, the correspondent of Charlemayne. During this interval of Armorican independence, and by the users of the Welch language, was laid the ground-work of all that is most peculiar in the civilization of modern Europe. A curious dissertation on this topic occurs in the Monthly Magazine (vol ix. p. 4), but the author has omitted to enquire whether heraldry, and the architecture called gothic, are not as unquestionably of Armorican or Cimmerian origin, as romance, rime, and chivalry. Let us hope the Welch antiquaries will not neglect the illustration of all these topics; and that the Mabinogi, or romances, will especially be communicated without abbreviation of any kind, and with all their instructive imperfections on their head.

II. *Ancient English Romances, selected and published by* JOSEPH RITSON. 8vo. 3 vols.

THE age of Pope has been called the Augustan age of English literature, with more propriety indeed than they who conferred upon it the appellation were aware of; for as the age of Augustus was inferior to that of Lucretius and Catullus, and almost to that of Cicero, so had the great men of England passed away before a French school was established in the country, of Shakespere, and Spenser, and Milton. One remarkable characteristic of this school is, their total want of all due sense and feeling of their predecessors' excellence. When Spenser and Milton mention the great poets of their own country, it is delightful to observe with what love

¶ be found at the end of the second volume of Mr. Edward Williams's poems, with notations. I cannot speak of this gentleman, without mentioning his talents with high respect, nor without recommending him earnestly to the attention of his wealthy countrymen. His age enforces the claims of his genius.

* Wyf sarph, p. 27.—bum hwch—bum banwch—bum garan, p. 44.

Digitized by Google

and reverence they regard them, being themselves the greatest. Because they possessed genius in the highest degree, they loved it and reverenced it wherever it was to be found.

Δευτερον αυτε γενος, πολυ χειροτερον, μετοπισθεν
Αργυρεον ποιησαν ελυμπια δωματ' εχοντες
Χρυσεω ουτε φυην εναλιγκιον, ουτε νοημα.

Heriod.

When the race of little men had succeeded, they were for improving every thing. Dryden, who is at the head of our second rate writers, the king of this silver age, was perpetually exemplifying the Procrustean tyranny of cutting down taller men than himself to his own measure; he could perceive that Chaucer was a poet, but his old gold seemed to him to want scouring, and he thought it was reserved for him to make it shine.—Shakespere too had written admirable dramas; but Dryden could improve the Tempest, by creating a sister Sycorax for Caliban, inventing a man who had never seen woman, to match the maid who had never seen man, and seasoning the whole with his cantharides powder. So also he acknowledged the merit of Milton, but believed that the Paradise Lost might be improved upon the same receipt of cantharides and rime. In this same spirit, Timon of Athens was polluted by Shadwell, whose bust should be expelled from Westminster Abbey, as Marat has been from the Pantheon; and Nahum Tate, who had laid his irreverent hands upon King David, committed high treason against King Lear. With the same arrogance of imagined superiority, Pope reversified Chaucer, and translated Homer; adapting them to his own standard of poetry, with as little mercy as a modern barber would show to the grey hairs and beards of the old worthies themselves, were they living, and submitted to his improvements.

This French school was of no long continuance; a system so favourable to mediocrity still has, and long will have its underling abettors; but from the days of Pope to the present period, they who have obtained anything that can be called fame, have formed themselves upon different models. Young, extravagant as he is, so often "tottering on the edge of nonsense," and so often on the wrong side the line, is still a powerful and original writer; he resembles one of the savage, or rather frantic trees of Salvator Rosa, knobbed, and knotted, and writhed, yet manifesting strength in all its wreathings and distortions. Something of his popularity, Thomson owes to his miserable tales of Damon and Musidora, and Palæmon and Lavinia; *studiorum modus mentis est infinitus*, and these stories have therefore found infinite admirers; but the better part of his Seasons, and still more his Castle of Indolence, have enabled him to a high and permanent rank among the poets of England. It was from Greece that Akenside derived his high and ennobling sentiments, and the passionate admiration of whatever is great and noble, which will for ever make him the favourite of all young men, from whom any thing great and noble is to be expected. Gilbert West also formed himself upon the Greeks; few poets, with so little celebrity, have produced more effect; for his reputation is not equal to his merit, but he gave the impulse and tone to Mason, and Gray, and Warton.

Meantime the works of our own ancients had been long neglected. It had been ignorantly asserted and ignorantly admitted, that Waller was the first of our poets who versified well, and Pope the first who wrote correctly. This error of taste was strengthened by Pope's ridicule of black letter learning; he hated Theobald, because he was mortified that a dull man had excelled him in perceiving a dull man's work; and, as had before done in the case of Bentley, laboured to depreciate acquirements which he knew himself to be deficient. This ridicule was aided and aped by Ward, a needy Scotchman, who was at all times ready to earn his dirty bread by dirty work; who cringed to Pope while he was living, and calumniated him after his death.

The growing fame of Shakespere gradually to a manlier taste; as the [illegible] of criticism which Theobald had discovered was pursued, it was found that the writers who were consulted for the purpose of elucidating Shakespere, were in many instances themselves valuable. The business of annotating has at length been carried to excess, so much so as to be disgraceful to the national literature. Commentators swarm upon Shakespere like flesh-flies over a dead lion. An accidental good however has arisen. Many authors who would else have perished irretrievably in the course of another century, or perhaps another generation, are now secured; they are sought after because they are rare, and they are preserved because they are costly.

But the publication of the Reliques of
ntient Poetry, must be regarded as the
reat poetical epoch of the present reign.
hat Percy has been an unfaithful editor
certain; it is equally certain, that a
rupulous fidelity would have prevented
e popularity of his book, and the excel-
t effects which it has produced. There
isted no taste for such antiquities in
country at that time; and to him, as
founder or reviver of that taste, we
y apply, with little wresting of its pur-
rt, the delightful praise designed for
ideal character of the poet, by Sir
ilip Sidney; "for he doth not only
w the way, but giveth so sweet a pros-
ct into the way, as will entice any man
enter into it; nay, he doth, as if your
urney should be through a fair vine-
rd, at the first give you a cluster of
apes, that full of that taste you may
g to pass further. He beginneth not
h obscure definitions, which must
re the margent with interpretations,
l, load the memory with doubtful-
; but he cometh to you with words
delightful proportion, either ac-
panied with, or prepared for the well
anting skill of music, and with a tale
ooth) he cometh unto you, with a
which holdeth children from play,
ld men from the chimney corner."
d English poetry now became a fa-
te branch of literature. The num-
f imitations which were contained
ns's collection of ballads, evinced
eep an interest had been excited by
eliques. Several of our middle
oets were now published by Da-
useful and respectable bookseller,
name deserves this honourable
on; and poor Headley made his
ions, even in his last sickness:

t to rescue some neglected rime,
looming from the mournful waste of
e;
ll each scattered sweet, that seemed to
ile
wers upon some long forsaken pile."
Bowles.

ore important task was under-
y Thomas Warton; but like Jor-
n he loved literature well enough
t in collecting materials, he loved
e too well to take the trouble of
g them. He prosecuted his his-
dog takes a journey, starting
pursue chance game, and run-
self out of breath without ad-
vancing, till he tired himself, and lay down to sleep upon the way. He is often inaccurate, sometimes hypothetical in his opinions, and sometimes capricious in his taste; yet his book contains much amusing information, and will be read with interest, and consulted with advantage.

Mr. Ellis has prefixed to his specimens of the early English poets, a history in every respect better, except in its brevity. In this he earnestly recommended the publication of some of our metrical romances, and such a work has now been executed by Mr. Ritson, of all men living the best qualified for the task, and the most trust-worthy.*

"This collection, then, of Ancient Engleish Metrical Romancees consists of such pieceës as, from a pretty general acquaintance, have been selected for the best. Every article is derive'd from some ancient manuscript, or old printed copy, of the authenticity of which the reader has all possible satisfaction; and is printed with an accuracy, and adherence to the original, of which the publick has had very few examples. The utmost care hath been observe'd in the glossary, and every necessary or useful information (to the best of the editours judgement) is giveën in the notes.

"Brought to an end with much industry and more attention, in a continue'd state of il-health, and low spirits, the editour abandons it to general censure, with cold indifference, expecting little favour, and less profit; but certain, at any rate, to be insulted by the malignant and calumnious personalitys of a base and prostitute gang of lurking assassins, who stab in the dark, and whose poisone'd daggers he has allready experience'd.

Mr. Ritson can feel, and confess that he feels, the malignity of others. The lot of Ishmael may be hard; but if he will lift his hand against every man, he must expect that every man's hand will be against him. The laudable and conscientious accuracy of this editor is well known; his Antient Songs, his edition of Laurence Minot, and his Robin Hood, with his other publications of a like nature have sufficiently evinced it. The unhappy infirmity of his temper is also known. The offensive virulence with which he insults those from whom he piffers in opinion, and the more offensive fanaticism with which he has obtruded upon the public his hideous and hateful blasphemies. We speak thus of Mr. Ritson with more pity than indignation; lamenting that a man of such patient re-

* perhaps scarcely necessary to remark that this article was received by the editor be-
eath of Mr. Ritson. *Edit.*

Digitized by Google

search, and scrupulous fidelity, should thus disgrace and injure himself; and lamenting also, that the heart of any human being should be so inveterately and hopelessly diseased.

These volumes are prefaced with a long dissertation on romance and minstrelsy, of which the first section is upon the origin of romance. Mr. Ritson begins by asserting, that the Iliad and Odyssey, the Argonauticks, the Thebaid, &c. are, in reality, as perfect metrical romances as the stories of King Arthur and Charlemayne. The siege of Troy, he says, as related by Homer, not being at all more certain, or more credible, than that of Albracca, as asserted by Boiardo. It is the humour of this writer to disbelieve those things which he ought to believe; but in this instance, happily, the error of his opinion does not injure his induction. In all ages it has been the business of the poet to

"Sing of knights and ladies gentle deeds;"

and the difference between the epic poem, and the metrical romance is more a difference of degree than of kind.

"After Statius, there is no metrical-romance-writeër, or epick poet, in the Latin tongue, known to have existed before Joseph of Exeter, call'd by some Cornelius Nepos, who wrote, in six books, of The Trojan war, and, in one book, The war of Antioch; and flourished, according to Bale, about the year 1210; or Philip Gualtier, a Frenchman, authour of The Alexandreid, or actions of Alexander the Great, about the same period: all three in imitation of Lucan, or Statius."

Mr. Ritson, it seems, is unacquainted with a very curious poem of the sixth century, *de prima expeditione Attilæ regis Hunnorum in Gallias, ac de rebus gestis Walthariі Aquitanorum principis*, edited by Fischer, at Leipsic, in 1780. It is called by the editor *Carmen Epicum Sæculi VI.*; but if rudeness of structure, and wildness of chivalrous adventure be of the essence of romance, this poem is certainly to be classed among romances. The author's name has perished: he was a monk of Celtic race, contemporary with Venantius Fortunatus, and Corippus Africanus. It is remarkable, that in this poem Attila is represented as a humane man, a valid testimony, when it is considered that the hero of the tale is his enemy.

"It appears, however, difficult to demonstrate that the comparatively modern romanceës of the French owe their immediate origin to the epick poetry, or fabulous tales of the Greeks or Romans; but it may fairly be admitted, as by no means improbable, that these remains of ancient literature had some degree of influence, though the connection is too remote and obscure to admit of elucidation.

"After all, it seems highly probable that the origin of romance, in every age or country, is to be sought in the different systems of superstition which have, from time to time, prevail'd, whether pagan or christian. The gods of the ancient heathens, and the saints of the more modern christians, are the same sort of imaginary beings; who, alternately, give existence to romanceës, and receive it from them. The legends of the one, and the fables of the other, have been constantly fabricateëd for the same purpose, and with the same view: the promotion of fanaticism which being mere allusion, can only be excited, or supported by romance: and, therefore, whether Homer made the gods, or the gods made Homer, is of no sort of consequence, as the same effect was produced by either cause. There is this distinction, indeed, between the heathen deities and the christian saints, that the fables of the former were indebted for their existence to the fiery imagination of the sublime poet, and the legends of the latter to the gloomy fanaticism of a lazy monk or stinking priest."

We will not enter upon the useless task of correcting Mr. Ritson for his coarse and impudent language:

"Let Gryll be Grill, and have his hoggish mind!"

It is our duty to express a deep and decided disapprobation and disgust at such passages; and having expressed it, to consider his literary opinions with the attention and deference due to the learned and honourable rank which he holds in this department of literature.

"Different authours have attributed the origin of romance to three sources, all three remote from each other: 1. The Arabians. 2. the Scandinavians; 3. the Provençals. It appears, from an observation of the historian of Engleish poetry, 'to have been introduced into Europe by a people whose modes of thinking and habits of invention, are not natural to that country. It is generally supposed to have been borrow'd from the Arabians. It is an establish'd maxim,' he proceeds, of modern criticism, that the fictions of Arabian imagination were communicated to the western world by means of the Crusades. But it is evident that these fictions were introduce'd at a much earlyer period: the Saracens or Arabians having entered Spain about the begining of the eighth century, it is obvious to conclude, he continues, that the same time, they disseminateëd the

Digitized by Google

ravagant inventions which were so peculiar o their romantick and creative genius. The leal tales of these eastern invadeërs, recommended by a brilliancy of description, a variety of imagery, and an exuberance of invention, were eagerly caught up and universally iffuse'd. From Spain, he asserts, they soon ass'd into France and Italy. It is for this eason, he pretends, the elder Spanish romanceës have professedly more Arabian allusions than any other. There is, in fact, not ne single French romance now extant, and ut one, mention'd by any ancient writeër, hich existed before the first crusade, under odfrey, Earl of Bologne, afterward King f Jerusalem, in 1097: neither is any thing nown concerning the literature of the Moors ho came over from Barbary, and settle'd in pain in 711; nor is it at all probable, or caable of proof, that even the Spaniards, much ess any of the other nations of Europe, had n opportunity of adopting any literary inforation, or did so, in fact, from a people, with hom they had no connection, but as eneys, whose language they never understood, nd whose manners they detested; or would ey have condescended, or permitted themlves to make such an adoption, from a set of nfidel barbarians, who had invadeëd, ravagd, and possess'd themselves of some of the est and richest provinceës of Spain; with hom they had continual wars, til they at st drove them out of the country; whom, fact, they allways avoided, abhor'd, and deise'd. There is, doubtless, a prodigious mber of Arabick poems in the library of e Escurial, which has been plunder'd from e Moors, but which no Spanish poet ever ade use of, or, in short, had ever access to. t was not in the historians power to cite one ngle old Spanish romance that has the ghtest Arabian allusion, except, indeed, at of the *Cid Ruy Dias*, where, as in those *Charlemagne*, the Moors or Saracens are troduce'd as enemys, and in two modern oks, the '*Historia verdadera del rey don odrigo*,' printed in 1592, and the *Historia los vandos de los Zegries y Abencerrages*, inted at Seville in 1598, and, under the le of '*Historia de las guerras civiles de Grada*,' at Paris, in 1600; both falsely pretendd to have been translateëd from the Arabick, d ridicule'd, on that account, by Cervantes, o makes use of the same pretence in his *ixote*. The Spaniards are so far from ving any ancient *historias de cavallerias*, ich we call romanceës, that they have not ngle ballad (which they call *romance*) on the subject of the Moors, except, it may a few compose'd after or about the time eir expulsion and extant in the *Romangeneral*, or other compilations of the like . With respect to the oriental literature hich we are indebted to the crusades, le the *Clericalis disciplina* of Peter Alns, a converted Jew, baptise'd in 1106, hich are many eastern tales, there is but single French romance, in rime or prose, of the thirteenth or fourteen century, which appears to have been takeën from an Arabian or oriental source; it is that of Cleomedes, by King Adenes (a minstrel-monarch, or herald,) after 'The story of the inchanted horse,' in The thousand and one nights. As to the rest, this eloquent and flowery historian, whose duty it was to ascertain truth from the evidence of facts and ancient documents, and not to indulge his imagination in reverie and romance, without the least support, or even colour of veracity or probability, has not the slightest authority for this visionary system, but assumes, with confidence, that which he knew himself unable to establish by proof."

In thus correcting the error of Warton, Mr. Ritson has run into an opposite error himself. Nothing but the heat and passion of controversy could have misled him to such an assertion as, that the Spaniards never had any connection with the Moors but as enemies, that they never understood their language, and that they detested their manners; how then does he account for the traces of Moorish manners that still exist, and for the Arabic words which abound in their language? Gastam de Fox, the first Bishop of Evora, after its recovery from the Moors, wrote a treatise upon God, the immortality of the soul, the concordance between the Sibylline oracles and the prophets, eternal happiness, purgatory and hell, *in Arabic*; *the language*, says Barbosa, *then most used in Spain*. The will of Nuno Alonso, Alcayde of Toledo about the same period, was written in Arabic. So much indeed was Arabic cultivated by the Spanish christians, that the ecclesiastics bitterly lament this attention to the infidels language. Alvaro of Cordovo complains, that 'ex omni Christi collegio,' scarcely one in a thousand could decently reply to a Latin salutation; when crowds, out of number, were so versed in what he calls the Chaldaic tongue, as to vie with the Moors themselves in the pompous diction, and skilful structure, and elaborate rhymes of Arabic poetry. Among the archives of the Duque del Infantado, exist some Spanish writings in Arabic characters. The Spanish language abounds with ballads upon the subject of the Moors, chiefly composed after the conquest of Granada, and *before* their expulsion. The satire which these ballads excited is sufficient proof of their number and popularity: one of Gongora's burlesque romances is upon this subject, though he himself was an offender.

Mr. Ritson's general argument, how

Digitized by Google

ever, is unaffected by these erroneous assertions. It is indisputably true, that their prose romances, their *historias de caballerias*, are neither directly nor indirectly of Arabian origin, nor in any degree tinged with Arabian fiction. That intimate connection which formerly subsisted between the Spaniards and Moors, had ceased before these romances were written. With respect to the origin of the Welsh romances, Mr. Ritson has shown, that Warton was equally mistaken; but though he has overthrown his opinion, he is not possessed of sufficient data to establish his own. The titles which he has copied from Lhuyd, are indeed manifestly of French extraction; but the Mabinogion must be examined, before any well founded opinion can be formed respecting Welsh romance. For this we must look to Mr. Owen, or to the very able and learned vindicator of the Welsh bards.

With the same sound judgment, Mr. Ritson controverts and confounds Percy's hypothesis, which would trace the origin of romance to Scandinavia, and with the same intemperance proceeds himself to make assertions equally groundless. He gives the titles of certain sagas, transcribed chiefly between the years 1600 and 1700, which are evidently from the French, and infers from thence, that all the sagas are, for the most part, if not totally, translated or imitated from the French, and of very recent date. Whoever has read any of the earlier sagas, will perceive that Mr. Ritson is here venturing to decide upon a subject which he has never examined. His abuse of the Edda is equally compounded of truth and error. That no such system is to be found in Saxo Grammaticus is certain; but what does Mr. Ritson say to the evidence of Tuesday, Wednesday, Thursday, Friday and Saturday? Does he suppose that the days of the week would have been thus named, if our ancestors had never worshipped Tuisco, and Woden, and Thor, and Frea, and Surtur? Snorro, he says, is no bad name for a dreamer; but why has he omitted all notice of Sæmund, and the earlier Edda?

A more probable origin of the machinery of romance, has been assigned in the preface to the late translation of Amadis. It is there surmised to be rather of classical than of oriental origin; that enchanted armour is to be traced to the workshop of Vulcan; that dragons are of the spawn of Python, and the Hyd and the guardian of the Golden Fleec that Gyges furnished the prototype magical rings; that the nymphs, dryads, and oreads, became fairies, the naïads ladies of the lake This cha would be analogous to the growth modern languages, from the Latin, to the amalgama of pagan and christ ceremonies. The heroes of classical quity, not only ranked with Roland Oliver, with Sir Lancelot and Sir Tr tram, in the songs of the minstrels, were installed, to their exclusion, in most noble order of the nine worthi —Jason, Hercules, Orpheus, were adopted by the romancers; and the deep interest was excited in the dark ages, by the tale of Troy divine, as th divinest tale will continue to excite, wh the nature of man remains unchange The Troy boke well exemplifies the ex process whereby gods and demigods came knights of prowess. (We want word for the *preux* of the French, the translatable adjective that condenses the virtues of chivalry.) In this book J piter is humanised; the addition of co tesy makes Hercules a true errant knig and the story of his descent to hell, deliver Theseus, is made so probable being translated into romance, that may almost be admitted as an histori solution of mythological fable.

"If the hero of a romance be occasion borrow'd from heaven, he is, as often, s thither in return. John of Damascus, w fabricated a pious romance of Barlaam Josaphat, in the eighth century, was the ca of these creations of his fanciful bigotry, interested superstition, being place'd in empyreal galaxy, and worship'd as sai Even Rowland and Oliver, the forge'd fabulous existences of the Pseudo-Tur or some other monkish or priestly impost have attain'd the same honour This ide render'd the more plausible, if not positi by the most ancient romances of chival those of Charlemagne, for instance, and paladins, Arthur, and his knights of round-table, Guy, Bevis, and so forth; all whom are the strenuous and successful cha pions of christianity, and mortal enemys the Saracens, whom they, voluntarily wantonly, invade, attack, persecute, slaug ter and destroy. It was not, therefor, wit out reason, say'd by whomsoever, that first romances were compose'd to prom the crusades, dureing which period, it is c tain, they were the most numerous: and prove how radically these mischievous sanguinary legends were impress'd upon minds of a bigoted and idiotick people for series of no less than five centurys, about

year 1600, appear'd 'The famous history of the seaven champions of christendome,' in which the Rowland, Oliver, Guy, Bevis, &c. the fabulous heros of old romance, are metamorphose'd into Saint George, Saint Denis, Saint James, Saint Anthony, Saint Andrew, Saint Patrick, and Saint David, the no less fabulous heros of legend and religious imposture; most of whom receive a certain degree of adoration, like the pagan deitys of old, by the dedication of churches, devotional days, and the like: which celebrateed work, being a compound of superstition, and, as it were, all the lyes of christendom in one lye, is, in many parts of the country, believe'd, at this day, to be 'as true as the gospel.'

Mr. Ritson is so well aware of the value of these romances, as to have expended much labour and patience in investigating and preserving them: he calls them the songs.

"Quæ priscis memorata Catonibus atque Aethegis;"

but no sooner does he consider them as connected with christian feelings, than they appear to him to be "mischievous and sanguinary legends," composed to depress the minds of a "bigotted and idiotic people!"

The first metrical romance, properly and strictly so called, that is known to have existed, is, according to Mr Ritson, the famous *Chanson de Roland*. The copy given by the Marquis de Paulmy to Dr. Gracy, he considers as spurious, and the poem printed by Tressan to be his own invention. The real *Chanson de Roland*, he says, was unquestionably a metrical romance of great length, upon the battle of Roncesvalles; and Taillefer, the Norman minstrel, sung only a part before the army. We should rather have inferred from the word *cantilena*, which William of Malmsbury applies to this song, that it was actually a war song or ballad, and not of any great length. The story quoted from Hector Bois, and which, Mr. Ritson says, there is no reason to believe, is parodied from a tale of King John the First of Portugal, which there is no reason to doubt.

This poem, be it what it may, is not known to exist. The most ancient romance in the French language, is therefore thought to be one upon the atchievements of Charlemagne, respecting the erection of the monastery of Carcassonne and Narbon, and the construction of the *Chef de la Grace*. This was supposed to have been written at Charlemagne's command; but Mr. Ritson proves, that it must have been subsequent to the year 1144. The *Roman de Guillaume d'Orange, surnommé au Court nes*, is nearly of the same age. Calmet supposed *Garin le Loherain* to be the oldest extant. *Alexandre* by Alexandre Bernay, and Lambert le Cors; and the *Brut* of Maistre Wace are of this early period.

"Before the year 1122, and even, according to the French antiquarys, in the eleventh century, had appear'd a book intitle'd, in the printed copys, '*Joannis Turpini Historia de vita Caroli magni et Rolandi.*' This Turpin is pretended to be the arch-bishop of Rheims, whose true name, however, was Tilpin, and who dye'd before Charlemagne; though Robert Gaguin, in his licentious translation of this work, 1527, makes him, like some one else, relate his own death.—Another pretended version of this Pseudo-Turpin, which is say'd to have been made by one Mickius (or Michel) le Harnes, who live'd in the time of Philip the August, or 1206, has little or nothing in common with its false original, being, in fact, the romance of Regnaut, or Reynald, and not that of Roland, who is never once mention'd in the head-chapters, and very rarely in the book. Mister Ellis, who took it, without inspection, to be a fair translation of the false Turpin, in 1207, says, 'the real authour was perhaps a Spaniard;' but this is without authority; and in fact, the Spaniards have no romance of any such antiquity. Mister Warton calls this fabulous history 'the ground-work of all the chimerical legends which have been related concerning the conquests of Charlemagne and his twelve peers:' but this, at least, requires it to have been compose'd before the year 1066, when the adventures or exploits of Charlemagne, Rowland, and Oliver, were chanted at the battle of Hastings. As a strong internal proof, however, that this romance was writen long after the time of Charlemagne, he says, that the historian, speaking of the numerous chiefs and kings who came with their armys to assist his hero, among the rest mentions Earl Oell; and ads 'Of this man there is a song commonly sung among the minstrels even to this day.' In another place, he says, that 'Turpin's history was artfully forged under the name of that archbishop about the year 1110, with a design of giving countenance to the crusades from the example of so high an authority as that of Charlemagne, whose pretended visit to the holy sepulchre is described in the twentieth:' which seems highly probable."

If however there existed romance upon Charlemagne and his peers before this history was written, it is certain that the Italian, which is the noblest branch of the family, is derived from this stock.

Geoffrey of Monmouth set forth his book in 1138. We wish Mr. Ritson, or

some equally able antiquarian, would draw out the *family trees* of these two great roots. Such a pedigree would greatly elucidate the history of romance.

In the course of the fourteenth and fifteenth centuries, the metrical French romances were turned into prose. This would probably take place upon the introduction of printing: when it was no longer necessary to commit them to memory, the technical aid of rhyme was neglected. Mr. Ritson is inclined to believe the assertion of D'Herberay and Tressan, that what he calls the "far-famed and exquisite story of Amadis de Gaul," was originally written in the Picard language. This question has now been decided. There is no doubt whatever, that Vasco Lobeira was the author, though that a Picard translation, anterior to the Spanish version, may have existed, is by no means improbable.

Romance did not appear in Italy before the time of Dante and Boccacio; it arrived still later in Spain.

The second section is concerning the Saxon and English language.

No satisfactory information can be obtained respecting the original alphabet of the Saxons. That the Britons had writings is certain; and it is perhaps to be regretted, that the bardic characters were not used in the Archaiology, and in Mr. Owen's Dictionary. Saint Patrick is said, by Nennius, to have written three hundred and sixty-five alphabets, "one for every day in the year, and upward; in order, it is presumed, to teach the Irish to read." Mr. Ritson has no mercy upon the Saxons, if we are to believe his character of our Gothic forefathers, and Mr. Pinkerton's of our Celtic; a true born Englishman must be a miserable mongrel indeed.

"Though these treacherous strangers are not known to have brought over with them books or letters, or, in short, any kind of literary stock, while they continue'd pagans, they were unquestionably a brave and warlike nation, but upon their conversion to christianity, their kings became monks, the people cowards and slaves, unable to defend themselves, and a prey to every invadeër. The same effects had, not long before, been allready produce'd upon the Romans, as they have, in modern times, upon the Mohawks, who, in consequence of a certain change, have lost all that was valuable in their national character, and are become the most despicable tribe that is left unexterminateëd. It will be in vain to expect any proofs of genius from such a savage and degradeëd people, if, as Warton pretends, 'the tales of the Scandinavian scalds,' flourish'd among the Saxons, who succeeded to the Britons, and became possess'd of Engleand in the sixth century, as may be justly presume'd, they had been soon lost, as neither vestige, nor notice, is presume'd of them in any ancient writeër. They had a sort of poetry, indeed, a kind of bombast, or insane, prose, from which it is very difficult to be distinguish'd. Alfred, it must be confess'd, a great prince, but a wretched bigot, upon the testimony of his chaplain, his confessour, who wrote his life, though he allows him to have remain'd illiterate, through the unworthy neglect, for shame! of his parents and nurseës, until twelve years of age or upward; says that the Saxon poems, having by day and night an attentive auditory very often hearing from the relation of others being docile, he retain'd by heart.' He has even form'd a manuel, or common-place book, call'd, in Saxon, his hondbec, in which were several pieceës of poetry by St. Aldhelm, who (dye'd in 709, and) successfully cultivateëd that study, and particularly a song never made, which in the time of Asser was still sung by the vulgar."

It is evident, that in the days of Bede the Saxons possessed at least as much literature as any nation then existing, except the Greeks. The singular fancy of their kings for the Greek language, is not noticed by Mr. Ritson. Whatever relates to the literary history of this period will doubtless be collected by the indefatigable historian of the Anglo-Saxons.

Edward the Confessor, who never did but one good thing, and that in consequence of seeing the devil in the treasury, began to introduce Norman customs, romance language, and Norman characters.

"The Saxon natives, a spiritless and cowardly race, who had been long accustom'd to the conquest and ascendency of every neighbouring nation which thought proper to invade them, as the Scots, for instance, the Picts, and the Danes, the last of which had actually taken possession of the crown and kingdom of Engleand, and held it for several reigns, were, after the Norman conquest, reduce'd to a state of baseness and servility. They had been deprive'd of their native lords, who were forfeited, banish'd, and put to death; and their estates confiscated, by the rapacious Normans; they had been deprive'd of their laws, and a final attempt was now made to abolish their language. This, however, though great pains were taken to enforce it, did not entirely succeed, owing chiefly, it may be, to the stupidity of the Saxon peasants.*"

It would have been well if Mr. Ri

"* It would, no doubt, have been a glorious matter for a conquer'd and enslave'd people

Digitized by Google

son had explained in what the superiority of the Norman language to the Saxon jargon consisted, and what benefit would have accrued to the English from exchanging the language of their forefathers for that of their tyrants.—Till this be satisfactorily explained, we must be allowed to bless the stupidity of the Saxon peasants, and to thank God that our mother tongue is the language of Shakespere and of Milton, not of Racine and Voltaire; we must be allowed to thank God for this especial blessing, and for the numberless blessings which have arisen from it. Whatever is valuable in the laws and constitution of England, is of Saxon origin; the grievous oppressions of the feudal system, and the law of primogeniture, the main branch of that upas, were left us by the Normans. It is absurd to assert, that like the Picts, the Saxons "seem to have been cut off all at once by a single blow, without any progeny being left to represent them." Let Mr. Ritson take up a common directory and see what proportion of the names of Englishmen are of Saxon derivation. Let him remember too the Plantagenets, and that our Edwards and Henrys were of the Saxon line.

In the reign of Henry the second

"It is most probable, Layamon, the priest, made his translation, in the style of Saxon poetry without rime, from the *Brut* of *maistre* Wace; which affords a strange and singular mixture of the Saxon and Norman idioms, both apparently much corrupted. This curious work exhibits the progress of the Engleish language, properly so call'd, as we now have it, in its dawn or infancy, if one may use such an expression."

The Society of Antiquaries, as to the name of England we have no academy, should publish this valuable specimen of our earliest language. Ninety years elapsed between the completion of Layamon's work, and of Robert of Gloucester's chronicle; and in that time the language had rapidly improved. In 1362, the famous statute was passed, joining all law proceedings to be pleaded in English, and enrolled in Latin. A more immediate and more lasting effect was produced by Geoffrey Chaucer, one of the great men of England; and thus was established, that language which is now spoken in America, and in New Holland, and which, whatever may be the fate of empires, will continue to be read as long as the human race shall be capable of appreciating the works of human genius.

We have now arrived at the third section, which treats of the English romances. There are not above two or three originally English. Mr. Tyrwhitt's conjecture, however, is extremely probable, that many of these, though written in French, were composed in England, and perhaps by Englishmen. While French was the court language, the poems designed for the amusement of the nobles must necessarily have been composed in French. Before, however, the origin of these rules can be ascertained, much must be done. The German metrical romances must be examined, of which a large collection was published in 1785; but above all, to explain the romantic history of Arthur, the Mabinogion must be translated. Mr. Ritson's opinion is thus well summed up.

"That the Engleish acquire'd the art of romance-writeing from the French seems clear and certain, as most of the specimens of that art, in the former language, are palpable and manifest translations of those in the other, and this, too, may serve to account for the origin of romance in Italy, Spain, Germany, and Scandinavia: but the French romanceës are too ancient to be indebted for their existence to more barbarous nations. It is, therefor, a vain and futile endeavour to seek for the origin of romance: in all ageës and all countrys, where literature has been cultivateëd, and genius and taste have inspire'd, whether in India, Persia, Greece, Italy, or France, the earlyest product of that cultivation, and that genius and taste, has been poetry and romance, with reciprocal obligations, perhap, between one country and another. The Arabians, the Persians, the Turks, and, in short, almost every nation in the globe, abound in romanceës of their own invention."

boast, that, after they had lost the succession of their native sovereigns, their laws, their possessions, their estates and property, and every thing, in short, that was really valuable, they were permited to preserve their language, and continue a meagre, and barren jargon, which was incapable of dischargeing its functions; this, in fact, was the only measure of the German tyrants which was adapted to the benefit of their conquer'd subjects, and in this one they were unsuccessful; neither, on the contrary, did the Saxon commonalty retain their primitive tongue: they got, indeed, a barbarous mixture of Saxon, Danish, Norman, and one knows not what, which was no more Saxon than French, and is now known by the name of Engleish, a term formerly synonimous with Saxon."

Digitized by Google

A good deal of ill-arranged information is heaped together in this section. Extracts from old poems that enumerate the popular romances of the times are quoted: it had been better to have given a catalogue of all whose titles could be recovered, specifying such as still exist, and where they are preserved. Here Mr. Ritson renews his attack upon the reliques of ancient poetry. He compares the original ballad of the Marriage of Sir Gawaine with Percy's improved copy, and subjoins the following remarks.

"This mode of publishing ancient poetry displays, it must be confess'd, considerable talent and genius, but savours strongly, at the same time, of unfairness and dishonesty. Here are numerous stanzas inserted which are not in the original, and others omitted which are there. The purchasëers and perusëers of such a collection are deceived and impose'd upon; the pleasure they receive is derive'd from the idea of antiquity, which, in fact, is perfect illusion. If the ingenious editour had publish'd all his imperfect poems by correcting the blunders of puerility or inattention, and supplying the defects of barbarian ignorance, with proper distinction of type (as, in one instance, he actually has done), it would not onely have gratify'd the austereëst antiquary, but allso provideëd refine'd entertainment "for every reader of taste and genius." He would have acted fairly and honourablely, and giveën every sort of reader complete satisfaction. Authenticity would have been uniteëd with improvement, and all would have gone wel; whereas, in the present editions, it is firmly believed, not one article has been ingenuously or faithfully printed from the begining to the end: nor did the late eminent Thomas Tyrwhitt, so ardent a researcher into ancient poetry, and an intimate friend of the professour, ever see this curious, though tatter d, fragment; nor would the late excellent George Steevens, on the bishops personal application, consent to sanction the authenticity of the printed copy with his signature."

This is fair and temperate criticism, but in the note annexed, Mr. Ritson has given vent to all the bitterness of his bilious temper.

Minstrels and minstrelsy are the subject of the fourth and last part of the dissertation.

"That the different professors of minstrelsy were, in antient times, distinguish'd by names appropriateëd to their respective pursuits, cannot reasonablely be disputeëd, though it may be difficult to prove. The *trouveur*, *trouverre*, or *rymour*, was he who compose'd *romans*, *contes*, *fabliaux*, *chansons*, and *lais*; and those who confined themselves to the composition of *contes* and *fabliaux*, obtain'd the appellation of *conteurs*, *conteours*, or *fabliers*. The *menetrier*, *menestrel*, or minstrel, was he who accompany'd his song by a musical instrument, both the words and the melody being occasionally furnished by himself, and occasionally by others. The *jogelour*, *jougleor*, *jugler*, *jogelere*, or jugler, amused the spectators with slight of hand tricks, cups and balls, &c.

Again, in *The freres tale*, v. 7049:

"A lousy *jogelour* can deceiven thee."

This appears clear from the conduct of John de Raumpayne, who, when he sets out to deceive Morris of Whittington, takes with him a male, which contains his jugglers, and out of which, most likely, he had already so blacken'd, inflateëd, and deform'd his visage, that his most intimate acquaintance did not know him. The *chanteour*, or *chanterre*, was one who sang; the *rideur* or *harpere*, he who accompany'd the *chanterre*, when he did not perform himself, and would be call'd indifferently by either name, or the general one of *minstrel*, &c. A *histrio*, or *mimus*, should, properly, have been the buffoon of a play, as he was among the Romans: but these names, in fact, appear to have been giveën by affected pedants, who mistook their meaning. There were, likewise, *flutours*, *timbesteres*, and *sailours*, dancers, all three mention'd by Chaucer in his translation of the *Romant of the Rose*, v. 762, &c.

"There mightist thou se these *flutours*
Minstrallis and eke *jogelours*
That well to singin did their paine—
There was many a *timbestere*,
And *sailours*, that i dare well swere
Ycothe ther craft full parfitly
The *timbris* up full subtilly
Thei castin, and hent them full oft
Upon a finger faire and soft."

The *farceurs*, or buffoons, were possibly the proper *histriones* or *mimi*, who acted ridiculous and burlesque dramas of a single part, whence the term *farce* is stil use'd for a short and laughable entertainment; *taladins*, or *danceërs*; *tabourers*, or *tabarrers*, who perform'd on the tabour or tabourin; and, peradventure, several other distinctions. All these, however, in process of time, appear to have been confounded under the common name of minstrels or juglers, and by Latin writeërs, *ministri*, *ministrelli*, *joculatores*, *histriones*, *mimi*, *leccatores*, *scurræ*, *vaniloqui*, *citharistæ*, or *citharœdæ*, *cantores*, or *cantatores*, *parasitæ*, *famelici*, *nebulones*, *cpulones*, and the like. Their peculiar appellations, however, may, doubtless, have been preserveed among themselves, without being much attended to by those who only consider'd them as a body of men whose profession was to please; or, at least, by their own corruption in later times,

Digitized by Google

when one did all, and the whole system sunk into insignificance and contempt."

The chief design of this section is to confute Percy's account of the minstrels. Mr. Ritson has more accurately investigated their history: he brings together all the bad parts of their character in a heavy indictment, and concludes with this parting compliment.

"Beggars they are, with one consent,
And rogues by act of parliament"

The whole section, indeed the whole dissertation, displays patient and indefatigable research; intimates knowledge of the subject, and scrupulous fidelity. But whenever the author touches upon a subject which he does not understand, such as Cimbric or Scandinavian antiquities, or the Christian religion, he loses his temper, and immediately substitutes assertions for facts, and abuse for argument. Regarding, as we do, this unhappy disease with pity, and respecting, as we sincerely do, his industry, his knowledge, and his accuracy, we trust that Mr. Ritson will not rank us among his foes. If his sores cannot be touched without giving him pain, he will distinguish between the knife of a surgeon and the stab of an enemy.

Ywaine and Gawin is the first poem in this collection. *Le Chevalier au Lion*, the original of this romance, was written by Chrestian de Troyes, who died in 1191. The present poem seems to have been written towards the close of the fourteenth century. The French consists of 7784 verses: the English of only 4032. Unless, therefore, the story of the original has been much curtailed, the work must have been improved by a compress translation.

Ywaine, Ewen or Owen, was the son of Urien, king, or rather, if we may be allowed the word, kingling of Reged, one of the four parts into which Cumbria was then divided. The father is styled by Llywarch Hen, in the elegy which he composed upon his death-bed, the head and most powerful pillar of Britain. The son was celebrated by Taliessin: he is named in the Triads as one of the owners "of the three steeds of depredation," "of the three blessed princes of the isle of Britain," "of the three blessed burthens of the womb of the isle of Britain," and "of the three immaculate princes of Britain." It appears by Taliessin that he slew Ida, king of Northumberland, in battle. Thus much, or, to speak more accurately, thus little is recorded of Ywaine, in authentic documents. Romance, which has given him all his celebrity, has faithfully preserved to him that irreproachable character for which he has been placed in the Triads. The fame of his cousin Gawaine is not so fair. In the poem only the better part of his qualities are represented. Gawaine is the courteous knight of the Round Table romances; but courtesy, when applied to him, must be understood in its courtly and courtier derivation, as implying deceit and wickedness. In the Mort Arthur he is represented as a traitor and a murderer.

The story of the romance is briefly this. At the court of king Arthur, Colgrevance relates, that as he was seeking adventures, he was directed to a marvellous well.

"The well es under the fairest tre,
That ever was in this cuntrè;
By that well hinges a bacyne,
That es of gold gude and fyne,
With a cheyne, trewly to tell,
That wil reche into the well.
Thare es a chapel ner thar-by,
That nobil es, and ful lufely,
By the well stands a stane,
Tak the bacyn sone onane,
And cast on water with thi hand,
And sone thou sal se new tithand.
A storme sal rise, and a tempest,
Al obout by est and west;
Thou sal here mani thonor blast,
Al obout the blawand fast;
And there sal cum slik slete and rane,
That unnese sal thou stand ogayne;
Of lightnes sal thou se a lowe,
Unnethes thou sal thi-selven knowe;
And if thou pass with owten grevance,
Than has thou the fairest chance
That ever yit had any knyght
That theder come to kyth his myght."

He followed these directions: a storm arose: a knight came up at the summons; attacked him; defeated him; took his horse, and rode away. King Arthur hearing this, swears that he will go see that sight within a fortnight. Sir Ywaine leaves the court secretly; arrives at the well, and conquers the knight, who flies from him, being mortally wounded. Ywaine pursues him to the gate of his town, and is there caught between the portcullis. A damsel, by name Lunet, has pity on him, and gives him a ring which renders him invisible, and at length persuades the

Digitized by Google

widow of the knight whom he had slain, to forgive him and marry him, that he may protect her against king Arthur's coming; for it seems, that to throw water upon that stone and raise a storm, was the method of declaring war against her country. Ywaine, now lord of the land, obeys the call, and surprises Arthur by his appearance: he feasts the king, and departs with him, by his lady's leave, promising to return at the year's end, on pain of losing her love if he broke his promise. The year passes away, and Sir Ywaine lets the day go by: his heart smites him; but a damsel comes into the court, demands from him a ring, which his lady had given him, and accuses him of breach of promise. With shame and remorse he loses his wits, and runs naked into the woods.

A damsel who stands in need of a protector sees him lying asleep. She orders an ointment to be rubbed over him, which restores his senses: he is conveyed to her castle, and successfully defends her against her enemy. For this service she would have married him, but Ywaine departs. On his way he found a dragon and a lion engaged in fight. he rescues the lion, who, in gratitude for his deliverance, follows him. He comes to the well, and there begins to bewail his folly and fortune. It happened that Lunet was confined in the chapel hard by, being, upon a false accusation of treason. to be burnt next day, unless some knight should conquer her accusers. Ywaine of course succours her. He dares not make himself known, having no hope of obtaining her forgiveness: so he continues to lead the life of an errant knight with his lion, redressing wrongs, till he is engaged in battle with Sir Gawin, neither knowing the other. They fight till the darkness obliges them to pause, and then Ywaine asks the name of his antagonist, and they embrace as the friends who loved each other best. After this event Ywaine rides to the well, and throws water upon the stone. Lunet knowing that it must be his doing, prevails upon her lady to ask assistance from the knight of the lion, saying that she knows that he will readily undertake her cause, if she will solemnly swear to do every thing in her power to reconcile him to his lady, with whom he is at variance. She takes the oath upon rich reliques, the chalice, and the mass book; and then Lunet carries the tidings to Sir Ywaine, who, from that time forth, with Lunet, and the lady, and the lion, lived in joy and bliss. This is an excellent romance.

Mr. Ritson thinks that Ariosto was indebted to this story for the idea of Orlando's madness, or to a similar adventure in the Mort Arthur. The original adventure seems, from a passage which he has quoted in his Dissertation, from Robert of Brunne, to have been related of Dan Waryn. Orlando, perhaps, more nearly resembles Hercules, *Furioso* and *Furens*. The lion, who acts a principal part in Ywaine's battle, was perhaps remembered by Spenser in his most delightful story of Una. Morgan the wise, who made the ointment whereby Ywaine's senses were restored, is whimsically supposed to be Pelagius, the greatest of all the Morgans, not even excepting Sir Henry. More probably Morgaine le Fay was meant, and *he* may have been written for *she* in mistake.

Launfal, by Thomas Chestre, is the second in order: the French original is the work of *Marie de France*, a Norman poetess of the thirteenth century. The MSS. of the translation appears to have been written in or about the reign of Henry VI. It is in stanzas of twelve lines; the third, sixth, ninth, and twelfth of one rhyme. The orthography has a more modern cast than that of the preceding poem, but the language is rude. As this tale has been modernized in the well-known *fabliaux* of Messrs. Way and Ellis, we need not detail it. The part which Mr. Ritson points out as additions by the translator, never improve, and sometimes injure, the story, which is otherwise, excellently invented. It is remarkable that Oleron should here be selected for the kingdom of the king of the fairies.

Of Lybeaus Disconus an analysis has been given in the Reliques. The manuscript is the same from which Launfal was printed; the French original is unknown. It is written in a twelve-line stanza, but of more difficult structure than the last poem: the four ternal lines rhyming as in that, and also the two first couplets. There are many words in this romance which have baffled the editor's learning.

The Geste of Kyng Horn is believed to be the oldest romance that exists in the English language. The only copy extant appears to have been written

Digitized by Google

nder Edward II. by some French or Norman scribes; by whom, says the editor, the poem itself may have been composed in the preceding reign. A fragment only of the French copy is preserved: but that fragment contains one housand two hundred lines more than he present version; and as the names re, for the most part, entirely different, he identity of the two poems cannot be ascertained.' We should not, therefore, astily contradict Percy's opinion, that his story is of genuine English growth. That there existed a romance older than he French version is certain, because Horn himself, by a singular absurdity, s there made to refer to it,

' De suidene fui nez *si ma geste ne ment*.'

King Allof of Suddene is attacked nd slain by the Saracens, who thrust is son, then fifteen years old, with his laymates, into a ship, and set them drift, that they may be drowned. The essel is stranded upon the coast of Vestness, and all the children are taken nto the service of King Eylmer. His aughter Rymenyld falls in love with lorn, and asks him to plight her his oth. He requires her first to obtain ighthood for him from her father. When this is done he promises to take er to wife, after he has proved himself fight. She gives him a ring, which, hile he wears and thinks of her, he can ver be subdued. Horn rides away, es a party of heathen hounds landing, nd by virtue of this ring destroys them, nd then returns to court. Fykenyld, ne of his companions, for envy, informs ing Aylmer that Horn has seduced his aughter; the king detects them toether, and banishes him; who, before e departs, leaves Rymenyld to the proection of his friend Athulf, telling her at if he should not return before the d of seven years, she may take another sband. He sails to Ireland, and there, der the name of Godmod, does the g good service, and remains above years, never sending any tidings to ymenyld. At length he meets a page, om she has sent in quest of him, to y, that she is by force to be married, next Sunday being the day appointed. orn asks help of the king of Ireland, nd arrives in time. He leaves his men ambush, changes clothes with a mer, and in this disguise enters the rt, during the marriage feast. The passage which immediately follows we will give in the original. Its language will wear an uncouth aspect to many of our readers, but the lapidary will perceive the value of the brute diamond.

" Athulf wes o tour ful heh,
To loke fer and eke neh,
After Hornes comynge,
Yef water him wolde brynge;
The see he seh flowe,
Ah Horn no wer rowe;
He seyde on is songe,
Horn thou art to longe;
Rymenild thou me bitoke,
That ich hire shulde loke,
Ich have yloked evere,
And thou ne comest nevere.
Rymenild ros of benche
The beer al forté shenche,
After mete in sale,
Bothe wyn and ale;
An horn hue ber an honde,
For that wes lawe of londe.
Hue dronc of the beere,
To knyht and skyere;
Horn set at grounde,
Him tholte he wes ybounde,
He seide, Quene, so hende,
To me hydeward thou wende,
Thou shench us with the vurste,
The beggares bueth afurste.
Hyre horn hue leyde adoune,
Ante fulde him of the broune,
A bolle of a galoun,
Hue wende he were a glotoun.
Hue seide, Tac the coppe,
Ant dryne this ber al uppe;
Ne seh y never, y wene,
Beggare so kene.
Horn toc hit hise yfere,
Ant seide, quene, so dere,
No beer nullich ibite,
Bote of coppe white;
Thou wenest ich be a beggere,
Y wis icham a fysshere,
Wel fer come by weste,
To seche mine beste;
Min net lyht her wel hande,
Withinne a wel feyr pende;
Ich have leve there,
Nou is this the sevethe yere;
Icham icome to loke,
Yef eney fish hit toke;
Yef eny fyssh is thereinne,
Ther of thou shalt wynne;
For icham come to fyssh,
Drynke nully of dyssh:
Drynke to Horn of horne,
Wel fer ich have yorne,
Rymenild him gan bihelde,
Hire herte fel to kelde;
Ne kneu hue noht is fysshyng,
Ne him selve nothyng:
Ah wonder hire gan thynke,
Why for Horn he bed drynke.

Digitized by Google

Hue fulde the horn of wyne,
Ant dronk to that pelryne.
Hue seide, Dryne thi felle,
And seththen thou me telle,
Yef thou Horn ever seye,
Under wode-leye,
Horn drone of horn astounde,
Ant threu is ryng to grounde,
Ant seide, Quene, thou thench
What y threu in the drench.
The quene eode to boure,
Mid hire maidnes foure,
Hue fond that hue wolde,
The ryng ygraved of golde,
That Horn of hire hedde,
Fol sore hyre adredde
That Horn ded were,
For his ring was there.

If this were told in the sweet verse of Spenser, nothing in romance would be more beautiful. The very play upon the name of Horn is affecting. The word is played upon in a similar manner in the other romance upon the same subject, which Mr. Ritson has printed from the Auchinleck MS.; and this seems to afford some slight presumption that the story is not originally French. Indeed, none of the names look as if they had been invented for French lips. The *theta* occurs too frequently; a good, manly, English sound; the stumbling-block, the shibboleth of our nasal-twanged neighbours. From the names, and from the mention of miming in the Auchinleck copy, we suspect the story to be of Scandinavian growth. In the French fragment the names are different; they would be changed there to render them pronounceable. But there seems no reason why an Englishman should have altered them; supposing the French to be the original: nor do we know that any such alteration has been made in the numberless tales versified from that language. There is yet another circumstance which may throw some light upon the origin of the romance. It is seldom that any inference can be drawn from the manners of the poems; for the manners of France and England were at that time little different. But in Horn Childe is a trait of manners certainly of northern growth. Rymenild, the king's daughter, serves round the horn, after the meat was done, like Rowena, "for that wer lawe of londe." Something may also be inferred from the geographical names Sudenne, Estnesse, Westnesse. Sudenne is Britain, and it is said of Allof, who reigned there "king he was by west; but if Britain bore S. or S. W. of the maker of the story, we may ascertain in what latitude he made his observation.

It is dangerous to differ from Mr. Ritson respecting old English poetry, for of all men living he certainly is best acquainted with the subject. But in the present instance he seems to have assented to Tyrwhitt's general position, "that we have no English romance prior to the age of Chaucer, which is not a translation or imitation of some earlier French romance," and to have no other ground for the opinion which he has formed.

These remarks have led us unwittingly from the story. Horn makes his appearance with his followers, conquers his rival, and celebrates his marriage. He then tells Eylmer who he is, and how unjustly he had suspected him of seducing his daughter; and he bids him keep her till he has recovered his father's kingdom:

> "Then shall Rymenild the ying
> Ligg by Horn the kinge.

Horn succeeds in the expedition. He exterminates the Saracens; builds up chapels and churches, and takes the crown. Meantime the traitor Fykenild seizes his wife, and secures her in a strong castle. Horn returns on the day when the forced marriage is to take place: he and some of his companions obtain admittance as harpers to the marriage feast: he slays Fykenild, and thus terminates his troubles and adventures; living thenceforth in true love and godliness.

The Kyng of Tars and the Soudan of Dammas, from the Bodleian, a writing apparently of the fourteenth century, supposed to be from the French as the poet repeatedly refers to his original. But is it not possible that the repeated references may have been an artifice of the poet; as Ariosto quotes Turpin for tales, which Turpin never devised? The King of Tars has a fair daughter, whom the Soldanne of Damascus demands in marriage: neither she nor her parents will consent that she should be wedded to a heathen hound. The soldan comes with a mighty army and gives the king a severe defeat, and then the princess resolves to marry him that there may be no more waste of blood. When the soldan has carried her to Damascus, he makes her renounce her religion, which she does outwardly, having been encouraged in a dream.

Digitized by Google

lue time she is delivered of a shapeless ump of flesh. The soldan affirms, that he misfortune has befallen him because f her unbelief in Termegaunt and Maoun; she bids him take the monster to heir temples, and pray to them to inue it with shape and life, promising ruly to believe in them if they will ork that miracle. The soldan accordngly prays, with due perseverance, as ong a time as it would have taken to ide five miles, but without effect. He hen loses his patience, and knocks his dols to pieces. In his turn he promises o become a Christian, if her god will erform this miracle: a priest is found mong the prisoners, and he, by the elp of holy water, effects the wonder. The soldan is then baptized, *by immersion*, nd such is the virtue of the font, that t washes the blackmoor white. His *ubjects* he knows will rebel against him hen they discover his conversion; by is wife's advice, therefore, he sends to er father to lead an army to his aid; nd when he arrives, they resolve to ng every man who will not be christed. A great battle takes place, but e soldan is victorious; he lives a happy fe, and goes to heaven at last.

The story of Emare is the same ich Gower has related of Constance, d Chaucer, in his Man of Lawes Tale. he stanzas which describe her expoe with her child are written with ore feeling than even Chaucer has disyed.

Then was ther sorow and myche woo,
hen the lady to shype shulde go,
They wepte and wronge her honde;
e lady that was meke and mylde,
her arme she bar her chylde,
And toke leve of the londe.
en she wente ynto the see,
hat robe of ryche ble,
Men sowened on the sonde;
they wepte, and sayde, Alas!
ys this ys a wykked kase,
o worth dedes wronge!

e lady and the lytyll chylde,
d forth on the water wylde,
ith full harde happes;
surkote that was large and wyde,
with her vysage she gan hyde,
ith the hynthier lappes.
as aferde of the see,
layde her gruf upon a tre,
e chylde to her pappes;
waves that were grete and strong,
the bote faste they thronge,
ith mony unsemely rappes.

"And when the chyld gan to wepe,
With sory hert she songe hit asleepe,
And putte the pappe yn his mowth,
And sayde, Myghth y ones gete lond,
Of the water that ys so stronge,
By northe or by sowthe!
Wele owth y to warye the see,
I have myche shame yn the,
And ever she lay and growht;
Then she made her prayer,
To Jhesu and his moder dere,
In all that she kowthe."

"Her little child lay weeping in her arm,
And kneeling piteously to him she said,
Peace little son! I will do thee no harm!
With that her coverchief of her head she braid,
And over his little eyen she it laid,
And in her arm she lulleth it full fast,
And into the heaven her eyen up she cast".
CHAUCER.

This is a sweet stanza, but contains nothing so affecting as the—with sorry heart she sung it asleep. Even the beautiful fragment of Simonides does not exceed this. Why did not Mr. Ritson, accurate as he is, insert a literal prose translation of that fragment in his notes, instead of the unfaithful and unfeeling rhymes of Dr. Burney?

Orpheus is the hero of the next poem, which is stiled a lay, being too short to be denominated a metrical romance. Sir Orpheo is here metamorphosed into a rich king, who loved harping, and excelled in it, so that

"——————— There non was
A better harper in no place."

His queen Dame Erodys is described as being

"The feyrest woman for the nonys
That myghth be made of flessche and bonys."

The king of the fairies carries her away bodily. Orpheo for grief forsakes his kingdom, and wanders about in the woods for ten years, solacing himself with his harp. He often saw the king of the fairies come hunting with all his train, or sometimes hawking by the river side, and once drew near enough to see his wife; they knew each other, but had no power to speak. Orpheo follows the company through a hole in a rock, full three miles, till he comes to a fair country as bright as day, where there stood a noble castle. Here he knocks and asks admittance as a minstrel, and being permitted to play, displays his skill so happily, that the king promises him in reward whatever he chuses to demand. He asks for his wife,

and the king of the fairies, more generous than Pluto, restores her without condition, so that they return to their kingdom and reign in peace.

Mr. Ritson supposes this to be from a French original, though no such original has been found. His argument from the fairies we think fallacious, "no notice, he says, being taken of their verdant vesture, or diminutive size, the characteristics of English fairies, it may be fairly concluded, that the poem was not invented or composed in this country; the fairies of the French and Italian romances being essentially distinct, and, in fact, generally females, endowed with singular beauty and supernatural powers." Are they not *always* females? Except Oberon we remember no male fairy, and he, like the queen bee, may be unique in the hive. The fairies in this lay exactly resemble those in the Scotch ballad of Tam Linn. The origin has been well investigated in the very interesting and excellent publication of Mr. Walter Scott.

A chronicle of England concludes the second volume; it is curious and well deserved preservation, but here it is misplaced, and in fact takes up the room of better matter.

Le Bone Florence of Rome. This excellent old romance is printed from a MSS. written about the time of Edward IV. the only copy extant. The title seems to denote a French original, but the poet himself refers rather to the Gesta Romanorum.

"Pope Symonde thys story wrate,
In the cronykyls of Rome ys the date,
Who sekyth there he may yt fynde."

The story of this poem, notwithstanding its marvels and miracles, is artfully constructed. Sir Garcy, the emperor of *Costantyne the nobull* (is this merely an epithet, or has the author been showing his skill in etymology?) sends to demand in marriage Florens, the only child of Sir Otes the Grawnt, the emperor of Rome. A rude and unseemly wooer for the fairest damsel under heaven!

"As the Romans truly tolde,
He was a hundurd yerys olde,
And some boke seyth mare.
He was arayed in ryche parell,
Of sylke and golde wythowtyn fayle,
All whyte was hys hare.
He seyde, Syrs, wendyth ovyr the see,
And bydd the emperowre of Rome sende me
Hys doghtur swete and sware,
And yf he any gruchyng make,
Many a crowne y schall gar crake,
And bodyes to drowpe and dare.

"Hys flesche trembylde for grete elde,
Hys blode colde, hys body unwelde,
Hys lyppes blo for-thy;
He had more mystyr of a gode fyre,
Of bryght broudys brennyng schyre,
To beyke hys boones by,
A softe bath, a warme bedd,
Then any maydyn for to wedd,
And gode encheson why,
For he was bresyd and all to-brokyn,
Ferre travelde in harnes, and of warre wrokyn;
He tolde them redylye;

"When ye have the maydyn broght,
That ys so feyre and worthely wroght,
Sche schall lygg be my syde,
And taste my flankys with hur honde,
That ys so feyre y understonde,
Yn bedde be me to byde.
Sche schall me bothe hoder and happe,
And in hur lovely armes me lappe,
Bothe evynn and morne tyde;
Byd hur fadur sende hur to me,
Or y schall destroye hym and hys cyté,
And thorow hys remes ryde."

Forty lords are sent upon this embassy, with a present of forty Spanish horses and forty horse-load of gold. The spokesman of the embassy, who was a proud *garson*, does not attempt to disguise the age of his master.

"He byddyth, wythowte avysement,
That thy doghtur be to hym sent,
For to lygg hym by;
Hys body ys bresyd, hys bones are olde,
That sche may kepe him fro the colde,
Have done now hastelye.
In comely clothyng sche schall be cledd,
I have grete hope he wyll hur wedd,
Sche ys a feyre lady."

He threatens too as bluntly as he w
Of course the demand is refused, and
Garcy, who is not yet superannuated
war, leads a great force against R
Sir Mylys and Sir Emare, two so
the king of Hungary, hear of this
and go there to prove their fort
the service of Sir Otes the Grawnt
brave battle is fought, and Flo
who, like Helen and Erminia, stand
the city wall to overlook the battle
tinguishes Sir Emare for his pro
but by an unhappy chance her fath
slain, and Emare taken prisoner.

The Roman lords advise her to t
one of the king of Hungary's so
her husband, and as his brother is
the offer is made to Mylys, if he w
dertake to defend her.

"To syr Mylis Awdegon went,
And askyd yf he wolde assent
To wedde that maydyn free,

Digitized by Google

That ys whyte as lylly-flowre,
And be lorde and emperowre,
The grettyst yn Crystyante.
'But god forbede, and seynt Myghell,
That thou undurtake hyt but thou do well,
And trewe man thynke to bee.'
To hys speche answeryd he noght,
But stylle he stode and hym be thoght,
And seyde, Y schall avyse me.

" Avyse the, seyde that maydyn feyre,
For to be my fadurs heyre?
Lyghtly may y thynke.
Be hym that suffurde woundys fyve,
I schall nevyr be thy wyfe,
To suffur dethys dynte.
Kyngys and dewkys have me askyd,
And all ther londes wolde have geve me at the laste,
And many a ryall thynke.
Forthe he yede wyth syghyng and care,
That he had gevyn that fowle answare,
For sorowe nere wolde he synke."

Meantime Emare has been led before Sir Garcy, and being recognized is set at liberty, in remembrance of the service which the emperor had received from his father.

" Emare knelyd on hys knee,
Syr, when y come into the towne
And my men muste be bowne
To greve bothe thyn and thee!'
Yen, God forbode that thou spare,
Ut of thy warste wylle ever mare,
Garcy thus sayde he."

Florens is now offered to Emare on the same conditions, which he bravely and joyfully accepts. The ceremony is performed, but Florens declares that she will not lie by her husband's side till he brings Sir Garcy prisoner, or leaves him dead in the field. He sallies out, and finally defeats the emperor, who takes all his ships. Emare sends his brother Mylys with an hundred knights to guard the lady, and tell her that he is pursuing the enemy over the sea. Wicked Mylys resolves to win Florens for himself, and proposes to the hundred knights to swear that Emare is slain, and with his last breath had enjoined him to marry the princess. Only Sir Sampson and Sir Egravayne are honest enough to resist the promises wherewith he tempts them. Sampson is presently killed, and Egravayne compelled to take an oath to serve Mylys. Florens hearing the news declares she will become a nun, but Egravayne tells the whole truth to the Pope, who absolves him from his oath of secrecy, raises the priests and the people of Rome, sets Florens at liberty from the hundred traitors, and imprisons Mylys till his brother's return.

Emare now returns victorious, bringing Sir Garcy prisoner. When Florens hears of his landing, moved with an unhappy pity, she forgives Mylys, and sets him at liberty, that he may go and meet his brother. The villain tells him that she has been living in adultery with Egravayne, but this calumny is speedily detected. Mylys then hastens back to Rome, and tells Florens to go out and meet her husband. She goes out with the Pope and the cardinals, and the people; when they have left the city, Mylys proposes to her to ride on before the procession, and thus leads her astray. She is now in his power, and when night comes he attempts to violate her, but she prays to God and the Virgin, and immediately " his liking vanished all away." Many days he carries her on, often attempting her chastity, and as often miraculously represt, at last he hangs her up by the hair of her head and beats her, till a knight, called Terry, who is hunting hard by, hears her cries and comes up—then Mylys gallops away and escapes.

Sir Terry takes Florens to his castle, and consigns his daughter Betres to her care. A wicked knight, Machary, dwells with him; he also endeavours to force the princess, and in revenge for her resistance, cuts the throat of Betres by night, and puts the bloody knife in Florens's hand while she sleeps. The parents, therefore, believe her to be the murderess, and prepare a fire to burn her, but when they come to the act of execution Sir Terry's heart relents, and he gives her her palfrey and sends her away. Poor Florens rides on till she meets a thief on the way to the gallows; she asks the people to spare his life and give him to her for a servant, but this Clarebolde, instead of acting gratefully for his preservation, proves a new enemy. He is directed by his mistress to get her a passage to Jerusalem, and he sells her to a captain, and leads her on board. This mariner, when they are out at sea, endeavours to force her; she prays again, a storm arises, the ship is wrecked, and Florens gets to shore near the nunnery of Beverfayre.

Here Florens soon becomes famous by a miraculous power which she possesses of curing all diseases by her touch, a virtue perhaps of her royal birth, though this is not specified. Emare hears of her

cures, and having received a sore wound in his head, which had been unskilfully treated, he sets out to be healed by this nun. At the time of his arrival, Mylys, Sir Machary, Clarebalde the thief, and the captain, who have all been struck with grievous diseases, are met together in Beverfayre to be in like manner made whole.

" At hur preyers there as sche ware,
When sche sawe hur own lorde thare,
Sche knewe hym wele ynogh:
So dud he hur he wolde not so saye,
Abowte the cloystur goon are thay,
Spekyng of hys woghe.
Then was sche warre of the four thare,
That had kyndylde all hur care,
Nere to them sche droghe.
They knew hur not be no kyns thynge,
Therof thankyd sche hevyn kynge,
And lyghtly at them loghe.

" Mylys that hur aweye ledd,
He was the fowlest mesell bredd,
Of pokkys and bleynes bloo;
And Machary, that wolde hur have slayne,
He stode schakyng, the sothe to sayne,
Crokyd and crachyd thertoo.
The maryner, that wolde have layne hur by,
Hys yen stode owte a strote for thy,
Hys lymmes were roton hym froo.
They put Clarebalde in a whelebarowe,
That strong thefe, be stretys narowe,
Had no fote on to goo."

Florens declares, that before either can be healed he must make an open confession of his sins, and in this manner the four villains avow their wickedness and clear her fame. She then heals them, and last her husband, but he burns the four wretches alive, and then takes his wife joyfully to Rome.

The Erle of Tolous. Dyaclysyon, emperor in Almayn, is at war with the Erle of Tolous, whom he has unjustly deprived of certain lands. The earl wins a great victory; from one of his prisoners he hears much of the beauty of the Empress Beulyboon, whose name, though less heathenish, is quite as outlandish as her husband's. This excites in him a desire of seeing her, and he promises this Sir Trylabas to reward him well if he will conduct him to see her in disguise. Trylabas plays the traitor, and informs Beulyboon, proposing that they should kill the earl; but she being a noble lady, and knowing also that in their quarrel her husband had been the aggressor, forbids this, and tells him to bring the earl where he may see her at mass. She takes care that he shall have good opportunity to view her, and, as he is in hermit's habit, gives him a good present, and with the money a ring. Upon this the earl returns to his own country.

Two knights, whom the emperor had left to guard his wife, fall in love with her, and, like the elders with Susanna, in revenge for her virtue, secrete a man in her chamber, give the alarm, and kill him before he can be heard in his defence. She is therefore sentenced to be burnt unless some champion will maintain her cause in combat. The earl hears these tidings, and loses no time in repairing to her defence. He lodges with an abbot, who is near of kin to Beulyboon, and had confessed. Not knowing his guest, he tells him that the empress is so innocent, that the only sinful thing that she had ever committed was in once giving a ring to the Earl of Tolous. The earl then makes himself known, but expresses a wish to be assured of her innocence from her own mouth, that he may be confident and certain that he maintains a right quarrel. He is disguised as a priest, and hears her confession, then defies her accusers, and makes them confess their falsehood. This good service occasions a reconciliation between him and the emperor, who dies shortly after; the earl is then elected to be his successor; he marries Beulyboon, and lives with her happily three and twenty years, having fifteen children. No French original is known of this Romance. It is in the usual stanza of twelve lines.

The next is a genuine English Romance, once popular, and still well known by name—The Squyr of Lowe Degre.

" It was a squyr of lowe degrè
That loved the kings doughter of Hungrè.
The squir was curteous and hend,
Ech man him loved and was his frend;
He served the kyng, her father dere,
Fully the tyme of seven yere;
For he was marshall of his hall,
And set the lords both great and smal.
An hardy man he was, and wight,
Both in batayle and in fyght:
But ever he was styll mornyng,
And no man wyste for what thyng;
And all was for that lady,
The kynges doughter of Hungry.
There wyste no wyghte in Christentè
Howe welle he loved that lady frè.
He loved her more then seven yere,
Yet was he of her love never the nere.
He was not ryche of golde and fe,
A gentyll man forsoth was he.
To no man durst he make his mone,
But syghed sore hym selfe alone."

" —— Under a bente he layde hym lowe,
Ryght even under her chambre wyndowe;

And lened hys backe to a thorne,
And sayd, alas! that i was borne!
That i were ryche of golde and fe,
That i myght weddethat lady free!
Of golde good, or some treasure,
That i myght wedde that lady floure!
Or elles come of so gentyll kynne,
The ladyes love that i myght wynne!
Wolde god that i were a kynges sonne,
That ladyes love that i myght wonne!
Or els so bolde in eche fyght,
As was syr Lybius that gentell knyght,
Or els so bolde in chyvalry,
As syr Gawayne, or syr Guy!
Or els so doughty of my hande
As was the gyaunte syr Colbrande!
And [it] were put in jeoperdè,
What man shoulde wynne that lady fre,
Than should no man have her but i,
The kynges doughter of Hungry."

"That lady herde his mournyng all
Ryght under the chambre wall."

She tells him to get himself knighted, and go serve in the wars for seven years, and then she will marry him. A wicked steward overhears this, and accuses him to the king, who behaves very well upon the occasion, but appoints the steward to watch his daughter's chamber. The squire obtains the king's leave to seek adventures; he sets out, and returns at night to take leave of his lady, but he sees the lights behind him.

Whan that he came her chambre to,
Alone, he sayde, your dore undo!
Undo, he sayde, nowe, fayre lady!
I am beset with many a spy.
They, as whyte as whalès bone,
There are thyrty agaynst me one.
Undo thy dore! my worthy wyfe,
I am besette with many a knyfe.
Undo your dore! my lady swete,
I am beset with enemyes great;
And, lady, but ye wyll aryse,
I shall be dead with myne enemyes.
Undo thy dore! my frely floure,
For ye are myne and i am your."

They attack him and take him prisoner, but not till he has killed the steward; they then mangled the steward's face that he might not be known, drest his body in the squire's cloaths and left it at the door. The princess embalms it, believing it to be her lover's, keeps it by her bed-side, and mourns over it seven years, while the squire, by the king's command, is seeking adventures abroad, having his promise of his daughter on his return, which promise is at length faithfully performed. This odd story is told in easy verse, and the long enumerations of amusements, and dainties, &c. which must have wearied the author's contemporaries, have been found singularly useful to antiquarians.

The last poem, entitled the Knight of Curtesy and the Fair Lady of Faguell, is the well-known and shocking history of *Raoul Sire de Couci* and *la Dame de Faiel*, related in four-lined stanzas of eight syllables and alternate rhyme. This is the worst poem in the collection. Like the Squire of Low Degree it is printed from an unique copy in black letter.

Such are the contents of these most interesting volumes. We have noticed them at length, because there has rarely, if ever, appeared in this country a publication so valuable to the antiquary, the philologist, and the poet.

ART. III. *Minstrelsy of the Scottish Border: consisting of Historical and Romantic Ballads, collected in the Southern Counties of Scotland; with a few of modern Date, founded on local Tradition.* Three vols. 8vo. Vol. 3. pp. 420.

WE have already given in our preceding volume (p. 635) a tolerably complete analysis of the two first volumes of this very interesting selection; and are happy to find, from the early demand for a second edition, that the success of the work has been proportioned to its merit. We had anticipated, with perfect confidence, the approbation of those who were best able to estimate the difficulties of the subject, and the merit of the execution; but the decisions of fashion are sometimes so capricious as to disappoint the prognostics of the most sagacious critics.

The pieces contained in the third volume are divided, like those of the two former, into the three classes of historical ballads, romantic ballads, and modern imitations. These we shall consider in succession.

The first of the historical might be, perhaps, more justly called a romance; because the exploits attributed to *Auld Maitland* and his sons, the heroes of the tale, are partly doubtful, partly improbable, and partly false. Yet the ballad was, upon the whole, well worth preserving, were it only for the singularity of its destiny. Though apparently alluded to by Gawin Douglas, in his *Police of Honour*, as a popular perform-

ance, it is not known to exist either in print or in MS; but has been preserved, on the banks of the Ettrick, in the memory of the inhabitants, and was written down by the editor from the recitation of an old woman. Such an authority may perhaps, at first sight, appear suspicious to the poetical antiquary; yet we cannot but agree with Mr. Scott in thinking that the internal evidence of the poem is conclusive as to its authenticity; not only because the many antiquated terms which it contains are no longer intelligible in the district where it is preserved, but because the structure of the fable, the manners, the abruptness of transition, and dramatic character of the dialogue, are in the true spirit of our old romances. The style is, as might be expected, very irregular and unequal, but full of animation; which, together with its frequent appeals to the leading passions which prevailed in Scotland during the 14th and 15th centuries, will fully account for its ancient popularity. For the attention of the present age it will be principally indebted to the elegant illustrations of the editor, in whose notes on this ballad the reader will find more curious information and amusing particulars on the subject of chivalry, than could easily be gleaned from the professed histories of that singular institution.

As our limits will not permit us to comment on every poem in the volume, we shall pass over the next six articles, for the purpose of noticing *Christie's Will*, a personage who exhibited, about the middle of the 17th century, all the characteristic qualities of the ancient Moss-troopers, and whose history well deserved to be perpetuated in the minstrelsy of his country. The ballad itself indeed is not, as the editor confesses, "of genuine and unmixed antiquity, though some stanzas are current upon the border in a corrupted state;" for which reason we shall abstain from transcribing it, and lay before our readers the prose narrative given by Mr. Scott in his introduction to the ballad.

"In the reign of Charles I., when the moss-trooping practices were not entirely discontinued, the tower of Gilnockie, in the parish of Cannoby, was occupied by William Armstrong, called, for distinction's sake, *Christie's Will*, a lineal descendant of the famous John Armstrong, of Gilnockie, executed by James V. The hereditary love of plunder had descended to this person with the family mansion; and, upon some marauding party, he was seized, and imprisoned in the tolbooth of Jedburgh. The earl of Traquair, lord high treasurer, happening to visit Jedburgh, and knowing Christie's Will, enquired the cause of his confinement. Will replied, he was imprisoned for stealing two *tethers* (halters); but, upon being more closely interrogated, acknowledged, there were two *delicate colts* at the end of them. The joke, such as it was, amused the earl, who exerted his interest, and succeeded in releasing Christie's Will from bondage. Some time afterwards, a law-suit, of importance to lord Traquair, was to be decided in the court of session; and there was every reason to believe that the judgment would turn upon the voice of the presiding judge, who has a casting vote, in case of an equal division among his brethren. The opinion of the president was unfavourable to lord Traquair; and the point was, therefore, to keep him out of the way, when the question should be tried. In this dilemma, the earl had recourse to Christie's Will; who, at once, offered his service, to kidnap the president. Upon due scrutiny, he found it was the judge's practice frequently to take the air, on horseback, on the sands of Leith, without an attendant. In one of these excursions, Christie's Will, who had long watched his opportunity, ventured to accost the president, and engage him in conversation. His address and language were so amusing, that he decoyed the president into an unfrequented and furze common, called the Frigate Whins, where, riding suddenly up to him, he pulled him from his horse, muffled him in a large cloak which he had provided, and rode off, with the luckless judge trussed up behind him. Will crossed the country with great expedition, by paths, only known to persons of his description, and deposited his weary and terrified burden in an old castle, in Annandale, called the Tower of Graham. The judge's horse being found, it was concluded he had thrown his rider into the sea; his friends went into mourning, and a successor was appointed to his office. Meanwhile the poor president spent a heavy time in the vault of the castle. He was imprisoned in solitary; receiving his food through an aperture in the wall, and never hearing the sound of a human voice, save when a shepherd called his dog, by the name of Batty, and when a female domestic called upon Maud the cat. These, he concluded, were invocations of spirits; for he held himself to be in the dungeon of a sorcerer. At length, after three months had elapsed, the law-suit was decided in favour of lord Traquair; and Will was directed to set the president at liberty. Accordingly, he entered the vault, at dead of night, seized the president, muffled him once more in the cloak, without speaking a single word, and, using the same mode of transportation, conveyed him to Leith sands, and set down the astonished judge on the very

spot where he had taken him up. The joy of his friends, and the less agreeable surprize of his successor, may be easily conceived, when he appeared in court, to reclaim his office and honours. All embraced his own persuasion, that he had been spirited away by witchcraft; nor could he himself be convinced of the contrary, until, many years afterwards, happening to travel in Annandale, his ears were saluted, once more, with the sounds of Maudge and Batty—the only notes which had solaced his long confinement. This led to a discovery of the whole story; but, in these disorderly times, it was only laughed at, as a fair *ruse de guerre*.

"Wild and strange as this tradition may seem, there is little doubt of its foundation in fact. The judge, upon whose person this extraordinary stratagem was practised, was sir Alexander Gibson, lord Durie, collector of the reports, well known in the Scottish law, under the title of *Durie's Decisions*. He was advanced to the station of an ordinary lord of session, 10th July, 1621, and died, at his own house of Durie, July 1646."

* * * *

"Tradition ascribes to Christie's Will another memorable feat, which seems worthy of being recorded. It is well known, that, during the troubles of Charles I., the earl of Traquair continued unalterably fixed in his attachment to his unfortunate master, in whose service he hazarded his person, and impoverished his estate. It was of consequence, it is said, to the king's service, that a certain packet, containing papers of importance, should be transmitted to him from Scotland. But the task was a difficult one, as the parliamentary leaders used their utmost endeavours to prevent any communication betwixt the king and his Scottish friends. Traquair, in this strait, again had recourse to the services of Christie's Will; who undertook the commission, conveyed the papers safely to his majesty, and received the answer, to be delivered to lord Traquair. But, in the mean time, his embassy had taken wind, and Cromwell had dispatched orders to intercept him at Carlisle. Christie's Will, conscious of his danger, halted in the town to refresh his horse, and then pursued his journey. But, as soon as he began to pass the long, high, and narrow bridge, which crosses the Eden at Carlisle, either end of the bridge was occupied by a party of parliamentary troopers, who were lying in wait for him. The borderer disdained to resign his enterprize, even in these desperate circumstances; and at once forming his resolution, spurred his horse over the parapet. The river was in high flood. Will sunk—the soldiers shouted—he emerged again, and, guiding his horse to a steep bank, called the Stanners, or Warwick-house, endeavoured to land, but ineffectually, owing to his heavy horseman's cloak, which was drenched in water. Will cut the loop, and the horse, feeling himself disembarrassed, made a desperate exertion, and succeeded in gaining the bank. Our hero set off at full speed, pursued by the troopers, who had for a time stood motionless, in astonishment at his temerity. Will, however, was well mounted; and, having got the start, he kept it, menacing, with his pistols, any pursuer, who seemed likely to gain on him—an artifice, which succeeded, although the arms were wet and useless. He was chased to the river Eske, which he swam without hesitation; and, finding himself on Scottish ground, and in the neighbourhood of friends, he turned on the northern bank, and, in the true spirit of a border rider, invited his followers to come through, and drink with him. After this taunt, he proceeded on his journey, and faithfully accomplished his mission. Such were the exploits of the very last border freebooter of any note."

The next article, *the duel of Wharton and Stewart*, is printed from tradition, and affords a fresh proof of the correctness with which favourite pieces of poetry are preserved in the memory of village hearers. Its principal merit however is, that it has served as an excuse for many curious and entertaining notices respecting the rise and progress of duelling.

The remainder of this class consists of pieces which are strictly historical; and which, though neither venerable from their antiquity, nor important as specimens of language, nor possessed of much poetical merit, have either supplied or suggested to the editor such a variety of local descriptions, so many lively delineations of character, and so much interesting anecdote concerning that eventful period of our history which intervened between the accession of Charles I., and the restoration of his son, that we can confidently recommend this portion of the present volume as calculated to inspire a more general interest than any part of the whole work. There is, in all great revolutions of government, a point of time which is highly favourable to the moral painter; an interval between the first storm of popular frenzy and the last dead calm of military despotism; when every passion is excited, and every character exhibited without restraint or disguise. This interval was rather longer in Scotland than in England; the causes of the revolution, the actors in it, their views and their means were different; so that Mr. Scott's sketches, which are strictly appropriate to the country and the times, will have the merit of novelty to the greater part of his English readers. As an introduction to *Lesly's March* he

Digitized by Google

takes a retrospective view of the causes which led to the civil war; compares the violent but able tyranny of Henry VIII. in England, with the artful though timid policy of James I., and with the precipitate bigotry of Charles I. in Scotland; and rapidly traces the progress of the contest of prejudice between king and people, from the first solemn league and covenant to the renewal of hostilities after the treaty of Rippon. The next ballad, "on *the battle of Philiphaugh*," gives him occasion to continue his recital through the brilliant campaign of Montrose, whose career of victory was arrested by the surprise and rout of his army at this place, the site of which is correctly and elegantly described. A sort of rude elegy on the *Gallant Grahams* is prefaced by an account of the subsequent defeats of the royalists, and of the death of Montrose; and lastly, the *battle of Loudon-hill*, and the *battle of Bothwell-bridge*, the first describing a successful effort, and the latter the total discomfiture of the *Cameronians*, serve as a vehicle for the history of the persecution by which Charles II. after his restoration, again excited the flames of fanaticism.

The second class, consisting of romantic ballads, contains only ten pieces, of which, though all deserve to be rescued from oblivion, no more than two appear to us to possess much merit, viz. *Young Benjie* and the *twa Corbies*; and of the latter of these we cannot help doubting the antiquity. The editor tells us that he received it from a friend, "as written down, from tradition, by a lady." "It is a singular circumstance, (continues he) that it should coincide, so very nearly, with the ancient dirge called *the three ravens*, published by Mr. Ritson; and that at the same time there should exist such a difference as to make the one appear rather a counterpart than copy of the other." Now it appears to us that, so far as the two pieces resemble each other at all, the coincidence is so strong as to warrant our belief that the one is a copy, or perhaps a recollection of the other. The last stanza of Mr. Scott's copy, which is much more sublime than Mr. Ritson's, has so little to do with *hawks*, or *lymans*, or *hounds*, or *ravens*, that it may have been supplied from any other romantic ballad; and the preceding stanza, in which a hungry raven descants on the *white* neck-bone, the bonny *blue* eyes, and the *golden* locks of a murdered knight, is very far removed from the simplicity of Mr. Ritson's dirge, which is unquestionably ancient. The third stanza is, indeed, a *counterpart* to the fifth and sixth couplet of what we suppose to be the original; but it strikes us only as an injudicious alteration.

The *poetical* strength of the present volume lies in its modern pieces, in imitation of the ancient ballad; on these, therefore, we shall bring forward a few remarks. For the poet of a polished age to imitate the rude minstrel of a barbarous one, is a task equally degrading and difficult—their faults he will not, their beauties he cannot, counterfeit. It is, perhaps, only by starting forth in the nakedness of the savage, that his unfettered strength and wild agility can be emulated; but shall the civilized man so transgress his accustomed decorums? What, then, can or ought a modern ballad, founded on an old tradition, to be? Vainly did we search for a solution of this question in "the Mermaid" of Mr. Leyden, which is disgraced by tawdry affectation purely modern; and in the following line, "The moon-beams *crisp* the curling surge," by nonsense, as far as we know, purely original. The flowery nothingness of Miss Seward's "Rich auld Willie's Farewell," satisfied us as little, notwithstanding its liberal sprinkling of Scottish words. Mr. Lewis's sir Agilthorn we found possessed of much poetical and sentimental beauty, but deficient in *costume*, in something that might give "a local habitation," and a date, to the personages of the tale. The story has likewise the important failing of being much more trite in fiction than in real life. "Ellandonan Castle," a tale founded on authentic history, and told with nature and spirit, threw some light on the object of our search; but it was in "Cadyow Castle," the work, as we suppose, of our poetical editor himself, that we found the complete answer to our enquiries. The subject of this ballad, (the murder of the Regent Murray, by Hamilton of Bothwellhaugh) a striking and well known fact, of a date sufficiently modern to be heard with interest, affords an excellent ground-work for the decorations of the bard. The language is nervous and spirited—it is pure English, and equally free from obsolete vulgarism and modern nicety. The sentiments preserve the same judicious medium between the coarseness of past ages and refinement

of the present. The manners show the science of the antiquary, and the lively touch of the poet. And this, according to our judgment, is the very definition of a good modern ballad. But our readers shall taste for themselves.

" 'Tis night—the shade of keep and spire
Obscurely dance on Evan's stream,
And on the wave the warder's fire
Is chequering the moon-light beam.

" Fades slow their light; the east is grey;
The weary warder leaves his tower;
Steeds snort; uncoupled stag-hounds bay,
And merry hunters quit the bower.

" The draw-bridge falls—they hurry out—
Clatters each plank and swinging chain,
As, dashing o'er, the jovial route
Urge the shy steed, and slack the rein.

" First of his troop, the chief rode on;
His shouting merry-men throng behind;
The steed of princely Hamilton
Was fleeter than the mountain wind.

" From the thick copse the roe-bucks bound,
The startling red-deer scuds the plain,
For the hoarse bugle's warrior sound
Has rouzed their mountain haunts again.

" Through the huge oaks of Evandale,
Whose limbs a thousand years have worn,
What sullen roar comes down the gale,
And drowns the hunter's pealing horn?

" Mightiest of all the beasts of chace,
That roam in woody Caledon,
Crashing the forest in his race,
The Mountain Bull comes thundering on.

" Fierce, on the hunters' quiver'd band,
He rolls his eyes of swarthy glow,
Turns, with black hoof and horn, the sand,
And tosses high his mane of snow.

" Aim'd well, the chieftain's lance has flown;
Struggling, in blood the savage lies;
His roar is sunk in hollow groan—
Sound, merry huntsmen! sound the *pryse**!"

Could the chieftain himself have recounted his hunting feats with more animation? But the approach of Hamilton after the deed is done, is yet more highly wrought—we, like our hero, are irresistibly hurried on by the impetuous current of the verse,

" But who, o'er bush, o'er stream and rock,
Rides headlong, with resistless speed,
Whose bloody poniard's frantic stroke
Drives to the leap his jaded steed;

" Whose cheek is pale, whose eye-balls glare,
As one, some visioned sight that saw,
Whose hands are bloody, loose his hair?—
'Tis he! 'tis he! 'tis Bothwellhaugh.

" From gory selle,† and reeling steed,
Sprung the fierce horseman with a bound,
And, reeking from the recent deed,
He dashed his carbine on the ground."

The transition from the past to the present at the conclusion of the tale, when,

" For the loud bugle, pealing high,
The blackbird whistles down the vale,
And sunk in ivied ruins lie
The banner'd towers of Evandale,"

is natural and pleasing, and affords a most happy conclusion.

Dr. Jamieson's " Water Kelpie," a singular poem, the chief design of which was, " to give a specimen of Scottish writing more nearly approaching to the classical compositions of our ancient bards, than that which has been followed for seventy or eighty years past," deserves to be brought into comparison with Burns's Halloween, which, if it does not equal in humour, it probably does in faithful delineation of vulgar superstitions, while it excels that poem in decorum, and in accurate imitation of ancient language. A copious glossary is annexed, of the necessity for which, as well as of the genuine descriptive merit of the piece, our readers shall judge.

" Quhan lads and lasses wauk the clais,
Narby yon whinny hicht,
The sound of me their daffin lays;
Thai dare na mudge for fricht.
Now in the midst of them I scream,
Quhan toozlin' on the hangh;
Than quhihher by thaim doun the stream,
Loud nickerin in a lauch.

" Sicklike's my fun, of wark quhan run;
But I do meikle mair:
In pool or ford can nane be smur'd
Gin Kelpie be nae there.
Fow lang, I wat, I ken the spat,
Quhair ane sall meet his deid:
Nor wit nor pow'r put aff the hour,
For his wanweird decreed."

The volume closes with the " War Song" of the Edinburgh light dragoon volunteers, which we might have been tempted to blame as misplaced; but the merit of the piece, and the spirit of the day, disarm our criticism. What indeed can Mr. Scott do better, after exhausting the patrimonial poetry of his ancestors, than seriously set about making new, which he has talents to render so greatly superior to the old?

* *Pryse*—The note blown at the death of the game.
† *Selle*—Saddle. A word used by Spenser, and other ancient authors.

Digitized by Google

We cannot take leave of this very entertaining and masterly performance, without expressing our regret at not finding, in this volume, the history of Border-poetry, which, if we mistake not, the editor had in his former volumes given us reason to expect. We trust that he has not forgotten his promise, but has reserved the performance for one of the works which we see announced as nearly ready for publication; viz. his *lay of the last Minstrel*, and an edition of *Sir Tristram*, as written in the thirteenth century by Thomas of Erceldoune.

ART. IV. *Specimens of the early English Poets; to which is prefixed, an Historical Sketch of the Rise and Progress of English Poetry and Language.* By G. ELLIS, Esq. 2d edit. corrected. 3 vols. 8vo.

WE take advantage of the re-appearance of this work, to express our sense of its excellence.

The Historical Sketch, as it is modestly called, which comes down to the reign of Henry VIII. contains more of pertinent matter than is to be found in the volumes of Warton; nothing irrelevant is introduced, and no labour of research has been spared to obtain whatever information appertained to the subject.

After some preliminary observations on the language of our ancestors, Mr. Ellis gives, as a specimen of Anglo-Saxon poetry, the ode on Athelstan's victory, with a literal translation, and likewise a metrical version, in the style and language of the 14th century. The last was written by the present ambassador at Madrid, then an Eton school-boy, and is certainly the most wonderful instance of critical imitation, in one so young, that has ever fallen within our knowledge.

The origin of rhyme is next considered: on this subject some light has been thrown by Mr. Turner's essay in the Archæologia. An abstract of M. de la Rue's very curious dissertations is then given, and his decisive opinion adduced to prove the important fact, that *it was from England and Normandy that the French received the first Works which deserve to be cited in their Language.* The section is concluded thus:

"But it is not sufficient that the mines of literature contained in our public libraries should be distinctly pointed out, unless some steps are taken to render them generally useful. All the information that can be obtained from the professed historians of the middle ages has been collected by the successive labour of our antiquaries, whose activity, acuteness, and perseverance, do them the highest honour: and their ingenuity has often been successful in detecting, and extorting by comparative criticism, many particulars respecting the state of society, and the progress of arts and manners, the direct communication of which would have been considered by the monkish annalists as degrading to the dignity of their narrative. In these details, which are neglected by the historian, form the principal materials of the poet. His business is minute and particular description; he must seize on every thing that passes before his eyes; and the dress, the customs, the occupations, the amusements, as well as the arts and learning of the day, are necessary, either to the embellishment or the illustration of his subject. An edition of the works of the Norman poets, or at least of a copious and well selected series of extracts from them, would be a most valuable present to the public; and, indeed, it is only in this shape that they can be rendered generally useful: because the difficulty of the old manuscript characters is a permanent tax on the ingenuity of each successive student; it is in every case a delay to the gratification of his curiosity; and the talent of decyphering obsolete characters is not necessarily attached to the power of profiting by the information which is concealed under them. Besides, a scarce and valuable manuscript cannot possibly be put into general circulation; and many learned men are necessarily debarred, either by distance, or by infirmity, or by the pressure and variety of their occupations, from spending much time in those public repositories of learning, to which the access has indeed been rendered easy, but could not be made convenient, by the liberality of their founders."

A specimen is given of Layamon's version of Wace, probably the last effort of the Saxon language. The progress of our tongue is then traced, from its earliest origin, with a brevity suited to the size of the work, and with such erudition and judgment, as must excite a wish in every reader that Mr. Ellis's volumes had been upon a larger scale.

The following remarks are made upon the language of Chaucer, a subject which should have been investigated by his late biographer.

"The researches of Mr. Tyrwhitt have proved what Dryden denied, viz. that Chaucer's versification, wherever his genuine text is preserved, was uniformly correct; although the harmony of his lines has in many instances

been obliterated by the changes that have taken place in the mode of accenting our language. But Chaucer's reputation as an improver of our versification principally rests on the invention (or at least on the first adoption) of the ten-syllable or heroic verse, of that verse which has been employed by every poet of eminence from Spenser to Dr. Johnson, and in which its original inventor has left many specimens, both in the Knight's Tale and in the Flower and the Leaf, which Dryden despaired of improving.

"With respect to Chaucer's language, it is impossible not to feel some disappointment at the cautious and doubtful opinion delivered by the author of our national dictionary, and delivered in the introduction to that truly noble monument of his genius. That Chaucer 'might probably make some innovations,' and that 'his diction was in general like that of his contemporaries,' we should have conjectured without Dr. Johnson's assistance; because a writer of genius and learning will be likely to make some innovations in a barbarous language, but, in so doing, will not choose to become quite unintelligible. From a critic so intimately acquainted with the mechanism of language we should have expected to learn, whether Chaucer had in any degree added to the precision of our English idiom by improvements in its syntax, or to its harmony by the introduction of more sonorous words; or whether he was solely indebted for the beauty and propriety of his style to that happy selection of appropriate expressions which distinguishes every writer of original thinking and true genius.

"All Chaucer's immediate successors, those who studied him as their model, Occleve, Lydgate, King James I. &c. speak in rapture of the elegance and splendour of his diction. He is 'the flower of eloquence;' 'superlative in eloquence;' his words are 'the gold dew-drops of speech.' These exaggerated praises certainly imply an enthusiastic though, perhaps, absurd admiration; and, as these poets would probably attempt to imitate what they considered as eminently beautiful, it seems likely that an examination of their style must enable us to discover what they considered as the improvements introduced by Chaucer.

"Now the characteristics of our poetry during the fifteenth and sixteenth centuries are an exuberance of ornament, and an affectation of Latinity, neither of which peculiarities are to be found in Robert of Gloucester, Robert de Brunne, Minot, Langland, or indeed in any of the poets anterior to Chaucer. He, therefore, may be supposed to be what Chaucer himself and his successors meant by what they called an ornate style, of which the following stanza, extracted from the Court of Love, is a curious specimen:

Honour to thee, *celestial* and clear,
Goddess of love, and to thy *celsitude*,
That giv'st us light so far down from thy sphere,
Piercing our heartes with thy *pulchritude!*
Comparison none of *similitude*
May to thy grace be made in no degree,
That hast us set with love in unity.
[St. 88. fol. 330. ed. 1602.]

"It is not meant that this is an example of Chaucer's usual style; indeed no poet is, in general, more free from pedantry: but the attentive reader will find that in the use of words of Latin derivation, most of which are common to the French and Italian languages, he very generally prefers the inflections of the latter, either as thinking them more sonorous, or because they are nearer to the original; and that in his descriptive poetry he is very fond of multiplying his epithets, and of copying all the other peculiarities of the Italian poetry (from which his favourite metre is unquestionably derived), with the view of 'refining our numbers, and improving our language, by words borrowed from the more polished languages of the Continent."

It is well said of the Canterbury Tales that they contain more information respecting the manners and customs of the fourteenth century, than could be gleaned from the whole mass of contemporary writers, English or foreign.

The section upon the private life of our ancestors contains more than is to be found in any single writer upon the subject. It is not possible to make any abstract of this part, in which every sentence is of essential import.

Stephen Hawes, whom Warton praised in some unaccountable humour, and who in consequence has since been praised abundantly at second-hand, is treated by the present writer with just severity. The specimens which he has extracted are thoroughly worthless; and we, who have read the poem, know that they fairly represent the baldness and affectation of this miserable writer. We will insert here a curious specimen of metre from this poem, which has not been selected by Mr. Ellis.

"*Cace* doubtfull, may yet a whyle abyde;
Grace may in *space* a remedy provyde.
Countenaunce causeth the *promotion*,
Nought avayleth service without *attendaunce*,
Repentaunce is after all *abusion*,
Thought afore wolde have had *perseveraunce*,
Wroughte how should be by dede the *mischaunce*,
Abyde nothing till thon do the *dede*,
Provyde in minde how thou mayst have *mede*.
Promocion groweth after good governaunce,
Attendaunce doth attayne good favour.

Alusyon is causer of all varyaunce,
Perseveyraunce causeth great honour,
Mischaunce alway is roote of dolour.
Dede done cannot be called agayne,
Mede well rewarded both with joye and payne."

Of all our old poets, Stephen Hawes is the very worst.

This poet brings us to the close of Henry VII.'s reign.

"The accession of Henry VIII. could not fail to promote the progress of elegant literature in England. His title to the crown was so undoubted that it left him no apprehension of a rival, and fully secured his subjects against the recurrence of those sanguinary civil wars which had so long desolated the country. He was young, handsome, accomplished, wealthy, and prodigal; and the nobility, effectually humbled by the policy of his father, crowded round his person, with no higher ambition than that of gaining his favour and sharing his profusion, which was exhibited in frequent tournaments, in masques, or entertainments consisting of music, dancing, gaming, banquetings, and the display of dresses at once grotesque and magnificent. All the pleasures and all the gallantry of the age were assembled at his court. The press, which had already produced complete and sumptuous editions of our best early poets, furnished an abundant supply of metrical romances, Christmas carols, and other popular compositions. Henry himself is known to have been a proficient in music, and was perhaps an occasional writer of poetry;* and though his skill in the art be rather problematical, his taste for it is fully evinced by the almost universal practice of his courtiers. Accordingly, this reign forms a marked epocha in our poetical history.

"Chaucer, as we have seen, had formed his taste upon the model of the Italian no less than of the French poets; but the masculine beauties of Boccaccio in the Teseide and Filostrato had excited his admiration much more than the gentler graces of Petrarch, who now became the universal favourite. It may, perhaps be matter of surprize, that the style of this poet was not sooner adopted as a model by our writers of love-songs, because the manners of chivalry had, in the very infancy of our literature, blended the tender passion with a very competent share of ceremonious enthusiasm. It is probable, however, that the Italian language alone possessed, at that time, sufficient pliability to form a compound of metaphor and metaphysics in the contracted shape of a sonnet.

"This difficult novelty seems to have been first attempted by the court poets of the reign of Henry VIII. It must be confessed, that a string of forced conceits, in which the imagination of the reader is quite bewildered, —of harsh and discordant rhymes,—and of phrases tortured into the most unnatural inversions,—is, not unfrequently, the only result of their perverse ingenuity. But even these abortive struggles were not quite useless. In their repeated endeavours to exhibit with distinctness the most minute and fanciful shades of sentiment, they were sometimes led to those new and happy combinations of words, to those picturesque compound epithets, and glowing metaphors, of which succeeding writers, particularly Shakspeare and Spenser, so ably availed themselves. The necessity of comprising their subject within definite and very contracted limits taught them conciseness and accuracy; and the difficult construction of their stanza forced them to atone for the frequent imperfection of their rhymes, by strict attention to the general harmony of their metre. Although, from their contempt of what they thought the rustic and sordid poverty of our early language, they often adopted a cumbrous and gaudy magnificence of diction; they accumulated the ore which has been refined by their successors, and provided the materials of future selection."

At this æra the regular series of specimens commences. We must confine ourselves with exhibiting a few from the many delightful poems here brought together: to comment upon them would be to enter into a critical history of English poetry.

Richard Edwards, who died in 15[illegible] is the author of the following ballad.

"*Amantium iræ amoris redintegratio est.*"
[In the Paradise of Dainty Devices.]

"In going to my naked bed, as one that would have slept,
I heard a wife sing to her child, that long before had wept.
She sighed sore, and sang full sweet, to bring the babe to rest,
That would not cease, but cried still, in suckling at her breast.
She was full weary of her watch, and grieved with her child,

"* The following lines are, in the *Nugæ Antiquæ*, ascribed to this monarch:

The eagle's force subdues each bird that flies.
What metal can resist the flaming fire?
Doth not the sun dazzle the clearest eyes,
And melt the ice, and make the frost retire?
The hardest stones are pierced through with tools:
The wisest are, with princes, made but fools.

Digitized by Google

rocked it, and rated it, until on her it
smil'd;
n did she say, 'Now have I found the
proverb true to prove,
e falling out of faithful friends renewing
is of love.'

en took I paper, pen, and ink, this pro-
verb for to write,
egister for to remain of such a worthy
wight.
he proceeded thus in song unto her little
brat,
h matter utter'd she of weight in place
whereas she sat;
proved plain, there was no beast, nor
creature bearing life
d well be known to live in love without
discord and strife:
s kissed she her little babe, and sware by
God above,
e falling out of faithful friends renewing
is of love.'

* * * * * *

marvel much, pardie,' quoth she, 'for
to behold the rout,
e man, woman, boy, and beast, to toss
the world about;
e kneel, some crouch, some beck, some
check, and some can smoothly smile,
some embrace others in arms, and there
think many a wile.
e stand aloof at cap and knee, some hum-
ble and some stout,
are they never friends indeed untill they
once fall out.'
s ended she her song, and said, before
she did remove,
e falling out of faithful friends renewing
s of love."

e quote Lord Herbert of Chirbury's
aph on himself, in respect to the ta-
s of that extraordinary man.

e monument which thou beholdest here
resents EDWARD LORD HERBERT to thy
ight;
an who was so free from either hope or fear
To have or lose this ordinary light,
t, when to elements his body turned were,
e knew, that as those elements would
fight,
is immortal soul should find above,
ith his Creator, peace, joy, truth, and
love."

This was an extraordinary family.
brother George, the poet, is treated
contemptuously by Mr. Ellis. No-
ng can be viler than his conceits; but
thing can be more exquisite than the
guage in which those very conceits
e expressed. Perhaps, of all our poets,
best deserves to be called the Well of
glish undefiled. A neat edition of
s temple was printed in 1796, at
istol, in honour of its piety, not its
erit.

"*On his Muse, by George Withers,*
(Written in prison.)

"And though for her sake I'm crost,
Though my best hopes I have lost,
And knew she would make my trouble
Ten times more than ten times double,
I should love and keep her too,
Spite of all the world could do.
For though banish'd from my flocks,
And confin'd within these rocks,
Here I waste away the light,
And consume the sullen night,
She doth for my comfort stay
And keeps many cares away.
Though I miss the flowery fields,
With those sweets the spring-tide yields,
Though I may not see those groves
Where the shepherds chant their loves,
And the lasses more excel
Than the sweet-voiced Philomel;
Though of all those pleasures past
Nothing now remains at last
But remembrance, poor relief,
That more makes than mends my grief;
She's my mind's companion still,
Maugre Envy's evil will.
Whence she should be driven too,
Were't in mortals power to do.
She doth tell me where to borrow
Comfort in the midst of sorrow,
Makes the desolatest place
To her presence be a grace,
And the blackest discontents
To be pleasing ornaments.
In my former days of bliss
Her divine skill taught me this,
That from every thing I saw
I could some invention draw,
And raise pleasure to her height
Through the meanest object's sight.
By the murmur of a spring,
Or the least bough's rusteling;
By a daisy whose leaves spread,
Shut when Titan goes to bed;
Or a shady bush or tree
She could more infuse in me,
Than all nature's beauties can
In some other wiser man.
By her help I also now
Make this churlish place allow
Some things that may sweeten gladness
In the very gall of sadness.
The dull loneness, the black shade
That these hanging vaults have made,
The strange music of the waves,
Beating on these hollow caves;
This black den, which rocks emboss,
Overgrown with eldest moss;
The rude portals that give light
More to terror than delight;
This my chamber of neglect,
Wall'd about with disrespect;
From all these and this dull air,
A fit object for despair,
She hath taught me by her might
To draw comfort and delight.
Therefore, thou best earthly bliss,
I will cherish thee for this,—

Digitized by Google

POESY !—thou sweet'st content
That e'er heaven to mortals lent.
Tho' they as a trifle leave thee
Whose dull thoughts can not conceive thee,
Tho' thou be to them a scorn
That to nought but earth are born ;
Let my life no longer be
Than I am in love with thee.
Though our wise ones call thee madness,
Let me never taste of gladness
If I love not thy maddest fits
More than all their greatest wits.
And tho' some too seeming holy
Do account thy raptures folly,
Thou dost teach me to contemn
What makes knaves and fools of them."

In the remarks upon our language which form the conclusion of this work, Mr. Ellis advances an opinion that it rather supplanted the Saxon, than succeeded to it as it were by legitimate inheritance.

" The general disaffection and spirit of revolt, excited among the English by the evident partiality of the Conqueror to the partners of his victory, compelled him to adopt a system of defence for his newly acquired dominions, which had a necessary tendency to produce the changes that afterwards took place in the language of his subjects.

" It has been observed by all our historians, that the Saxons, though a brave and warlike people, had made little progress in the art of fortification, and that to this circumstance the Danes were indebted for the almost constant success of their piratical incursions. The Normans, on the contrary, surpassed all the nations of Europe in this branch of tactics ; and William, availing himself of this superiority, erected numerous citadels, which, being filled with Norman garrisons, secured and over-awed all the towns in the kingdom, and afforded him the means of assembling his army with safety and expedition.

" It is evident that each of these garrisons bore a much higher proportion to the number of inhabitants in the neighbouring cities, at whose expence they were from the first supported, than that of the whole body of Normans to the aggregate population of the kingdom. It was necessary, therefore, that some mercantile jargon should be adopted as a medium of communication between the foreigners and the natives ; and although such a jargon, being only employed for occasional purposes by each, could not immediately displace and become a substitute for the established language of either : though the Normans were, during a very considerable length of time, completely separated from their English neighbours by the strongest opposition of passions and prejudices : though even their commercial intercourse was very limited : it may be doubted whether these circumstances had not the effect, of ultimately rendering more complete that alteration of language, which they certainly contributed, in the first instance, to retard.

" In fact, the most striking peculiarity in the establishment of our vulgar English is, that it appears to have very suddenly superseded the pure and legitimate Saxon, from which its elements were principally derived, instead of becoming its successor, as generally has been supposed, by a slow and imperceptible process. The Saxon, certainly never ceased to be cultivated during more than a century after the Conquest, because the conclusion of the Saxon Chronicle, which relates the death of Stephen, cannot have been written before the following reign ; and the translation of Wace by Layamon is not likely to have been composed much before the year 1180. From this period, I believe, the language began to decline, but it did not cease till much later ; for we have a Saxon charter dated in the 43d year of Henry III. that is to say, in 1258. It has been often printed, particularly by Lord Lyttleton and Dr. Henry, both of whom have thought it necessary to add an English translation. On the other hand, we possess some English specimens, which, in the opinion of all our antiquaries, cannot be referred to a later period than 1250 : it follows therefore that, during several years after the establishment of our present mixed language, the Saxon continued to be the only form of speech known to a large portion of the inhabitants of this country.

" Now, if we consider that the Saxon, however it might have degenerated from its former elegance, still retained the advantage of a regular and established grammar, while the construction of the Anglo-Norman, or English, was extremely fluctuating and barbarous ; it will, probably, be thought that the latter could only have acquired the superiority over its parent language by means of the predominant wealth and influence of that part of the community by whom it was exclusively cultivated."

This work has been materially improved since its first appearance. We still miss a few authors of merit or celebrity : Hobbes, Chamberlayne, Chillhill, Cleaveland, Stanihurst, Abraham Fraunce. A second series of specimens selected from our early metrical romances, to complete the sketch of our poetical antiquities, is nearly ready for the press. The lovers of English literature will rejoice at this intelligence ; unlike most antiquarians, Mr. Ellis possesses not only the knowledge and the patience necessary to collect materials, but also the judgment to select, and the taste to arrange them.

Digitized by Google

ART. V. *The Poetical Works of the late Thomas Warton, B. D. Fellow of Trinity College, Oxford, and Poet-Laureat. Fifth Edition, corrected and enlarged. To which are now added, Inscriptionum Romanarum Delectus, and an Inaugural Speech, &c.; together with Memoirs of his Life and Writings, and Notes critical and explanatory. By* RICHARD MANT, *M. A. Fellow of Oriel College, Oxford.* 8vo. 2 vols. pp. about 700.

THE memory of the Wartons is deservedly dear to all lovers of English literature. Mr. Mant has performed an acceptable service to the public in thus collecting the poems of the younger Warton; we should rejoice to see the same pious tribute paid to the elder brother also.

The memoirs of Thomas Warton contain, of course, little incident to create or gratify curiosity; he led an easy, independent, collegiate life, amusing himself with literary pursuits. Mr. Mant has published his first composition, a letter written when he was nine years old. Mr. Joseph Warton always preserved it as a literary curiosity, and as such we copy it.

"Dear sister,

I thank you for your letter; and, in return, I send you the first production of my little muse, which I wish was now old enough to make a song for you to set to music; but at present I send you these four lines.

Of Leander's swimming over the Hellespont to Hero: translated by me from the Latin of Martial.

When bold Leander sought his distant fair,
Nor could the sea a braver burthen bear,)
Thus to the swelling waves he spoke his woe,
Drown me on my return,—but spare me as I go.

I agree with you in thinking that friendship, like truth, should be without form or ornament; and that both appear best in their native habille. Let friendship, therefore, and truth, music and poetry, go hand in hand.

"The above verses I know are a trifle—but you will make good-natured allowances for a little young muse; it will be my utmost ambition to make some verses, that you can sing to your harpsichord;—and to shew you on all occasions how sincerely I am your affectionate brother,

From the School, "THOMAS WARTON."
Nov. 7, 1737.

The following circumstances appear curious to prove what has generally been surmised.

"On the anonymous publication of the 'Heroic Epistle to Sir William Chambers,' about the year 1776, it is known that various opinions were entertained as to who was the author. Mr. Warton being present in a large company, where it was the subject of conversation, ascribed it to Mason. The declaration was at first made inadvertently. 'Well,' said he, 'if I had been Mason, I would not have written it.' When his words were taken up, he was surprised at his having so committed himself; but having once delivered, proceeded to substantiate his opinion. It was founded on the internal evidence of the poem; versification, style, &c. 'But, Mr. Warton, style is so uncertain a criterion: how can you pretend to say that the poem was written by Mason from its style?' 'Just,' he answered, 'as a hatter would tell you who made that hat.'

"The opinion, thus delivered and supported, by some means came to the knowledge of Mason; who, having occasion to write to Warton about the time, took notice of it in the following letter:

"But while I have the pleasure of writing to you, I feel myself half inclined to add a short expostulation on another subject. I have been told that you have pronounced me very frequently in company to be the author of the Heroic Epistle to Sir William Chambers, and I am told too that the premier himself suspects that I am so upon your authority. Surely, sir, mere internal evidence (and you can possibly have no other) can never be sufficient to ground such a determination upon, when you consider how many persons in this rhyming age of ours are possessed of that knack of Pope's versification, which constitutes one part of the merit of that poem; and as to the wit, humour, or satire which it contains, no part of my writings could ever lead you, by their analogy, to form so peremptory a judgment. I acquit you, however, in this procedure of every, even the slightest, degree of ill-nature; and believe that what you have said was only to shew your critical acumen. I only mention it, that you may be more cautious of speaking of other persons in like manner, who may throw such anonymous bantlings of their brain into the wide world. To some of these it might prove an essential injury; for though they might deserve the frown of power, (as the author in question certainly does,) yet I am persuaded that your good nature would be hurt if that frown was increased or fixed by your *ipse dixit*.

"To say more on this trivial subject, would betray a solicitude on my part, very foreign from my present feelings or inclination. My easy and independent circumstances make such a suspicion sit mighty easy upon me; and the minister, nay the whole ministry, are free to think what they

Digitized by Google

please of a man, who neither aims to solicit, nor wishes to accept, any favour from them.

"Believe me to be, with the truest esteem, sir, your much obliged and very faithful servant,

"W. Mason.

"P. S. I should be sorry if you thought this latter part of my letter required any answer."

A copy of the Probationary Odes was sent to Warton with this letter:

"Rev. Sir,

"I hold ingratitude to be one of the basest crimes that can stain the human character. I have deemed it therefore my indispensible duty to transmit the inclosed to you, as a testimony of my grateful recollection for the peculiar service you have rendered me, in setting the first example of a *joke*, by the continuance of which I have already profited so much, and hope to do still more so by the succession of future editions, with which the accompanying effusions will be indispensably honoured in future. Had it not been for the inimitable effort of luxuriant humour which proceeded from you on the occasion I allude to, the world would have been deprived of the most astonishing exhibition of genuine *joke*, that ever graced the annals of literature, and I should have been still more unhappy to have lost the opportunity of a competent independency. I entreat you, therefore, good sir, to accept my warmest gratitude, and believe me to be ever yours,

"The Editor of the Probationary Odes."

On this letter Mr. Mant has simply remarked, that *his readers* may perhaps understand it: he should have stigmatized it as it deserves. Every writer lays himself open to public satire: as poet-laureat, Warton was almost officially exposed; he himself, with his characteristic good humour, joined honestly in the laugh. But this letter was a private insult, for which, as no provocation had been given, so no palliation can be admitted.

Some odd peculiarities of Warton are noticed by his biographer.

"It will be no serious imputation on the character of such a man to say, that he had his singularities and imperfections. Biographical justice requires that such things should be noticed; and a smile may perhaps be excited at the information, that the historian of English Poetry was fond of drinking his ale and smoking his pipe with persons of mean rank and education; that he partook of a weakness which has been attributed to the author of the Rambler, and believed in preternatural apparitions; that, in his fondness for pleasantry and humour, he delighted in popular spectacles, especially when enlivened by the music of a drum; and that such was his propensity to be present at public exhibitions, as to have induced him at a time, when he was desirous of not being discovered, to attend an execution in the dress of a carter."

Of his love of the drum we remember an anecdote current at Oxford. He was a member of the Jelly Bag Society, so called because the fellows of that foundation wore jelly bags on their heads. From the absurdity of this costume the place of meeting was kept secret. It was known that Warton was a member, and a drum was beat through the streets as the best means of discovering him. The bait took, he could not resist the sound, but throwing up the window, thrust out head and jelly bag to see what was passing.

"It has been remarked, that during his residence at Winchester he was fond of associating with his brother's scholars: indeed he entered so heartily into their sports and employments, as to have been occasionally involved in rather ludicrous incidents. Being engaged with them in some *culinary* occupation, and alarmed by the sudden approach of Dr. Warton, he has been known to conceal himself in some dark corner, and has been drawn out from his hiding place to the no small astonishment and amusement of the doctor, who had taken him for some great boy. He would assist the boys in making their exercises, generally contriving to accommodate his composition to the capacity of him whom he was assisting. 'How many faults?' was a question, the answer to which regulated him; and a boy was perhaps as likely to be flogged for verses of Mr. Warton as for his own.

"I remember that an anecdote used to be told relating to this part of Mr. Warton's conduct, which is somewhat characteristic of both the brothers. Warton had given a boy an exercise; and the doctor thinking it too good for the boy himself, and suspecting the truth, ordered him into his study at school, and sent for Mr. Warton. The exercise was read and approved: 'And do you think it worth half-a-crown, Mr. Warton?' said his brother: Mr. Warton assented. 'Well then, you shall give the boy it.' Our author accordingly paid the half-crown for his own verses, and the doctor enjoyed the joke."

Rat-hunting was a sport in which he delighted to join with the boys; and one of these expeditions was to be undertaken, he supplied themes and verses for the truants who required them. It will not be wondered at, that the

Digitized by Google

of Tom Warton should be beloved by all the Wykehamists who remember him.

The editor compares the studies and performances of Warton and Gray, as being contemporaries, between whom there existed more than a general resemblance of talents, pursuits, taste, and acquirements. "Partiality to my author," he says, "shall not lead me to dispute, that as a poet the palm of superiority must be adjudged to Gray.

"But in making this concession, some reservation may not unfairly be claimed. It should be remembered that the poems of Gray were uniformly composed on subjects chosen by himself; but that the subjects of some of the best of Warton's were imposed by the duty, and encumbered with the weight, of an official station. Nor is this all.—for it may farther be added, that in every point the superiority of Gray is far from manifest; that if Gray has more abstract poetry, Warton has more picturesque imagery; if Gray has more fire, Warton yields not to him in grandeur; if Gray more frequently strikes the imagination, Warton is not less successful in delighting it; and that if, in the examination of individual pieces, Gray is allowed to be more perfect, Warton, in the general estimate, has certainly more variety. Not a poem of Gray's can be mentioned, but one of the same kind may be produced from Warton: but several of the poems of Warton are such kinds as Gray has never attempted."

One fault is common to both poets, that of too often substituting sound for sense, swelling out sentences that are as beautiful as bubbles in the sunshine, and as empty, if examined. Mr. Mant might fairly have allowed Warton the praise of more originality; for Gray, with all his merit, is a maker of centos, a patter-together of mosaic pictures; the designs are indeed his own, but he has picked out the materials piece by piece. The editor is mistaken in asserting that Warton, as a commentator on English poetry, "possesses the singular merit of having been the first to illustrate our authors by an examination of the works with which they had been principally conversant." That merit is Theobald's, and it provoked the envy of Pope, who being an indifferent scholar, and a worse commentator, abused Bentley for his learning, and Theobald for his annotations.

Mr. Mant's criticism on the poetry of his author, contains no error so important as to need correction, and no observations of such novelty or utility as to deserve to be extracted. Why does he call our heroic verse the English pentameter? The five-foot Iambic, or the ten-syllable line should be its name: to call it a pentameter because it contains five feet, is mere pedantry.

The poems now first published are two translations from Horace, in the metre of Collins's Ode to Evening, and the two following poems.

"*Solitude, at an Inn,*

"(Written May 15, 1769.)

"Oft upon the twilight plain,
Circled with thy shadowy train,
While the dove at distance coo'd,
Have I met thee, Solitude!
Then was loneliness to me
Rest and true society.
But, ah! how alter'd is thy mien
In this sad deserted scene!
Here all thy classic pleasures cease,
Musing mild, and thoughtful peace:
Here thou com'st in sullen mood,
Not with thy fantastic brood
Of magic shapes and visions airy,
Beckon'd from the land of fairy:
'Mid the melancholy void
Not a pensive charm enjoy'd!
No poetic being here
Strikes with airy sounds mine ear;
No converse here to fancy cold
With many a fleeting form I hold,
Here all inelegant and rude
Thy presence is, sweet Solitude."

"*On Mr. Head.*

"Oh spare his youth, O stay thy threat'ning hand,
Nor break too soon young wedlock's early band!
But if his gentle and ingenuous mind,
The generous temper, and the taste refin'd,
A soul unconscious of corruption's stain,
If learning, wit, and genius plead in vain,
O let the mourning bride, to stop thy spear,
Oppose the meek resistance of a tear!
And when to sooth thy force his virtues fail,
Let weeping faith and widow'd love prevail!"

The first of these poems is evidently an uncorrected effusion, but it is pleasing because the feeling which it describes will be recognized by every one. The epitaph is perfectly Irish: an address upon a tombstone to Death, requesting him to spare the person who is there interred. We have never seen a more flagrant instance of that vile common-place artifice, which converts a figure of passion into the trick of composition. Mr. Edgeworth may insert the Epitaph in his Essay upon Bulls.

From the inaugural lecture we copy

Digitized by Google

the very able estimate of the faults and merits of Tacitus.

"Tandem vero Tacitus, Sallustii imputatas sententiolas, et argutas clausulas, adsectans, quem prius apud eum corruptum invenit stylum, corruptiorem adhuc effecit: multaque insuper nova dictionis aucupia, et obscuram quandam elegantiam, et urbanitates, nescio quas, e declamatorum scholis, quæ tunc Romæ magnopere florebant, cupidissime arripuit. Quo quidem fuco (ut id obiter dicam) nihil perniciosum magis styli historici sanitati accidisse poterat, nihil quod ab ejus nativa indole magis, abhorret. Ut cunque vero Tacitus parum sibi temperaverit ab hisce argutiis et importuna concinnitate, mirifico tamen acumine ea, quæ casum magni et ambitiosissimi imperii comitari solent, delatorum insidias, magnatum conjurationes, civium proscriptiones, suspectam principibus privatorum potentiam, et superbissimæ dominationis occulta concilia, persequitur, investigat, eruit: nec minima etiam præteriens, ut exinde res maximi momenti extricet, et futura occupans et præmonstrans. Quod cum sagacitatis est, et perspicaciæ summæ, admirandum magis in hujus ingenii scriptore judico, quod tantopere polleat in descriptionibus, ad metum et terrorem comparatis; in quibus confingendis egregie seligit imagines, et captat circumstantias non nisi maximo poetæ vel pictori perspiciendas; hoc tamen parcé et obscure, ut sentiamus eum plura apud se sublimiter concepta habere, quæ non vult proferre, et indiciis tantum utens, et levissima lineamenta adhibens, a lectori multa consulte relinquens, ita tamen ut ostendat vel quæ studiose celavit."

It only remains to notice the editor's annotations. They are generally trifling and worthless;—for instance. "V. 84, I meditate my lightsome lay." 'To *meditate* my rural minstrelsy,' *Comus*, v. 547; '*meditate* the muse,' *Lycid.* v. 66; 'Musam *meditaris*,' *Virg.* Ecl. i. 2." Again, and in the same page, V. 295, "Which sloping hills around inclose."

'meanwhile murm'ring waters fall
Down the *slope hills*.' *Par. Lost*, iv. 260."

The greater part of these notes are no better. To make such annotations requires no better talent than memory. Boys who *cap verses* are employed quite as much to their own and to the public improvement. This is the folly of the times, and it has prevailed too long: two centuries ago it was the fashion in Italy, and Spain, and France; England has taken up the absurdity when other countries were weary and ashamed of it.

ART. VI. *Poems, by* PETER BAYLEY, *jun. Esq.* 8vo. pp. 208.

STOP thief! Mr. Peter Bayley, jun. is a literary sharper, who has obtained credit upon false pretences, and made his way into good company by wearing stolen clothes. Without farther preamble we shall proceed to convict this gentleman of plagiarisms as artful, as dishonourable and as dishonest, as have ever stamped any pretender with infamy.

The poem entitled an Evening in the Vale of Festiniog, is made up from the Lyrical Ballads of Mr. Wordsworth.

"It is a blessed scene, and I rejoice
That I have felt inwove into my being
A love of the green fields, and azure sky,
Mountains, and all the multitud'nous throng
Of waves that sound along the rocky shore.
And therefore (for this never-dying passion,
This craving appetite, has led me on,
As though possess'd with moody thoughts, and fed
With wayward fancies)—therefore have I roam'd
Through devious wilds, through pathless glens, and climb'd
The tall cliff's topmost crag, and therefore bar'd
To the sharp mountain-blast my glowing breast.
Nor nursing other feelings have I sought
The savage grandeur of yon wilds sublime,
The foaming cat'ract, or the softer voice
Of bub'ling hill-streams—To this place I come
Led by the self-same impulse.
This hoar stone,
Studded with moss, with green and frin[ged] moss,
With crimson fret-work, and bright cup[s] gold,
And all emboss'd with curled knots, and [be]
Of lichens—this hoar stone shall be my [seat]

These lines are botched up from the following passages of the Wye and the Thorn.

"And so I dare to hope,
Though changed no doubt from what I [was] when first
I came among these hills; when like a [roe]
I bounded o'er the mountains, by the [sides]
Of the deep rivers and the lonely streams,
Wherever Nature led: more like a man
Flying from something that he dreads, than one
Who sought the thing he loved. For nature then,
(The coarser pleasures of my boyish days
And their glad animal movements all gone by)
To me was all in all.—I cannot paint
What then I was. The sounding cataract

Digitized by Google

Haunted me like a passion: the tall rock
The mountain and the deep and gloomy wood,
Their colours and their forms, were then to me
An appetite, a feeling and a love."
Lyrical Ballads, vol. i. 195.

"And let the misty mountain winds be free
To blow against thee."
Ibid. 198.

"Therefore am I still
A lover of the meadows and the woods
And mountains, and of all which we behold
From this green earth."
Ibid. 196.

"Like rock or stone it is o'ergrown
With lichens to the very top.
* * *
All lovely colours there you see
All colours that were ever seen,
And mossy network too is there,
* *
And cups the darlings of the eye,
So deep is their vermillion die."
Lyrical Ballads, i. 87.

The next instance is more obvious and more offensive, as it is a base and unfeeling parody upon what we shall not scruple to call one of the finest passages that ever was or can be written.

"Who so unbless'd as to lock up his heart
Against the soothing power and sweet illapse
Of Nature's voice!—For sure there dwells a voice,
A moving spirit, and a speaking tongue,
In the loud waters, and the nimble air,
And the still moonbeam, and the living light
Of suns, resplendent in their mid career."
Peter Bayley, p. 45.

"And I have felt
A presence that disturbs me with the joy
Of elevated thoughts; a sense sublime
Of something far more deeply interfused,
Whose dwelling is the light of setting suns,
And the round ocean, and the living air,
And the blue sky, and in the mind of man;
A motion and a spirit, that impels
All thinking things, all objects of all thought,
And rolls through all things."
Lyrical Ballads, i. 196.

Mr. Peter Bayley, aware that so remarkable a passage as this would be recognised, has affected in one part to imitate Petrarch, and for "the living light of suns" has quoted *un vivo sole*. A knave is never so knavish as when he affects honesty. Unfortunately for this gentleman, we also understand Italian, and we know that the phrase "un vivo sole" is one of the metaphors common to all rhymers, one of the slang comparisons of the Italian poets to their mistresses. The passage which he has referred to is most likely the following, in the 70th Sonnet of Petrarch, speaking of Laura:

"le parole
Sonava altre che pur voce humana
Uno spirto celeste, un vivo sole
Fu quel, ch' e vidi, &c."

that is a living sun, (or as the commentator has it in the notes below, a living sun of beauty) says Petrarch, "was she whom I saw, and if she be so no longer," that is on account of her age, as the Sonnet goes on, "the slackening of the bow does not cure the wound." It occurs again in the 31st Canzonet, and with the same application. After having spoken of a fountain which boils in the night and becomes cold as the sun rises, he goes on, saying, that it is even so with him, who is a fountain of tears, for

"Quando 'l bel lume adorno,
Ch' e 'l mio sol. s' allontana, e triste, e solo
Son le mie luci, e notte oscura e loro;
Ardo allhor; ma se l' oro
E i rai veggio apparir del vivo sole,
Tutto dentro, e di fuor cento cangiar me,
E ghiaccio farme, cosi freddo torno."

Petrarch's "living Sun" is then the eyes of Laura, and Mr. Peter Bayley has endeavoured to conceal his theft by falshood.

If this had been a single instance, it might have been excused as a pardonable, though not prudent effect of admiration, but of that hereafter. Mr. Peter Bayley is not contented with single imitations; he parodies and he paraphrases; he inserts half a line in one place and the other half in another; he patches in single phrases, such as "sweet skirmishing" applied to the sound of a brook, stolen from the Nightingale, "with skirmish and capricious passagings." The whole art of literary thieving might be illustrated from this single poem.

"Yet when the coil,
The stir and bustle of the world shall press
Heavily on my heart, and when my soul
Is sick to death of the incessant hum
And ceremonious buzz of social life
* * * * *
a resting place
For my long harass'd thoughts, and thou shalt slake
Thy soul's hot fever; thou shalt soothe away
The fretful peevishness that on the mind
Hangs most unpleasantly.
* * *
Then will thy heart confess
The presence of a sober joy——

Digitized by Google

—— —— then thy mind
Disburthen'd of its fever and thick gloom
And all surrendered up to the strong charm
Of Nature."
Bayley, 53, 54. 49.

Compare these passages with Mr. Wordsworth's "Wye."

"When the fretful stir
Unprofitable, and the fever of the world
Have hung upon the beatings of my heart,
How oft in spirit have I turn'd to thee!
* * *
nor the sneers of selfish men,
Nor greetings where no kindness is, nor all
The dreary intercourse of daily life
Shall e'er prevail against us.
* * *
to the influences
Of shapes and sounds and shifting elements
Surrendering thy whole spirit."
Lyrical Ballads.

An old Art of Poetry contains the following Short Method of making verses. "He who desires to know how to make verses without their costing him much trouble or study, should take one or two or more lines from some good poet, which are elegant and sonorous, and he should repeat those over to himself, and then try to make others to the same sound and pattern, and if the sense be wanting at first, or should not be quite so good, he must not mind that; by doing this, and getting a master to teach him to make synalephas and contractions, and by knowing how to rhyme, by the help of our dictionary, he will make himself a poet." Upon this rule Mr. Peter Bayley has proceeded. His "ceremonious buzz of social life," is made to the pattern of "The dreary intercourse of daily life," and the whole volume is made up of these hyper-plagiarisms, where the theft is not more daring. We should suspect Mr. Peter Bayley to be an Etonian by this trick; it is the way they make their centos and win their prizes, and in consequence the school never produces a poet. Gray is the great master of this craft and mystery; he possessed the passion of a poet, and therefore always affects young and impassioned readers, but possessing neither a creative fancy nor a populated mind, the parts of his poems are all composed upon this receipt.

We proceed with our proofs.

"Not alone
To him who sickens at the dizzy joys
And stormy raptures that the world affords."
Bayley, 50.

"That time is past,
And all its aching joys are now no more,
And all its dizzy raptures."
Lyrical Ballads, i. 196.
* * *

"And one I know,
One gentle maid, whose mild and peaceful soul
Is sway'd and temper'd by the very hand
Of softness and complacency; her heart
True and obedient to the touch divine
Of Nature, and alive to every thrill
That flows from her pure influence, would own
Her magic in this vale——Oh gentle maid!"
Bayley, 52.

"A most gentle maid
Who dwelleth in her hospitable home
Hard by the castle, and at latest eve,
(Even like a lady vow'd and dedicate
To something more than Nature in the grove)
Glides thro' the pathways; she knows all their notes;
That gentle maid."
Lyrical Ballads, i. 94.
* * * *

"Thou hast learned to look
On these things with no idle ken; thy mind
Has long regarded a free intercourse
With Nature's voice as the unfailing stay
And guardian of thy feelings, as the rock
The shield and anchor of thy purest joys,
And therefore thou art happy—and thy mind
Is stored with sweet and pleasant images,
And made the habitation of those charms
Which thou hast seen and felt; and after days
Shall see thee feeding on the blissful thoughts
Which thou hast treasured in thy memory."
Bayley, 53.

"For I have learn'd
To look on nature—— 196.
—— well pleas'd to recognize
In nature, and the language of the sense,
The anchor of my purest thoughts, the nurse
The guide, the guardian of my heart, and soul
Of all my moral being.—— 197.
—— and in after years
When these wild ecstacies shall be matur'd
Into a sober pleasure, when thy mind
Shall be a mansion for all lovely forms,
Thy memory be as a dwelling-place
For all sweet sounds and harmonies, &c."
Lyrical Ballads, 199.

The "sober pleasure" has been [illegible] fered by Mr. Bayley elsewhere: p. 56.

* * * *

"And now farewell! thou smiling vale, the source
Of calm and pleasant thought, for this night
Farewell, thou smiling vale! refresh'd in heart
And glad in spirit, with oft loitering step
And still reverted gaze, I quit these scenes.

Purposing if to-morrow's sun shall shine
Upon these eyes, once more to visit thee."
Bayley, 59.

"Farewel, O warbler! till to-morrow's eve,
And you my friends farewel."
Lyrical Ballads, 95.

We now come to the Forest Fay, the metre of which poem is copied from the Forsaken Indian of Mr. Wordsworth. The plagiarisms here, which are innumerable, are mostly in masquerade; but Mr. Bayley's wardrobe not being very large, a passing look is sufficient to detect them. To string together parallel passages is the fashionable criticism of the day, and considered as mere criticism it is idle and worthless work. In the present instance it becomes an act of justice to expose an impostor.

"Then point I out the squirrel's hoard,
Then point I out what trees afford
Safe nourishment and wholesome food
Among the treasures of the wood.
I guide to where sweet berries grow,
Where earth-nuts in the turf abound."
Bayley, 62.

Filched in spirit, and partly in words from the Mad Mother.

"I know the poisons of the shade,
I know the earth-nuts fit for food."
Lyrical Ballads, i. 142.

* * * *

"Then ditties fill the air around,
Then choral strains together rise;
Now one soft, flowing single sound."
Bayley, 62.

"Sometimes all little birds that are
How they seem'd to fill the sea and air
With their sweet jargoning.
And now 'twas like all instruments,
Now like a lonely flute,
And now it is an angel's song
That makes the heavens be mute."
Lyrical Ballads, i. 170.

* * * *

"a goblin rout
Swim to and fro, and in and out,
They coil about in wreaths like snakes
And swarm thick-clustering in the light,
Then dash the fire about in flakes,
And skirmish with well-mimick'd fight;
And oft the fire-flood shifts its hue,
Green, purple, yellow, red or blue."
Bayley, 68.

To and fro they were hurried about,
And to and fro and in and out. —
Round the shadow of the ship
Watch'd the water-snakes,
They moved in tracks of shining white,
And when they rear'd, the elfish light
Fell off in hoary flakes.
Within the shadow of the ship
I watch'd their rich attire;
Blue, glossy green, and velvet black,
They coil'd and swam, and every track
Was a flash of golden fire."
Lyrical Ballads, i. 164.

"About, about, in reel and rout
The death fires danced at night,
The water like a witch's oils,
Burnt green, and blue and white."
Ibid. 154.

* * * * *

"Oh, sov'reign Nature! thou whose sacred sway
Softens the rugged heart; by thee beguil'd
The soul new-moulds its essence; soft and mild
Is the sweet influence that soothes away
Each jarring discord: thou with thy sweet play
Of forms and tints, waters and thickets wild,
So strongly workest on thy wayward child,
That, conquer'd, all his soul receives thy ray."
Bayley, Sonnet, i. 79.

— "till his very soul
Unmoulds its essence, hopelessly deform'd
By sights of ever more deformity. —
— With other ministrations thou, O Nature!
Healest thy wandering and distemper'd child:
Thou pourest on him thy soft influences,
Thy sunny hues, fair forms, and breathing sweets,
Thy melodies of woods, and winds and waters,
Till he relent and can no more endure
To be a jarring and a dissonant thing
Amid this general dance and minstrelsy."
Lyrical Ballads, vol. ii.

* * *

The Sonnets are chiefly stolen from Mr. Bowles, sometimes the theft is verbal, more frequently the thoughts and plan are pilfered. True to his golden rule of writing by pattern, Mr. Peter Bayley has extended it from one or two lines to whole poems. He has even invented a new mode of plagiarism, that of translating from his contemporaries, unless indeed it be imitated from the common school exercise of turning an Ode of Horace into a different metre—thus the following Sonnet is reversified from Mr. Bowles.

"*To a Flowering Shrub—in Winter.*

"How art thou chang'd, once-blooming tree! when last
Amid these paths I gave my feet to stray,
Cherish'd by gales and show'rs, and summer's ray,
Fair didst thou flourish.—But thy hour is past;
And, scatter'd by the fury of the blast,

Thy blushing flow'rs, the gift of rosy May,
Thy buds, and verdant leaves are whirl'd away,
And all thy honours to the earth are cast—
Ah! yet a little, and the breath of spring
Shall crown thee with fresh flow'rs; again shall bring
Fragrance to thy young buds, and new-born bloom,
Again shall fan thee with propitious wing.
But oh! what spring shall dawn upon the gloom
That dwells around the cold and silent tomb!"
Bayley.

"How shall I meet thee, summer, wont to fill
My heart with gladness, when thy pleasant tide
First came, and on each coomb's romantick side
Was heard the distant cuckoo's hollow bill?
Fresh flowers shall fringe the wild-brink of the stream,
As with the songs of joyance and of hope
The hedge-rows shall ring loud, and on the slope
The poplars sparkle in the transient beam;
The shrubs and laurels which I lov'd to tend,
Thinking their May-tide fragrance might delight,
With many a peaceful charm, thee, my best friend,
Shall put forth their green shoot, and cheer the sight!
But I shall mark their hues with sickning eyes,
And weep for her who in the cold grave lies."
Bowles, i. 32.

In another Sonnet Mr. Bayley has fitted in the same conclusion.

"That now has left me here to weep and mourn
Her that lies buried in the silent tomb."
Bayley, 85.

The Sonnet "*at* Harlech Castle," thus affectedly entitled, in imitation of Mr. Bowles, is stolen in the same manner from Mr. Lloyd, more impudently, as the original thoughts are more marked.

"HARLECH! with many a pause and cautious tread
I climb'd thy hills; while, wafted from the main
With low wail, as of one long rack'd by pain,
Through thy lone tow'rs the breezes sigh; its head
The long lank grass that o'er thy tops is spread
Waves wildly; thy hoar ruins shew how vain
Conquest's proud pageant, vict'ry's lofty strain,
And the priz'd wreath that shades the hero's head.—
Thy walls are mould'ring; for the clanging steel,
And din of arms, the murm'ring mountain-bee,
Humming amid the wild flowr's that conceal
Thy turret tops, shall give her minstrelsy;
And Mercy smiles, e'en in thy courts, to see
The waving harvest all its stores reveal."

"To Craig Miller Castle.

"This hoary labyrinth, the wreck of Time,
Solicitous with timid step I tread,
Scale the stern battlement, or venturous climb
Where the rent watch-tower bows its grassy head.
These dark damp caverns breathe mysterious dread,
Haply still foul with tinct of ancient crime;
Methinks some spirit of the ennobled dead,
High-bosom'd maid, or warrior form sublime
Haunts them; the flapping of the heavy bird
Imagined warnings fearfully impart,
And that dull breeze below that feebly stir'd,
Seem'd the deep breathing of an o'erchar'd heart!
Proud Tower, thy halls now stable the lean herd,
And musing Mercy smiles that such thou art."
Coleridge's Poems, 2d edition.

Mr. Bowles has been plundered as unmercifully as Mr. Wordsworth, by this dealer in shreds and patches.

"Oh! breathe once more that air; Oh! yet bid sound
Once more that well-remember'd much lov'd lay,
First heard by me, when in life's golden May
My happy hours danc'd on in laughing round,
There where, through verdant banks with poplar crown'd,
Smooth Wever, steals along his silent way,
Winding in many a maze with sinuous play
Near whose cool wave, as on the flow'ry ground
Supine I lay, those sounds first charm'd my ear."

From Mr. Bowles's Sonnet at Ostend upon the Bells.

"Bidding me many a tender thought recal
Of summer days, and those delightful years,
When by my native streams, in life's fair prime,
The mournful magic of their mingling chimes
First wak'd my wondering childhood into tears."
Vol. i. 15.

In another Sonnet, part of this same passage is botched in.

"to me it speaks of days
Of long past peace, of those delightful years
That never shall return." Bayley, 94.

And here Mr. Peter Bayley squints at the Sonnet on re-visiting Oxford, by the same author.

But it were endless to enumerate the petty larcenies of this literary Barrington. Any person conversant with Mr. Bowles's Sonnets who shall peruse

these, will perceive that they are in all their parts either servilely copied, or stolen, or more dishonestly translated.

We shall notice only one poem more, in which Mr. Peter Bayley has completely reversed the dream of the alchemist, and succeeded in transmuting gold into lead.

"And that sweet warbling, in her face
Still'd up a new and lively grace:
That warbling moulded every look,
And feelings born of sound bid rise
Soft radiance in her kindling eyes;
And all her frame with sweet emotion shook.

Then in each feature I could see
The workings of that sympathy,
The silent joy that o'er her stole."
Bayley, 101.

"Nor shall she fail to see
Even in the motions of the storm,
Grace that shall mould the maiden's form
By silent sympathy.
The stars of midnight shall be dear
To her, and she shall lean her ear
In many a secret place,
Where rivulets dance their wayward round,
And beauty born of murmuring sound,
Shall pass into her face."
Lyrical Ballads, vol. ii. 137.

* * * *

"And oh, the look! when from that tree
At length she turn'd her eyes on me!
That look may never pass away;
Even now it works upon my mind,
And in its magic I shall find
Subject and food for many a future day."
Bayley, 102.

"The look with which they look'd on me
Had never pass'd away."
Lyrical Ballads, i. 163.

— "with pleasing hopes
That in this moment there is life and food
For future years."
ibid. i. 194.

This is by no means an uninteresting specimen of Mr. Bayley's general practice of plagiarism; having the Lyrical Ballads by heart, he fits in the scraps as they are wanted, with the same facility that a school-boy caps verses.

"Why is my hand upon my heart?"
Bayley, 100.

and again, in the last stanza of the same poem

"Therefore my hand is on my heart.
I look, the sky is empty space,
I know not what I trace,
But when I cease to look, my hand is on my heart."
Lyrical Ballads, ii. 77.

Mr. Bayley, in this "Ivy Seat," has kept his eye throughout upon the last quoted poem. His Gentle Maid, in this piece of patch-work, is a *second* translation from the Nightingale—with this difference, that the Nightingale is changed into a Blackbird. Yet Mr. Peter Bayley himself thinks, that to pass off compilations for original compositions, is roguery. "Mr. Kelly does *compile* with a vengeance," says honest Mr. Peter Bayley. "*When a man publishes in his own name mere musical centos, it is time to hint to him, that borrowing here a little, and there a little, procured Arne the appellation of 'pilfering Tommy Arne.' But enough of musical rogues.*" p. 138.

Pilfering Peter Bayley perhaps supposes, that he has made the thoughts of others his own by his manner of remodelling them. There is a passage in one of Donne's Satires which will fit this gentleman.

"But he is worst who, beggarly doth chaw
Others wits fruits, and in his rav'nous maw
Rankly digested, doth those things out-spue
As his own things; and they're his own 'tis true:
For if one eat my meat, tho' it be known
The meat was mine, ——— * * *

Old Donne is somewhat coarse in his expression; but Mr. Bayley may turn to the thirtieth line of his second satire, to see how such gentlemen as himself appropriate their neighbours meat.

But enough of versifying rogues. It is sufficient to add, that Mr. Peter Bayley has pillaged Akenside as he has Mr. Bowles and Mr. Wordsworth; that he may be tracked to Cowper and to Charlotte Smith; in short, that his whole volume is one mass of patchwork. *Enough of versifying rogues!* We have a heavier charge than that of simple roguery to bring against this dishonest man.

That Mr. Bayley should never praise, never refer to the authors whom he has plundered, was to be expected; to have so named them would have been giving a hint to his detection. This is the common trick of plagiarists; but Mr. Bayley is no common plagiarist, and he has advanced one step farther in meanness. After having made up his own poems by scraps from Mr. Wordsworth's, he has had the baseness to attempt to ridicule Mr. Wordsworth, and has sneered at him by name; in the hope, that those of his readers who have never read the Lyrical

Digitized by Google

Ballads, may be prevented from reading them by the contempt which he has thus expressed. The miserable vanity which tempted this gentleman to build his own fame upon another's merits, to pilfer the reputation of a contemporary, to plume his own magpye tail with the feathers of the bird of paradise, this wretched craving for notoriety would have deserved no heavier punishment than the contempt and scorn which necessarily would follow detection; but this other offence is of a deeper die. Like a loathsome reptile, it is not enough for him to feed and fatten, but he must endeavour to sting and to stain with his pollutions. The moral turpitude of this action excites our wonder and indignation. We know not the name which is hidden under this *alias* of Peter Bayley; and happy it is for him, that he can be thus concealed; but be he whom he may, this we shall say of him—

Hic niger est, hunc tu Romane caveto!

ART. VII. *Clifton Grove, a Sketch in Verse, with other Poems.* *By* HENRY KIRKE WHITE, *of Nottingham.* 12mo. pp. 111.

OF all the volumes which come before us, there are none which we take up so hopelessly as these little fools-cap octavos of wire-wove paper, hot pressed. We sit down heartlessly and reluctantly to examine the works of a new candidate for poetical fame, taught by the doctrine of chances and by sad experience to expect something which we cannot honestly praise, and yet should be unwilling to condemn. In the present age every pretender to poetry can versify well, and many a volume, which now sinks quietly into oblivion, would have acquired no trifling celebrity in the days of Dryden and Pope, or even at the commencement of the present reign. But it requires something more now to qualify a writer for a place among the British poets, than was admitted by our forefathers as a qualification. Reputation may be acquired by striking defects as well as striking beauties, but dullness and mediocrity have now no chance or possibility of success.

It is, therefore, with no common pleasure that we announce these extraordinary productions of early genius. It will require some faith in the reader to believe, that the following Ode was written by a boy of thirteen.

"To an early Primrose.

"Mild offspring of a dark and sullen sire!
Whose modest form, so delicately fine,
Was nurs'd in whirling storms
And cradled in the winds.

"Thee, when young spring first question'd winter's sway,
And dar'd the sturdy blust'rer to the fight,
Thee on this bank he threw
To mark his victory.

"In this low vale, the promise of the year,
Serene, thou openest to the nipping gale
Unnotic'd, and alone
Thy tender elegance.

"So virtue blooms, brought forth amid the storms
Of chill adversity, in some low walk
Of life, she rears her head
Obscure and unobserv'd.

"While every bleaching breeze that on her blows,
Chastens her spotless purity of breast,
And hardens her to bear
Serene the ills of life."

The author of these poems is now only seventeen. He shall plead in his own cause.

"The unpremeditated effusions of a boy from his thirteenth year, employed, not in the acquisition of literary information, but in the more active business of life, must not be expected to exhibit any considerable portion of the correctness of a Virgil, or the more vigorous compression of a Horace. Men are not, I believe, frequently known to bestow much labour on their amusements; and these poems were most of them written merely to beguile a leisure hour, or to fill up the languid intervals of studies of a severer nature.

"Πας το οικειος εργον αγαπαται.—Every one loves his own work, says the Stagyrite; but it was no overweening affection of this kind which induced this publication. If the author relied on his own judgment only, these poems would not, in all probability, ever have seen the light.

"Perhaps it may be asked of him, what are his motives for this publication. He answers—simply these: The facilities through its means of those studies which from his earliest infancy have been the principal objects of his ambition; and the increase of the capacity to pursue those inclinations which may one day place him in honorable station in the scale of society."

However desirous we should be, for the sake of their future fame, to dissuade all young poets from premature publication, it is evident that no such prudential notions could apply to the present instance. The author has expressed

Digitized by Google

hope that the profits of this volume may enable him to enjoy the advantages of a collegiate education, with a view, we presume, to ordination. In this hope, we fear and believe he will be disappointed; but disgraceful as the want of patronage has ever been in England, we will indulge the hope that some powerful patron will be found on the present occasion—some person of rank and opulence who will seize the easy opportunity of securing and deserving the thanks of posterity by doing good.

That this young poet is deserving of every encouragement which the public can bestow, the following extracts will sufficiently evince.

"Now, when the rustic wears the social smile,
Releas'd from day and its attendant toil,
And draws his household round their evening fire,
And tells the oft-told tales that never tire:
Ah, where the town's blue turrets dimly rise,
And manufacture taints the ambient skies,
The pale mechanic leaves the lab'ring loom,
The air-pent hold, the pestilential room,
And rushes out, impatient to begin
The stated course of customary sin:
Now, now, my solitary way I bend
Where solemn groves in awful state impend,
And cliffs, that boldly rise above the plain,
Aspeak, blest Clifton! thy sublime domain.
Here, lonely wand'ring o'er the sylvan bow'r,
Come, to pass the meditative hour;
While a while the strife of passion cease,
And woo the calm of solitude and peace.
And oh! thou sacred pow'r, who rear'st on high
Thy leafy throne where waving poplars sigh!
Genius of woodland shades! whose mild control
Hails with resistless witch'ry to the soul,
Come with thy wonted ardour, and inspire
My glowing bosom with thy hallow'd fire.
And thou too fancy! from thy starry sphere,
Hither to the hymning orbs thou tend'st thine ear,
And thou descend, and bless my ravish'd sight,
Veil'd in soft visions of serene delight.
At thy command the gale that passes by
Hears in its whispers mystic harmony.
Thou wav'st thy wand, and lo! what forms appear!
Within the dark cloud what giant shapes career!
The ghosts of Ossian skim the misty vale,
And hosts of sylphids on the moon-beam sail.
* * * *
Thy native grove! where'er my devious track,
Still thee will mem'ry lead the wand'rer back.
Farther in Arno's polish'd vales I stray,
Or where "Oswego's swamps" obstruct the day;
Or wander lone, where wildering, and wide,
The trembling torrent leaves St. Gothard's side;
Or, by old Tago's classic margent muse,
Or stand entranc'd with Pyrenean views;
Still, still to thee, where'er my footsteps roam,
My heart shall point, and lead the wand'rer home.
When splendor offers, and when fame incites,
I'll pause, and think of all thy dear delights.
Reject the boon, and weary'd with the change,
Renounce the wish which first induc'd to range;
Turn to these scenes, these well-known scenes once more,
Trace once again Old Trent's romantic shore,
And tir'd with worlds, and all their busy ways,
Here waste the little remnant of my days.
But if the fates should this last wish deny,
And doom me to some foreign shore to die;
Oh! should it please the world's supernal King,
That weltering waves my funeral dirge shall sing;
Or, that my corse should on some desart strand,
Lie stretch'd beneath the Simoom's blasting hand;
Still, tho' unwept I find a stranger tomb,
My sprite shall wander thro' this fav'rite gloom,
Ride on the wind that sweeps the leafless grove,
Sigh on the wood-blast of the dark alcove,
Sit a lorn spectre, on yon well-known grave,
And mix its moanings with the desert wave."

There is nothing which we should so solicitously seek to avoid as the danger of exciting disappointment by undue praise. That the present volume has its faults, who would not expect? The story of the ballad is ill conceived, and we should censure the Hudibrastic letter if it were not for the anecdotes of the author which it contains. The tale of Bateman is given with less effect in his polished couplets than in the old ditties to which he refers, and by which we also were impressed in childhood. It would be invidious to point out these defects, without observing, that such defects must exist in the productions of a young man, and that no fault in such a case could be so ominous, as the absence of all faults. There is no sap or vigour in the tree that pushes out no shoots of wild luxuriance.

One specimen more.

"*To the herb Rosemary.*

"Sweet scented flow'r! who'rt wont to bloom
On January's front severe,
And o'er the wint'ry desart drear
To waft thy waste perfume!
Come, thou shalt form my nosegay now,
And I will bind thee round my brow,

Digitized by Google

And as I twine the mournful wreath,
I'll weave a melancholy song,
And sweet the strain shall be, and long,
The melody of death.

" Come fun'ral flow'r! who lov'st to dwell
With the pale corse in lonely tomb,
And throw across the desert gloom
A sweet decaying smell.
Come press my lips, and lie with me
Beneath the lowly Alder tree,
And we will sleep a pleasant sleep,
And not a care shall dare intrude
To break the marble solitude,
So peaceful, and so deep.

" And hark! the wind-god as he flies
Moans hollow in the forest trees,
And sailing on the gusty breeze
Mysterious music dies.
Sweet flow'r that requiem wild is mine,
It warns me to the lonely shrine,
The cold turf altar of the dead;
My grave shall be in yon lone spot,
Where as I lie by all forgot,
A dying fragrance thou wilt o'er my ashes shed."

This is a most interesting poem. We know no production of so young a poet that can be compared to it, and when we say this, we remember Cowley and Pope and Chatterton.

The frequent allusions to ill health throughout this volume, give us a melancholy presentiment which we sincerely hope may be groundless.

ART. VIII. *Select Poems; by the Author of Indian Antiquities.* 8vo. pp. 120.

HAPPY is the poet whose learning, or whose genius, enables him in an age when smoothness of numbers and correctness of versification, even when combined with justness of sentiment and elegance of expression, can confer little distinction on one of the thousand votaries of the muses, to strike out a new path, and seize the envied prize of novelty and originality. This happiness is Mr. Maurice's in a considerable degree. The *Crisis*, a poem, addressed to Mr. Pitt, on the threatened French invasion in 1798, escapes the stigma of triteness even on the hacknied subjects of English freedom and heroism, and French ambition and atrocity, by the vigour of its diction, the vividness of its painting, and the glow of its colouring. The complimentary address to Mr. Pitt with which it opens, is most happily wound up in a noble simile.

" For others let the fragrant incense burn,
Wafted from adulation's flaming urn;
Unaw'd by menaces, unwarp'd by praise,
Proud sterling virtue seeks no borrow'd bays;
While Genius, tow'ring on its throne of light,
Shines, in its own transcendent lustre, bright;
The flame it feels through kindred bosoms spreads,
And wide the intellectual radiance sheds,
As yon bright orb that lights the distant pole,
And warms the glitt'ring spheres that round it roll,
Exhaustless, flames with undiminish'd beam,
Nor misses from its fount th' immortal stream."

The apostrophe to the Egyptians, and exhortation to them to avenge the unprovoked attack of the French, is a passage of great animation and picturesque beauty. But the poem to the memory of Sir William Jones, as the most *characteristic* of the volume, is the one which demands our most particular attention. The bard transports himself to the tomb of " departed Genius," on the distant shores of India, and after smiting " the choral shell," in a solemn and appropriate symphony, " the Genius of the East" appears to him in a flood of glory.

" Not that dire spectre, who, in later days,
In Asia's courts rears high her pagod shrine,
Who spurns the martial plume, and loves to blaze
In waste of diamonds from Golconda's mine,

Oh! not that bloated monster, stain'd with blood,
Who on pale harams vents her murd'rous rage;
To screaming infants tends th' impoison'd food,
And to the bow-string dooms enfeebled age:

But she, of elder birth, whose righteous sway
Asia's undaunted sons exulting own'd,
When liberty diffus'd her halcyon day,
And virtue rul'd the helm, with Cyrus thron'd."

This majestic female, after pouring forth a tribute of well-deserved applause to the memory of the deceased, proceeds to trace the progress of science from its first dawn on the mountains of Taurus throughout the east, and at length to the western empire of Rome; branding, as she proceeds, all the mighty desolators of the earth who, in their turns, quenched in blood the sacred fire of learning and involved the world in darkness; and extolling their milder descendants under whose influence peaceful arts again flourished, and the intellectual flame was rekindled.

Digitized by Google

The whole skill of the poet has evi-
ntly been exerted to give discriminat-
g strokes to the successive ravagers,
m the first Mahometan conqueror of
dia, to the subverters of the Mogul
pire, who thus pass in review; and as
as sameness on similar subjects can
voided, he has avoided it: the diffi-
ty of his task, it should be remem-
ed, is greatly increased by the slight
quaintance of the general reader with
subjects of his song, which renders it
essary to narrate events in plain terms,
mention characters by name, which
ght otherwise have been glanced at
an allusion, or recalled to memory
a hint. Of his success, we can only
ve the evidence of two specimens.

Frantic with bigot rage, with blood defil'd,
A gorgeous crescent gleaming on his crest,
hat furious demon, from Arabia's wild,
Hurls desolation through the ravag'd East?

A sabre drench'd with infant gore he waves,
His eyes in opium's wildest frenzy roll;
d, while of sacred rites the maniac raves,
Lust and revenge pollute his guilty soul.

O'er Persia wide his myriad host he pours,
Burning for spoil, for human blood athirst;
Restless, India, on thy fertile shores,
Tossing their flaming brands, his legions burst.

On Bactria's hills are quench'd the sacred fires,
The Mithriac priests are on their altars slain;
The proud Sassanian dynasty expires,
And Asia bends to OTHMAN's baleful reign.

Through all her bounds the outcries of despair,
The shrieks of violated beauty, rise;
While, blasted by his crescent's dreadful glare,
The bloom of science and of genius dies."

* * *

Hark! on Carmania's hills the trumpets sound,
And the fierce Afghan tribes to arms invite;
The thund'ring war-steed spurns the trembling ground,
And neighs impatient for the promis'd fight.

To conquest by resistless NADIR led,
From Candahar they rush impetuous down:
High on the tyrant's burnish'd crest display'd
Gleam the rich spoils of Persia's plunder'd crown.

Gainst vet'ran warriors, nerv'd with triple steel,
Thy millions, Hindostan, in vain advance;
No more thy rajahs burn with patriot zeal,
No more, enervate, wield the pond'rous lance.

"Invincible the iron phalanx moves,
Dreadful as wasting storms or raging fire:
Delhi, again, a victor's vengeance proves,
Again her butcher'd sons in heaps expire.

"Tho' all Golconda flames before their eyes,
Not all Golconda can appease their rage:
Unmov'd they hear the screaming infants' cries,
Unaw'd, the curses of expiring age."

The striking beauty of the two last lines we need scarcely point out. A recurrence to the lamented subject of the elegy, and a procession of the inferior genii of India concludes the piece.—"Westminster Abbey," is a less happy effort of our author. The remarks on the vanity of every thing human, which make a large part of it, though clothed in poetical language, are trite in the extreme, and too much dwelt upon; for after all, "These little things are great to little man." In characterizing the distinguished persons, whose monuments he contemplates, he is not very accurate or intelligible. We are quite at a loss to know which of our Edwards is intended to be celebrated in the following passage:

"O'er *sainted Edward's* shrine, Devotion, mourn;
Once deck'd with treasures brought from ev'ry clime,
And crowns from brows of vanquish'd monarchs torn."

The last line seems to apply to Edward III.; but by what action of his blood-stained conquering reign he has acquired a title to the meek honours of saintship, we confess ourselves totally ignorant.

The very offensive, though common fault, of placing persons of small renown on a level with characters of the highest fame, is prominent in this stanza:

"Where hath not glory wafted Vernon's name?
Where Wager, Warren, are your deeds unsung?
Where Churchill, Townshend, eldest sons of fame,
And Wolfe, the theme of ev'ry Briton's tongue?"

If the reader pauses a moment at the name of one of the pretended "eldest sons of fame," to ask, "Who was he?" the whole effect of such a passage is lost.

The "Hymn to Mithra" serves to display the author's oriental learning, and powers of lofty versification; it pos-

Digitized by Google

sesses much grandeur of imagery, and poetic description, but from the recondite nature of the subject, it is little fitted to interest any reader, and from the deficiency of notes, will probably be unintelligible to many. We must beg to suggest, with submission to Mr. M's deep knowledge on the subject, an incongruity in enumerating the planets by their *Grecian* names of Jupiter, Mars, &c. whilst the sun and moon are designated by their *Persian* appellations of Mithra and Astarte. We cannot but enter our protest against the presumption of our author, in admitting one of his schoolboy exercises, though sanctioned by the applause of Dr. Johnson, among "*Juvenile Poems*," published at a mature age. The other pieces of this volume, which are trifles, and not very pleasing ones, we shall pass over in silence.

On the whole we may observe, that the poetic talents of Mr. M. are more adapted to delight the fancy, than to touch the heart; on which account he will do well to employ himself on the splendid and novel topics afforded by Asiatic literature, rather than on domestic subjects of deeper interest, which require pathos, simplicity, nature—the heart as well as the head of a poet.

ART. IX. *Poems, by* S. T. COLERIDGE. Third Edition. 12mo. pp. 202.

THE character of Mr. Coleridge, as a poet, is so well known, and his merit so fully acknowledged, that nothing more can be expected of us on announcing the third edition of his poems, than a few remarks suggested by comparison with the last. The diminished bulk of the volume, caused by the omission of the works of Messrs. Lloyd and Lamb, instantly excited our warmest approbation, particularly as we were inclined to consider it as an evidence of the ripened taste and improved discernment of our author. In his own productions we remarked a few highly judicious alterations, with some others which we could not equally approve—on the whole we must suggest, that he has still to learn "the art to blot." He omits scarce any thing, and so far from sinking, his juvenile productions appear to rise in his esteem; several of these, which in the last edition were thrown into a supplement, with a kind of confession of their inferiority, now boldly thrust themselves into the body of the volume, without apology and without abbreviation.

The pieces now first offered to the public are few and short, but such as afford examples of the best and worst manner of this striking and peculiar writer. Novel and picturesque personification, sometimes almost expanding into allegory, forms perhaps the most prominent and most beautiful feature of the highly figurative style of Mr. Coleridge, but never did he display this characteristic with more exquisite grace than in the following lines:

"Ah, fair delights! that o'er my soul
On Mem'ry's wing, like shadows, fly!
Ah, flowers! which Joy from Eden stole
While Innocence stood smiling by!"
Absence, a Farewell Ode.

The political sentiment of the following sonnet is now obsolete, but the animated simile by which it is ushered in is worthy of a longer date.

"As when far off the warbled strains are heard
That soar on Morning's wing the vales among,
Within his cage th' imprison'd matin bird
Swells the full chorus with a generous song:
He bathes no pinion in the dewy light,
No father's joy, no lover's bliss he shares,
Yet still the rising radiance cheers his sight—
His fellows' freedom soothes the captive's cares:
Thou, Fayette! who didst wake with startling voice
Life's better sun from that long wintry night,
Thus in thy country's triumphs shalt rejoice
And mock with raptures high the dungeon might:
For lo! the morning struggles into day,
And slavery's spectres shriek and vanish from the ray!"

Some other political sonnets, which are far from possessing equal poetical merit, and are disgraced by much coarse vehemence of thought and expression, surely ought not now to have been brought forward for the first time.

In the complaint of Ninathoma, and another metrical imitation of Ossian, we cannot discern the slightest trace of Mr. Coleridge's hand, though we clearly recognise that of a correct and cultivated poet; these proofs of versatility of talent are pleasing, and show that it is perfect at the option of this favoured genius to dance along the fairy paths of elegance or soar into the loftiest regions of sublimity.

Digitized by Google

ART. X. *The Defence of Order; a Poem.* By JOSIAH WALKER, *A. M.* 8vo. pp. 176.

MR. Walker is unhappy in the choice f his subject: more knowledge and more ower of thought than he possesses are equisite to render didactic poetry tole-ble. Where he digresses into narra-e he is far more successful. The fol-wing passage is well executed for its yle of composition.

Alas! how fair the dawn to thousands rose,
ho ne'er again their eyes in sleep should close!
re midnight's watch, with foul explosion driven,
mangled atoms, round the burning heaven!

In fancied safety, lies the Gallic host,
oored on the margin of the shelvy coast;
t see, amazed, the British line appear,
oot round their flank, and dare their faithless rear;
ith dreadful flexure, to a crescent bend;
wn half their length its clasping horns extend;
closer, closer yet, the fierce embrace,
th fiery pressure, melts them from the place.

hus, eastern monarchs, round the savage lair,
ere couching pards, and lamp-eyed tigers glare,
p a circle of nocturnal fire,
higher yet the curve contracts, and nigher;
struck with dread, the hollow-growling game
closed apace the moving wall of flame;
pe in vain, with anguished eye, explore,
shake the forest with a dying roar.

t who shall paint the last convulsive throes,
ips with ships, in grappling fury, close;
n and Frank, in mad disorder, joined,
meeting bolt, and mast with mast entwined!
assy deep reflects the fiery air,
distant Pharos reddens in the glare;
looks on, with blank astonished eyes,
re withdrawn, her fortune Europe tries;
, bursting vast, a dread volcanic crash,
oating night's black vault, a sulphurous flash,
Like Time's last groan, each pulseless heart appal,
And stilly darkness drops her veil o'er all.
At that dread signal, Gallia's naval knell,
Loose from her grasp unravished India fell:
And those, sent forth to spoil the jewelled queen,
A *hope forlorn* on Egypt's plains were seen.

"And now, the arena's awful gate unbarred,
A passage broken through the slaughtered guard,
Nelson retires, to seek severer toil,
And shake the Baltic, as he shook the Nile;
While Scotia's chief the flower of Albion leads,
To crown the conflict with their noblest deeds.
How sternly calm, portentously serene,
Their glorious entrance on the vacant scene!
In steady lines, the glittering boats convey
A freight of heroes through the watery way.
To Nile's broad mouth their sweepy course they bend,
Whose jaws, beset with fangs of fire, distend.
On Nature's wall, the beetling cliff of sand,
A living parapet, the warriors stand;
And, bellowing ceaseless from the embattled steep,
The surfy strand their red artillery sweep.
Yet, full in front, their course the rowers urge,
To shouts and songs responsive, beat the surge;
And, should a bolt, which skilful glances guide,
Crush some ill-fated consort by their side,
Not fear, but rage, the thickening stroke impels,
And louder still, the doubling chorus swells.
The crooked keels at once indent the sand;
With ringing arms, the soldier leaps to land;
And, on the beach, which arrowy thunders tear,
And sheety lightnings scorch with livid glare,
Selects his place, as in parading shew,
When British beauty shone—his only foe.
Fast as the warriors drop, their comrades still
Leap to the spot, the gory gaps to fill;
Arrayed in speed, they move with growing pace,
Till quickening, kindling, glows the rapid race;
And up the cliff, with more than mortal might,
They pant, they press, and seize the hostile height;
—Hostile no more, for every foe is fled,
In rout and tumult, o'er the valley spread."

ART. XI. *The Inquiry.* Part I. 12mo. pp. 44.

HIS well-meant poem is decent but It requires no common talents to r metaphysical argument tolerable rse; with what success this author attempted it a brief extract will suf-to show.

"Strange world of good, replete with ev'ry evil,
Pain, death, want, woe, damnation, and the devil;
So spoke Voltaire—and with too just a hand
His sportive tale of human mis'ry plann'd,

Digitized by Google

Which brings all earthly woe before our eyes,
And, strange! to make us laugh, not make us wise:
This world's great purpose, thou delusive droll,
Was not to turn our brains, but try our soul.
For evils physical must be confess'd
Of moral good the fountain and the test.
And grant the world were all thy colours make it,
E'en as they represent it, let us take it—
Thy pen profane its unmeant aid hath given
To scripture, immortality, and heaven.
For who the birth of evil can declare,
Save inspiration? what, save heav'n, repair!"

There is neither reason nor poetry in these lines. Half this pamphlet is filled with notes, which discover as little judgment as the text.

ART. XII. *Epigrams: in Two Books.* *By* W. BARNES RHODES. 12mo. pp. 84.

A VERY indifferent collection. The following are examples of the best:

"The glow which Cloe's cheeks possess
Is something more than Nature's dress;
Yet such her happy knack,
Although she paints, there's none can boast
Of knowing which she uses most,
Carmine or coniac."

"Of every hope and wish possest,
You'd think that Ned was truly blest:
No: Ned, of wealth and friends bereft,
Has nought but hopes and wishes left."

ART. XIII. *Norbury Park, a Poem; with several others: written on various Occasions.* *By* JAMES WOODHOUSE. 12mo. pp. 132.

THE author of this little volume presumes to recall the public attention to his name, only by his modest motto—*Sutor ultra crepidam.*

James Woodhouse is the Woodstock shoemaker, who many years ago excited the attention of the public, the successor in notoriety to Stephen Duck, but with far superior talents, and the predecessor of Mrs. Yearsley and the Bloomfields. He is now advanced in age, and when we express a hope that this volume may obtain a successful sale, we add with truth and with pleasure that its merits deserve success.

The following passage will evince that this poet has looked at nature with no inattentive eye.

"Lovelier far than vernal flow'rs,
Thy mushrooms shooting after show'rs;
That fear no more the fatal scythe,
But proudly spread their bonnets blythe,
With coverings form'd of silk and snow,
And lin'd with brightening pink below.
Like banners, bless'd, they speak of peace,
And tell me trouble soon shall cease;
Still auguring, glad, with aspect bland,
Love's rapturing vintage just at hand;
But more the later fungus race,
Begot by Phebus' warm embrace,
In summer months, or procreant earth,
By damp September brought to birth;
That, just like Jove, produce their seed,
From teeming brain, for future breed:
Their forms and hues some solace yield,
In wood, or wild, or humid field;
Whose tapering stems, robust, or light,
Like columns catch the searching sight,
To claim remark where e'er I roam;
Supporting each a shapely dome;
Like fair umbrellas, furl'd or spread,
Display their many-colour'd head;
Grey, purple, yellow, white, or brown,
Shap'd like War's shield, or Prelate's crown—
Like Freedom's cap, or Friar's cowl,
Or China's bright inverted bowl—
And while their broadening disks unfold
Gay silvery gills, or nets of gold,
Beneath their shady, curtain'd core,
Perform all offices of love.
In beauty, chief, the eye to chain,
'Mong whispering pines, on arid plain,
A glittering group, assembled, stands,
Like Elfs or Fays embattled bands—
Where every arm appears to wield,
With pigmy strength, a giant shield;
And deeply dyed in sanguine gore,
With brazen bosses studded o'er;
While magic Fancy's ear confounds
The whistling winds with hostile sounds."

Thus also these lines addressed to Shenstone upon his Rural Elegance.

"What! cannot He who form'd the [illegible]
of light,
And shining orbs that ornament the [illegible]
Who hangs his silken curtains round the [illegible]
And trims their skirts with fringe of [illegible]
In sheets of radiance spreads the solar [illegible]
With soften'd lustre, o'er the tranquil [illegible]
Or, o'er the glittering surface, softly [illegible]
The whispering winds with gently [illegible]
wings,
While every kindled curl's resplendent [illegible]
Quick dart and drown in bright succe[illegible]
blaze!—
Who dipp'd in countless greens the [illegible]
and bow'rs,
And touch'd, with every tint the [illegible]
flow'rs!—
With beauty clothes each beast that [illegible]
the plain,
And bird's rich plume with ever-varied [illegible]

Digitized by Google

Each fair-scal'd fish in watery regions known,
And insect's robe that mocks the colour'd stone!
Doth he not form the peasant's visual sphere,
To catch each charm that crown, the chequer'd year?
Construct his ear to seize each passing sound,
From wind, or wave, or wing, or whistle round?
From breathing breeze, or tempest's awful roar,
Soft lisping rills, or ocean's thundering shore?
Unnumber'd notes that fill the echoing field,
Or mingled minstrelsy the woodlands yield?
The melting strains, and melodies of song,
That float, impassion'd, from the human tongue—
Or, fondly feels each sound, that sweetly slips,
Thro' ear to heart, from favourite lovers' lips.
Can trace the nicer harmony, that springs
From puny gnats' shrill-sounding treble wings;
Light fly's sharp counter; bees' strong tenor tone;
Huge hornet's bass, and beetle's drowsy drone,
Grasshopper's open shake, quick twittering all the day,
Or cricket's broken chirp, that chimes the night away."

The poem entitled Norbury Park abounds with passages of similar merit. We should in particular notice the description of the Yew Trees.

ART. XIV. *The Voyage Home from the Cape of Good Hope; with other Poems relating to the Cape, and Notes. By* H. W. TYTLER, *M. D.* 4to. pp. 75.

"OUR captain, to whose care was giv'n
Three hundred souls, on ocean driv'n,
Prov'd faithless and unjust;
And, after him, let none rely
On promise, or on Fame's loud cry,
Or in appearance trust.

"Indignant muses! sing the fate
Of him, so poor unfortunate,
And impious suicide;
Who, from the poop, at noon of day,
When all were turn'd a diff'rent way,
Plung'd headlong in the tide.

"Nor voice he rais'd, nor arms he spread;
The billows rose above his head,
And sunk him in the main.
Yet ladders to his aid were thrown;
And gen'rous hearts, by ropes, went down,
But all, alas! prov'd vain."

From the preceding specimen the reader will be able to form an adequate opinion on the merits of the poem before us. If its composition has, in any degree, relieved the author from the irksome uniformity of a long voyage, and if his friends have been gratified by its publication, the proposed object has, we presume, been answered.

ART. XV. *Poems on various Subjects. By Mrs.* GRANT, *of Laggan.* 8vo. pp. 447.

THESE poems are submitted to the public under circumstances which excite interest and bespeak indulgence.

They are the productions of native genius, brought forth amid rocks and wilds, and at intervals snatched from the laborious duties of domestic life. But we shall allow the lady to introduce her own offspring with the simple grace by which she is distinguished.

"Go, artless records of a life obscure,
Memorials dear of loves and friendships past,
Blameless minds, from strife and envy pure;
Go, scatter'd by *affliction's* bitter blast,
And tell the proud, the busy, and the gay,
How rural peace consumes the quiet day.

"Go dear companions, in life's thorny way,
Who see your modest virtues here display'd,
Forgive, for well you know the unstudied lay
Was only meant to soothe the lonely shade.
But, when the rude thorn wounds the songster's breast,
And lengthen'd strains of woe betray her secret nest." *Introductory verses.*

The longest and most finished piece in the volume, entitled "The Highlanders, or Sketches of Highland Scenery and Manners, with some Reflections on Emigration," contains much novel and picturesque description, with many fine strains of pathos and moral reflection; the versification is modelled on that of Goldsmith, and in the passages relative to emigration, there is some similarity, which perhaps could scarcely be avoided, to the sentiments of the Deserted Village. In the family worship of the peasant, and the reception of Farquhar at Glen Doe, there is a slight imitation of the "Cottar's Saturday Night;" but, in general, Mrs. Grant is very far from deserving the appellation of a plagiarist. The far greater part of her scenery is snatched from the sublime and savage landscapes before her eyes; whilst by much the larger portion of her sentiment is drawn from the pure and copious spring within her bosom. The removal to the mountain *shealings*, or "*summer flitting*" affords an apt example.

Digitized by Google

"When dappled grey first streaks the eastern sky,
With quick dispatch the cottage-matrons vie,
Who first shall load the steed that leads the way;
And wheels and vessels in due order lay.

Then in collected numbers, duly rang'd,
With lighten'd hearts, to care and fear estrang'd,
The train proceed:—and first the motley herd,
For greater strength, or agile force preferr'd,
Lead on;—the milky mother following near,
Their sportive young behold with matron fear:
Then come the bleating kind with plaintive cry,
And children overjoy'd, they know not why;
And mothers, smiling on the guiltless race,
Or clasping infants in their fond embrace.

"High on the mountain's side, or in the wood,
Where nature reigns in savage solitude;
Or deep embosom'd in some narrow glen,
Where coy retirement shuns the haunts of men,
The shelter'd bothys rise to shield the train,
Who joy to view their summer haunts again;
For here again the sylvan age returns,
Nor man the curse of ceaseless labour mourns:
Fair Freedom walks abroad, unties her zone,
And joys to see the landscape all her own.

"Thrown careless on the slope—see vacant *Ease*
Bask in the sun, or court the cooling breeze;
And musing *Fancy*, by some brook reclin'd,
In language clothe the murmurs of the wind;
Or frame to vocal reeds the native lay,
Or form of mountain-flowers the chaplet gay.
See *Sport*, with *Exercise* and *Health* combin'd,
In happy union, fleeter than the wind,
Thro' pathless wastes the sprightly game pursue,
'Oft out of reach, but never out of view:'
While eager *Hope* impetuous grasps the prize,
And *Ardour* lightens in the hunter's eyes.
At length, exulting o'er the trembling spoil,
They see the dun deer fall to crown their toil.

"And when calm evening bathes the flow'rs in dew,
And bids the thrush his mellow note renew,
With answering music maidens pour the lay,
And drain the listening kine at close of day:
Delighted echoes spread the cheerful strains,
And rapt attention holds the silent swains:
But holds not long—for every thicket round
Young voices mix'd in cheerful chorus sound.
Each lone recess the wand'ring tribes explore,
And now return exulting with their store
Of *berries*, that in rich luxuriance spread,
O'er the dark heath their crimson lustre shed;
Or trailing o'er the rocky fragment's side,
The glossy foliage spreads its verdant pride;
While raspberries richly flavour'd, climb on high,
And bask in all the radiance of the sky;
Or *brambles*, on the brook's wild margin spread,
With jetty lustre deck their pebbly bed:
Where with coy wing the *ptarmigan* retires,
And high beyond the rolling mist aspires,
In safest solitude and purest air,
To rear her young with fond maternal care:
And *mountain hares*, white as the drifted snow,
Ascend, while fear and danger pant below;
Or, where the *eagle* darts his vigorous flight
From cliffs sublime, to trace the realms of light."

The escape of the Chevalier; the heroism of Flora Macdonald; the cruelty of the English troops, after the battle of Culloden; the universal dejection and depopulating emigrations of the highlanders, consequent on the Disarming Act, are subjects which, in a poem like the present, could not be passed over in silence; and in the hands of Mrs. Grant, they are far from being destitute of interest. Whatever may be thought of our author as a philosopher or politician; whatever fault may be found with her want of method, and occasional prolixity, few, we imagine, will peruse the Highlanders, without admiration of the patriotic spirit which inspires it, and the gleams of genuine poetry by which it is enlivened.

The smaller pieces are principally in the familiar style, and were intended only for the amusement of the particular friends of the writer; thus it has happened that they have somewhat too much of locality to be thoroughly relished by the public at large; yet they are easy, and by no means destitute of humour and fancy. The best of them have considerable tenderness and pathos.

"A Familiar Epistle to a Friend," notwithstanding some negligence and incorrectness, is a remarkably pleasing poem, and inspires us with the utmost respect and affection for the author. It proves (what indeed it is highly illiberal, however common, to deny) the possibility of a female poet's turning aside from her darling pursuit at the summons of duty, and stooping to fulfil the humble offices of the nurse and the housewife—the wife and the mother—and again returning to these pursuits after the busiest years of life are past, for the entertainment of her friends and the benefit of her family.

There are two poems translated from the Gaelic. They possess considerable beauty, but partake of the prolixity and obscurity so disgusting in the poems of Ossian: the prose dissertation prefixed is sensible and elegant. Mrs. Grant's

pears to give the truest and most candid account of the celebrated version of Macpherson that has yet been published.

We have already said, that the poems of Mrs. Grant are entitled to indulgence; but we should be deficient in our duty to the public, and indeed to the author, did we neglect to point out some faults which call for correction. We do not stop to particularize the bad rhymes, but they are numerous. That poorest of all expletives *so* frequently occurs, as—"so deep, so sweet," &c. "The clan's proud standard waves main."

"When probity and wisdom *both* combine
With *all* the poignant humour of a Burns,"

and several similar lines are flat and redundant in the extreme. Industry, support, sonorous, *aerial*, &c. should never make their appearance on this side the Tweed; nor such prosody as

"Dear Beatrice with pleasure I read your kind letter,"
"More difficult to clear than his rev'rence's text."

Several sentences are inaccurately constructed, and most of the pieces might be compressed with advantage. Mrs. Grant evidently possesses those great requisites for poetic excellence, a lively fancy and a feeling heart, and we shall be rejoiced to announce a second edition of her poems with *omissions* and corrections.

ART. XVI. *Armine and Elvira: a legendary Tale. The Ninth Edition. With other Poems. By* EDMUND CARTWRIGHT, *M. A.* 12mo. pp. 132.

THE elegant tale of Armine and Elvira, first given to the world in 1771, has acquired for its author a degree of poetical fame, which naturally led us to expect great pleasure from the perusal of the volume before us. Time, we flattered ourselves, must have ripened, from blossoms so fragrant and beautiful, mellow and delicious fruit.

In this pleasing anticipation we have been somewhat deceived. The tender plant of poesy, it is probable, has received but little culture from Mr. Cartwright during the last thirty years: thus the vernal bloom of fancy has been suffered to fade in neglect, and has only been succeeded by an autumnal blow totally transient and less lovely.

Our author must not, however, be confounded with the herd of common versifiers: though deficient in strength and boldness—never brilliant, and rarely original—he is always moral, generally pleasant, often ingenious, and sometimes poetic. There is a striking resemblance between the style and genius of Mr. Cartwright and of his friend Dr. Langhorne; but the former is less chargeable than the latter with obscurity and affectation.

"Youth and Age," an ode from the Swedish, may certainly "be considered as a literary curiosity" as well as an agreeable and elegant piece; though, but for the advertisement, we should never have conjectured it to be of foreign birth.

None of the new pieces are of great length, nor does their author claim for them any higher title than that of "Trifles." The following is a *trifle*, but surely a very tender and pleasing one.

"Not once the sun has deign'd to shine
My Susan, thro' this day so drear,
'Tis yet, save that which made thee mine
To me the brightest of the year.

"This day first saw those eyes so blue,
Their fascinating beams display—
Blest day! to come with rapture new,
Yet never steal a charm away!"

ART. XVII. *Nugæ Poeticæ. By* F. SAYERS, *M. D.* 8vo. pp. 37.

Of a thin pamphlet, with a title so extending, a short account will suffice. The largest and most finished piece, entitled, "Theseus and Ariadne, from an Epithalamium by Catullus," is an elegantly versified poem, more concise, yet more ornamented than the original, of which it is rather an abstract than a version. In some passages we could wish for more of the *costume* of the Latin bard to have been preserved, and that it had been less completely transformed into a modern English production. Translation, it should be recollected, may be instructive, whilst imitation can only be entertaining. For instance—a literal version of the lines,

"*Non humilis curvis purgatur vinea rastris.*
Non glebam prono convellit vomere taurus.
Non falx attenuat frondatorum arboris umbram,"

would have given the English reader

some new ideas, some insight into the peculiarities of foreign and ancient husbandry; whereas the expressions,

"The fields deserted give to sweetest peace
The tired steer; *the rattling harrows cease*:
The plowshare rusts unheeded, and *the oak*
No longer trembles to the woodman's stroke,"

present him only with domestic images long familiar to his imagination. Again, there is a picturesque distinctness in

"*Candida permulcens liquidis vestigia lymphis,*
Purpureave tuum consternens veste cubile,"

which recalls the simplicity of patriarchal manners, but which is totally lost in

——"every office had been dear
That served thy wants to ease, thy life to cheer."

It is singular that the modern should have fallen short of the delicacy of the ancient poet in making Ariadne "breathe her fervent prayer," for the safety of Theseus, forgetful of the "*tacito labello*," of his master.

"*Tulia qui reddis pro dulci præmia vita*,"

is affectedly rendered

"That thus repays
The gift of life, *the boon of gilded days*."

And in several instances the copy falls short of the energy of the original.

"Jack the Giant Killer," possesses considerable merit as a good natured parody on Homer, and a sly satire on his modern imitators.

Of the smaller pieces it may be remarked that their diction, though frequently elegant, is considerably infected with those quaint and unauthorized novelties, by which too many writers of the present day endeavour to elevate trite and prosaic ideas into a semblance of high poetry. The following elegiac stanzas, improperly styled a *Sonnet*, will be a sufficient specimen.

"*To a Snow-drop.*

"Fair flower! but yesterday thy milk-white vest
A pearly dew-drop on earth's bosom lay;
At noon thy green stem rear'd its silken crest,
To meet the radiance of the transient ray.

"The night came on—amid the storm-cloud's lower
The hail fell thick—the biting frost-winds rose,
To-day I mark thy silvery front no more—
Deep art thou buried in the drifted snows.

"Like innocence by chilling woe oppress,
But for a while thou'rt bent by winter's tread;
Again with Heaven's all-cheering sun-shine blest,
Thou'lt rear to brighter hours thy spotless head."

ART. XVIII. *A short Account of John Marriot, including Extracts from some of his Letters, to which are added some of his Poetical Productions.* 12mo. pp. 194.

A Short account indeed; out of a hundred and ninety-four pages it employs *nine!* however there is enough of it.

Mr. Marriot was one of the people called Quakers, and this little volume of posthumous poems appears to be edited by a member of that respectable society. Mr. Marriot was of a mild and amiable disposition, received a religious education, and profited by it, as appears from his resignation under the severe afflictio of a disappointment in his affectio Many of these poetical pieces were wr ten when he was very young; they we not intended for the public eye, and h Mr. Marriot been alive, many of th probably, would not have been exp to it. They have the general merit mediocrity.

ART. XIX. *Poems; consisting of Elegies, Sonnets, Songs, &c. and Phantoms; an Irishman in England; a Farce in two Acts. By* T. JONES. 12mo. pp. 136.

MR. Jones has been tried in the Court of Criticism, and found guilty of violating the laws of poetry, by writing and publishing nonsense verses: the judgment of the law is—but as this is the soner's first offence, the Court, in mercy, remits the sentence.

ART. XX. *Il Fiore della Poesia Italiana, &c. The Flowers of the Italian Poetry of 18th Century, preceded by some historical Notices of the Poets. The whole selected compiled by* G. B. CASSANO, *Professor of Languages and of Italian Literature.*

THESE little volumes contain a judicious selection of beautiful poems: higher praise cannot be bestowed upon a pilation of such trifling extent; yet

Digitized by Google

as it is, it will be useful to the lovers of Italian literature in this country, where foreign books are not easily to be procured, even at a price three and four-fold of their original cost.

The prefatory notices are brief but useful. The editor must surely be mistaken, when he asserts that Pope was accustomed to say there were only two persons in the world who understood Greek, Calvini, in Florence, and he himself in London. Pope was too feeble a Grecian for this vaunt. The Rector of L. does not extend his supremacy beyond the limits of England, not even after dinner, when he confines the knowledge of Greek to one man.

ART. XXI. *Scenes of Infancy; descriptive of Tiviotdale. By* JOHN LEYDEN. 12mo. pp. 184.

WE have seen many poems of the present day which greatly resemble this, and yet we scarcely know how to characterize it. The verse is smooth, the diction elegant, the matter varied, a picturesque country is described, many fanciful superstitions are touched on, many historical facts narrated, which are interesting even in plain prose; yet altogether the performance is not impressive. Except a slight degree of affectation, we are unable to point out any positive fault in the style; but in the plan of the piece there is a great and obvious one—it wants regularity, compactness, and union of parts to a whole. Perhaps we should be full correct in saying the piece has no plan.

Still, if this were all, detached parts, however, might please, or indeed the whole, when considered as a miscellany, like Cowper's Task, which surely arrests attention full as forcibly as any regular epic in our language. But, if we must say it, one trifling circumstance still remains to be objected—Mr. Leyden *is not a poet*, and when this is the case, a man is as little likely to succeed in a scene as in a drama—in an epigram as in a satire—in a couplet as in a volume.

Though it may rather militate against our assertion, we quote Mr. Leyden's best passage, in which the genuine feelings of his heart seem to have been his inspirers. Speaking of himself is apt to render the plainest man eloquent. Mr. L. it is to be observed, is about to embark for the East Indies.

"Not yet, with fond but self-accusing pain,
Mine eyes, reverted, wander o'er the main;
But, sad, as he that dies in early spring,
When flowers begin to blow, and larks to sing,
When nature's joy a moment warms his heart,
And makes it doubly hard with life to part.
I hear the whispers of the dancing gale,
And, fearful, listen for the flapping sail,
Seek, in these natal shades, a short relief,
And steal a pleasure from maturing grief."

ART. XXII. *Poems on several Occasions. By* CHARLES CRAWFORD, *Esq.* 2 vols. 12mo. pp. 350.

IN these volumes there is a great deal of sound morality and orthodox religion, and about as much poetry as in a copy of the Bellman's verses. But these sweeping censures are unpardonable: let the reader, then, judge for yourself.

"The sickness spread o'er Delia's face of late,
Had quite'n'd her brilliant charms t' obliterate;
Quench'd was the lustre of that beauteous eye,
Which apathy might warm to extacy.
Each fear'd, who knew the highly valued maid,
That medicine would try in vain its aid."

The maid recovered, however: physic's sore, long time she bore, but at last got well.

Among other pious breathings, we have a poetical paraphrase, as it is called by a violent misnomer, of our Saviour's sermon on the mount: *exempli gratia:*

"Ye know full well, by those of ancient time,
Adultery was held a heinous crime;
But I to you laws dictate more severe,
And say—unto a woman *whosoe're*
The wishful eye a love of lust shall dart,
Is a complete adulterer in heart."

Reader, hast thou enough? If not, repair to Mr. Becket, of Pall Mall, and buy the book.

Digitized by Google

ART. XXIII. *Petrarca: a Collection of Sonnets from various Authors; with an Introductory Dissertation on the Origin and Structure of the Sonnet.* By GEORGE HENDERSON. 12mo. pp. 192.

THERE is no artifice employed by the book manufacturers of this age of commercial speculation, which calls more loudly for critical reprehension than the immoderate use of compilation and selection. By this nefarious practice the original author is defrauded of the hard-earned recompence of genius —the public is tricked into repeated purchases of the same thing under different titles—and the literary profession is degraded into a system of scarcely-legal robbery.

The gleaner of the present collection introduces it by the following admirably-constructed sentence: "It certainly may not be deemed the least presumptuous undertaking in any one who shall attempt to point out to public regard the beauties of others." In his case, however, his humility considers it as singularly fortunate, that the possibility of his mistaking in judgment "has been almost prevented by the earlier decision of one who in like matters seldom errs,—the public." That is, the volumes from which he pilfers are in every body's hands. Could any ill-natured critic have demonstrated more clearly the inutility of his book? Mr. Southey it seems was hard-hearted enough not to comply with the collector's desire of "enriching" his "book" (or himself) with a few of his admired sonnets. Probably that gentleman conceived that the consent of the public ought to be obtained as well as his own: an idea which seems to have escaped several others who are mentioned as consenting to the reprinting of their productions. The "dissertation" is penned in a style beneath criticism, but extremely pompous and evidently laboured. As to the sonnets themselves, a few of them are good, good at least for sonnets, which at best are but stiff difficult trifles, and surely more remote from the simplicity which they often affect than any other class of poems in our language. But the majority of them are little better than ravings of "moon-struck melancholy," aped by hysterical affectation, or drivelling incoherencies, lisped by sentiment in her dotage, than which nothing can be conceived more hostile to genuine poetry, manly sense, and that sensibility which strengthens while it elevates the soul—which checks selfishness, adorns virtue, gives a zest to domestic privacy, and increases the sum of human happiness.

ART. XXIV. *Calista, a Picture of modern Life; a Poem, in three Parts.* By LUKE BOOKER, *LL. D.* 4to. pp. 28.

PREMISING that divine poeta is to be literally rendered poetic divine, we address Dr. Booker in the words of Virgil—

"*Tale tuum nobis carmen, divine Poeta,*
"*Quale* sopor."

ART. XXV. *The Suicide, with other Poems, by the Rev.* C. W. ETHELSTON, *M.A.* 8vo. pp. 150.

WE cannot praise this book. It is unnecessary to notice faults, where there are no merits. The sin of omission deadly.

ART. XXVI. *Scenes of Youth, or rural Recollections; with other Poems.* By WILLIAM HOLLOWAY. 8vo. pp. 160.

THE publication of a second volume indicates that Mr. Holloway has found purchasers for the first. His verses are very respectable. We extract this little poem, not as the best, but as the shortest.

"*Expostulation to a Bird started in a favourite Walk.*

"Sweet native of this brake entangled dell,
Where, the last spring, I mark'd amid the boughs
Thy pensile cradle wave, and heard the
Of thy soft mother's kind attentive
Who took his stand upon the hedge
green,
To watch the school-boy's wild and
d'ring steps:
O startle not! no stranger to this scene,
With cruel heart, or hand felonious
Here, where the moss climbs up the
bank,
On whose soft bosom basking violets
And modest primroses, or cowslips

Digitized by Google

Diffuse their sweets, unseen by vulgar eye,
Oft let me hear thee—while, like thee, I seek
This lone retirement of our earliest days;
And let us join our rural notes, to speak
The God of universal nature's praise;
For 'tis his guardian hand us both sustains,
His common bounty we in common share:
For us he cloth'd the woods and deck'd the plains,
Adorn'd the meads, and scented all the air.
He gave *thy* dulcet throat the pow'rs of song,
He breath'd the tuneful rapture through *my* breast,
He cast our lot those rustic shades among,
Where meek simplicity has fix'd her rest.
Why then should I against thy life conspire,
Or seek thy thraldom, while I range secure?
O, mild associate of the heaven-taught quire!
Dismiss thy fears—my presence yet endure.
'But thou art MAN!' methinks such strains I hear,
'Well then may we suspect the plausive lay,
Nor trust that those *our* feeble *race* should spare,
Whose faithless arts too oft their *own* betray!"

ART. XXVII. *The Pleader's Guide, a didactic Poem, in two Parts, &c. By the late J. J. S. Esq. Special Pleader and Barrister at Law.* (A new edition.) 12mo. pp. 212.

THOUGH the wit of this singular production is almost exclusively technical, a very superficial acquaintance with the profession will enable the reader to enjoy its pleasantry.

"The poem is divided into two parts, and the whole subdivided into eighteen lectures, containing the substance of a course of instruction in the practice of the courts, and the science of special pleading, originally intended by the author for the use of his kinsman, Job Surrebutter, to whom it is particularly addressed. The author, in the outset of his plan, professes to demonstrate to his kinsman the decided superiority of the common law over the civil, with respect to some *peculiar* advantages, heretofore, perhaps, not fully considered; and from thence proceeds to instruct him in the history of a suit at common law, commencing with the original writ, and conducting him regularly through the whole of the subsequent process, in all its splendid varieties and modifications; and finishing the whole course of his lectures with the parties' first appearance in court, upon the return of the process to outlawry.

"The subsequent lectures, which compose the second part, resume the subject at the point where it rested, preserving the epic and didactic character of the work, through the remaining stages of the pleadings and the trial."

* * * * * * * * *

Of legal fictions, quirks, and glosses,
Attorney's gains, and client's losses,
Suits created, lost, and won,
Prone to undo, and be undone,
Whether by common law, or civil,
Which goes sooner to the devil,
Things which few mortals can disclose
In prose, or comprehend in prose,
Aid—Do thou, bright Phœbus, deign
To shine for once in Chancery-lane;
And, Clio, if your pipe you'll lend
Assist Mercury the lawyer's friend,
Usher of the golden rod,
Patron and eloquence the god,
Lead my step, with guidance sure,
Through the palpable obscure,
And take my parchments, for his labour,
To cover your harmonious tabour."

After this exordium the poet or lecturer calls upon all members of the law to listen to him and laugh. This appeal rather unpleasantly disturbs that tone of irony which runs through the work, and which should not in any instance have been laid aside. He then addresses his kinsman, for whose benefit these instructions are chiefly designed.

"But, chiefly thou, dear Job, my friend,
My kinsman, to my verse attend;
By education form'd to shine
Conspicuous in the pleading line,
For you, from five years old to twenty,
Were cramm'd with Latin words in plenty;
Were bound apprentice to the muses,
And forc'd with hard words, blows, and bruises,
To labour on poetic ground,
Dactyls and Spondees to confound,
And when become in fiction wise,
In Pagan histories and lies,
Were sent to dive at Granta's cells,
For truth in dialectic wells,
There duly bound for four years more
To ply the philosophic oar,
Points metaphysical to moot,
Chop logic, wrangle, and dispute:
And now, by far the most ambitious
Of all the sons of Bergersdicius,
Present the law with all the knowledge
You gather'd both at school and college,
Still bent on adding to your store
The graces of a pleader's lore;
And, better to improve your taste,
Are by your parents' fondness plac'd
Among the blest, the chosen few,
(Blest, if their happiness they knew,)
Who for three hundred guineas paid
To some great master of the trade,
Have, at his rooms, by *special* favour,
His leave to use their best endeavour
By drawing pleas, from nine till four,
To earn him twice three hundred more,
And, after dinner, may repair,
To *foresaid* rooms, and *then* and *there*

Have '*foresaid* leave, from five to ten,
To draw th' *aforesaid* pleas again."

The second and third lectures treat of the king and his prerogative, and of the great superiority of the common to the civil law. Having past through this preliminary matter, the poet makes this humorous invocation.

" And first bright Cynthius I'll *supœn*'
From hallow'd fount of Hippocrene,
And *summons* from th' Aonian grove,
The daughters of Olympian Jove;
But if those sweet harmonious maids
Disdain to quit their vocal shades,
Nor Cynthius will his fount forsake,
To gloomy Dis my pray'r I'll make,
And seek the Acherontic Lake.
Down to the hall of Erebus I'll go,
And *move* some Dæmon in the *courts below*."

We have now the history of a suit at common law, till it arrives at the party's appearance upon the *Capias Utlagatum*. Mr. Surrebutter then digresses to relate the memoirs of his own professional career: how, by the patronage of Buzzard, Hawk and Crow, Tom Thornback, Shark and Co. attornies all, and by courting the friendship of attornies, such as Joe Ferret, he has risen to his present enviable practice. The first part is then concluded by an address to the two great characters of the legal mythology of England.

" Then let us pray for writ of *Pone,
John Doe and Richard Roe his crony,
Good men, and true, who never fail,
The needy and distress'd to bail,
Direct unseen the dire dispute,
And pledge their names in ev'ry suit—
Sure 'tis not all a vain delusion,
Romance, and fable Rosicrusian,
That spirits do exist *without*,
Haunt us, and watch our *whereabout*;
Witness ye visionary pair,
Ye floating forms that, light as air,
Dwell in some special pleader's brain;
Am I deceiv'd? or are ye twain
The restless and perturbed sprites,
The manes of departed knights,
Erst of the post? whose fraud and lies,
False pleas, false oaths, and *Alibis*,
Raised ye in life above your peers,
And launch'd ye tow'rds the starry spheres,
Then to those mansions 'unanneal'd,'
Where unrepented sins are seal'd:
Say, wherefore, in your days of flesh
Cut off, while yet your sins were fresh,
Ye visit thus the realms of day,
Shaking with fear our frames of clay;
Still doom'd in penal ink to linger,
And hover round a pleader's finger,
Or on a writ impal'd, and wedg'd,
For plaintiff's prosecution pledg'd,
Aid and abet the purpos'd ill,
And works of enmity fulfil,
Still doom'd to hitch in declaration,
And drive your ancient occupation?
While thus to you I raise my voice,
Methinks I see the ghosts rejoice
Of lawyers erst in fiction bold,
Levinz and Lutwyche, pleaders old;
With writs and entries round him spread,
See plodding Saunders rears his head.
Lo! Ventris wakes! before mine eyes
Brown, Lilly, and Bohun arise!
Each in his parchment shroud appears,
Some with their quills behind their ears,
Flourish their velvet caps on high;
Some wave their grizzel wigs, and cry
Hail happy pair! the glory and the boast,
The strength and bulwark of the legal host,
Like Saul and Jonathan, in friendship tried,
Pleasant ye lived, and undivided died!
While pillories shall yawn, where erst ye
stood,
And brav'd the torrent of o'erwhelming mud,
While gaming peers, and †dames of noble race,
Shall strive to merit that exalted place;
While righteous scriv'ners, who when Sun
day shines,
Pore o'er their bills, and turn their nought
to nines,
(Their unpaid bills, which long have learn'd
to grow
Faster than poplars on the banks of Po,)
Freely shall lend their charitable aid,
To young professors of the gambling trade;
While writs shall last, and usury shall thrive,
Your name, your honour, and your pra
shall live:
Jailers shall smile, and with bumbailiffs
Their iron voices to record your praise,
Whom law united, nor the grave can se
'All hail John Doe, and Richard Roe
ever!"

The second part opens in an excell
strain of poetry.

" Then once more, O ye pleaders, and
more
I come your pleas and pleadings to cu
Ye plodding clerks, with fingers never
And thro' the confines of your cloisters

* " Pone.—The Pone is the writ of attachment before mentioned, it is so called from words of the writ, *Pone per vadium, salvos plegios*," " Put by gage and safe pl A. B." John Doe and Richard Roe.

† " Dames.—The author in this passage seems to have contemplated the probabl certain characters of both sexes in the fashionable world, exhibiting their persons in th lory for keeping public gaming tables. It is written in the true spirit of prophecy, and a late declaration of a learned and noble judge, (no less distinguished for his impartia independent spirit, than for his great zeal and earnestness for justice) the editor very sin hopes Mr. S.'s prophecy will be shortly fulfilled."

Digitized by Google

Following the process 'bove the Aonian steep,
I have presum'd with inky thumbs to sweep
The *golden lyre; nor yet the more have †ceas'd
To greet ‡St. Michael the archangel's feast,
Nor still sometimes upon §St. Martin's morn
¶Thro' Inner and thro' Middle Temple borne
While yet detained in that obscure resort)
Cease I to roam thro' ‖Elm or Garden Court,
Fig-tree, or Fountain Side, or learned shade
Of King's-Bench Walks, by pleadings vocal made—
Thrice hallow'd shades! where slip-shod benchers muse,
Attorneys haunt, and special pleaders cruise!"

The case of John-a-Gull and John-a-Gudgeon is then narrated through all its proceedings till the trial, when the counsel agree

"To draw
A special case, and save the point in law,
That so the battle, *neither lost nor won,*
Continued, ended, and again begun,
Might still survive, and other suits succeed,
For future heroes of the gown to lead,
And future bards in loftier verse to PLEAD."

And thus ends this very original and very humorous poem.

ART. XXVIII. *Glasgow: a Poem,* by JOHN MAYNE, 12mo. pp. 51.

AN outline of these verses was published in the Glasgow Magazine for December, 1788. Dr. Geddes praised it in his Epistle to the Society of Antiquaries of Scotland in 1792, and now in 1803, the author has revised, extended, and republished it.

The poem contains sixty of what may be called Scotch stanzas: of their merit a brief specimen may suffice:

Hail Industry! thou richest gem
That shines in virtue's diadem!
While Indolence, wi' tatter'd hem,
Around her knee,
Its, chitt'ring, like the wither'd stem
O' some boss tree!

To thee we owe the flocks o' sheep,
That glad Benlomond's cloud-capt steep;
The pregnant mines that yield yon heap
O' massy coals;
And a' the tenants o' the deep,
Caught here in shoals!

"And a' the villas round, that gleam
Like spangles i' the sunny beam;
The bonny haughs that laughing seem,
Wi' plenty growing;
And a' the bleach-fields on ilk stream
Thro' Clydesdale flowing!

"Hence, Commerce spreads her sails to a'
The Indies and America:
Whatever makes a penny twa,
By wind or tide,
Is wafted to the Broomielaw,
On bonny Clyde!

"Yet, should the best exertions fail,
And fickle fortune turn the scale;
Shou'd a' be lost in some hard gale,
Or wreckt on shore,
The merchants' house makes a' things hale,
As heretofore.

"Wi' broken banes should labour pine,
Or indigence grow sick and dwine,
Th' Infirmary, wi' care divine,
Unfolds its treasure,
And turns their wormwood cup to wine—
Their pain to pleasure!"

* "Golden Lyre.—Sir John Fortescue observes, 'that the university of the laws, (for so he calls the Inns of Court and Chancery) did not only study the laws to serve the courts of justice, but did further learn to dance and to sing, and to play on instruments on the festival days.' *Dugd. Orig. Juridic.* c. 55. *Fortescue de Laud. Leg. Ang.*. c. 49. Mr. S. seems to have acted up to the spirit of the original institution. See the Memoirs of his professional career, part I. sect. 7."

† "——— yet not the more
Cease I to wander where the muses haunt,
Clear spring or shady grove, &c. Milton."

‡ "St. Michael the archangel.—The law terms respectively derive their names from the festivals of the church, immediately preceding their commencement. Michaelmas Term originally commenced in eight days after the feast of St. Michael inclusive, *Octabus St. Michaelis*: but by the joint operation of two acts of parliament, and the alteration of style, has in effect been procrastinated, so as not to commence before the 6th of November."

§ "Saint Martin.—*Crastino St. Martini,* 'the morrow of St. Martin,' the 12th day of November; formerly the fourth, now the second return day of Michaelmas term."

‖ "'Thro' inner and thro' middle darkness borne. Milton."

¶ "Elm, or Garden Court.—'The Inns of Court were placed out of the city and noise of it, in the suburbs of London *Seorsim parumper in civitatis suburbio.*' Fortesc. The several courts in the Temple, have been erected at different periods, upon the scite of the gardens and pleasure-grounds, belonging to the *Hostel* or *domus mansionalis* of the Temple, granted originally upon lease to Sir Julius Cæsar and others."

Digitized by Google

Enough notes are added to eke out the little volume to fifty pages: they are designed to illustrate the local allusions.

The re-appearance, after twenty years, of such a single solitary trifle as this, is somewhat curious; and when we observe that its resurrection was made at Gloucester, it reminds us of the poor American fly, who was sent across the Atlantic in a bottle of Madeira, and revived by the sun-beams just to flutter and die in another country.

ART. XXIX. *Syr Reginalde; or, the Black Tower: a Romance of the Twelfth Century. With Tales, and other Poems. By* E. W. BRAYLEY and W. HERBERT. 12mo. pp. 170.

IN this worthless volume there is one extraordinary extract from Jackson's State of the Defunct, which, for its oddity, deserves to be re-extracted.

"An acquaintance of mine, an Oxford scholar, hath, to my certain knowledge and belief, cured many disorders, and laid the ghosts of many disturbed people, when no other person could do them. In a village where I lived, I do know that there was a great house, a mansion-house, haunted by a spirit that turned itself into a thousand shapes and forms, but generally came in the shape of a boiled scrag of mutton, and had baffled and defied the learned men of both universities; but this being told to my friend, who was a descendant and relation of the learned Friar Bacon, he undertook to lay it, and that even without his books; and it was done in this manner: he ordered some water to be put into a clean skillet, that was new, and had never been on the fire. When the water boiled, he himself pulled off his hat and shoes, and then took seven turnips, which he pared with a small pen-knife that had been rubbed and whetted on a loadstone, and put them into the water. When they were boiled, he ordered some butter to be melted in a new glazed earthen pipkin, and then mashed the turnips in it. Just as this was finished, I myself saw the ghost, in the form of a boiled scrag of mutton, peep in at the window, which I gave him notice of, and he stuck his fork into him, and soused both him and the turnips into a pewter dish, and eat both up. And the house was ever after quiet and still. Now this I should not have believed, or thought true, but I stood by and saw the whole ceremony performed!!!"

This story has been indifferently versified. Having extracted the prose narrative, we have cut the jewel out of the head of the toad.

ART. XXX. *Rhapsodies by* W. H. IRELAND, *Author of the Shaksperian MSS.* 8vo. pp. 200.

"AS on thy title page, poor little book!
Full oft I cast a sad and pensive look,
I shake my head, and pity thee;
For I, alas! no brazen front possess,
Nor do I ev'ry potent art profess,
To send thee forth from censure free."

We must own that this title page leads us to a very different conclusion, and convinces us that the writer does possess a brazen front. "Rhapsodies by W. H. Ireland, *author of the Shaksperian MSS.*" We should willingly have suffered Mr. W. H. Ireland to pass by, even though he had not had the decency to hide himself under some *alias*, but when he chuses to remind us of a fraud, that evinced as total a want of all feeling of excellence, all reverence for genius, as it did of all common honesty, we cannot but observe that the face which forms the frontispiece to the volume would have appeared with more propriety in the pillory.

These rhapsodies are like all Mr. Ireland's former verses, a mixture of old phraseology and modern barbarism. A short specimen will suffice.

"Ah, willow, willow! droop with me,
Still bend thy verdant head,
For I have lost my own true love,
Ah! wherefore is she fled?
Sad willow tree,
She's gone from me,
So, willow, I will weep with thee.

"The silver stream which bathes thy root
Is emblem of my heart,
It gently murmurs as it glides;
I moan love's cruel smart.
So willow weep,
When cold I sleep,
And shade me in the grave full deep.

"For round thee still the breeze shall mourn
Thou still wilt droop thine head,
And, weeping, shade the friendly turf
That shrouds me when I'm dead.
So, willow tree,
I'll sit by thee,
Thou soother of my misery."

The ballads are the best pieces, if best be an allowable epithet to pieces of which none are good.

Digitized by Google

ART. XXXI. *Society; a Poem, in Two Parts, with other Poems. By* JAMES KENNEY. 8vo. pp. 172.

FROM this volume we will quote what appear to us the best specimens of the author's performances, serious and comic.

" Pass to the weary and deserted couch
Of grey infirmity; the wreck of health,
And strength, in nature's stealing progress borne
To piteous helplessness; ungrateful youth
Its cheerful smiles denying him, his mind
Dwells undiverted on the view of death
Approaching with deliberate pace, as loth
To seize a prey so fair, so long resisting.
Bear with his childishness, and let him taste
A social hour; thine ear awhile allow
To his garrulity, his fav'rite tales
Of earlier times, when he was young and gay.
'Twill make him happy, stir his sluggish blood
To brisker circulation, and perhaps
Defer the hour when it must flow no more.
This is the only pleasure age can know;
Nor surely less the pleasure to bestow it.
Of late my worldly callings drew me oft
Where such a man dozed out his eve of life.
A man of bustle he had been, and chose
Life's busiest cares: his active spirits yet
Scarce ninety pilfering years had plundered out;
And thus his heavy fate more heavy seem'd.
His energies decaying, he resigned
His interests to the kindred next his heart,
And sought repose. Sole on his interests bent,
His kindred soon forgot their source. Neglect
Repaid their benefactor, or when nigh,
Contempt was smirking in each face, and sneers
For errors of his fast-decaying sense
And wasted memory. The old man felt
His mortifying lot, and drooped apace.
Yet when the zephyr breath'd, and the bright sun
Shone gaily forth, he hobbled to his door
And cheery gazed upon the world: and oft
He stopt (for such acquaintance had he made)
Passer by, to ask how fared his health
And what the news. In ruder times he sat
Enjoyous in an old arm-chair. When I appear'd,
He rose ('twas all he could) and shook my hand.
He gladden'd at my sight, for well he knew
I scorned him not, but had a willing ear
To his discourse. He told me his complaints;
Him that was comfort—told me how his friends
Were more delighted in his sight; and thence,
A natural step, reverted to his days
Of youth and happiness: then tidings ask'd
Of how the world went now. Unsparing I
Freely the wished intelligence supplied,
'Till smiles would play upon his wrinkled cheeks,
And all his cares, and all his woes seem'd nought.
And when the hour of separation came,
He griev'd it was so soon; in warmest phrase
Talk'd of what thanks he was in debt to me,
That I had done him so much charity;
Then with his palsied hand again shook mine,
And bad me soon return."

The following lines are part of a poem occasioned by a satire upon short people.

" Complexions unseemly, or limb that offends;
Bandy legs and high shoulders, carbuncles, and wens,
Shall soon feel the force of my song.
Your scare-crows and dowdies I'll cursedly maul,
All under-sized people, or people too tall,
And people as broad as they are long.

" All ye that have locks to disfigure the pate,
Like carrots in hue, and as stubbornly straight,
Such locks ye shall certainly rue.
And henceforth shall none with impunity wear
A nose of the bottle kind, nose that's too spare,
Or nose you might make into two.

" On an uncomely leg, or a mere stump of wood
Assuming the place where a leg has once stood,
Depend on't my wit sha'nt be stinting.
No face with more mouth than should come to its share,
Or short of an eye any longer I'll bear,
And let me catch any man squinting!

" Next ailings of every description I'll scout:
Colds, agues, and fevers, the gripes and the gout,
Shall get a satirical trimming.
And dotage shall feel too the gall of my pen;
For no good excuse can be for old men,
And surely still less for old women."

There is some merit in these passages, but Mr. Kenney is often feeble and often incorrect.

ART. XXXII. *Poems from the Portuguese of Luis de Camoens; with Remarks on his Writings, Notes, &c. By Lord Viscount* STRANGFORD. 8vo. pp. 160.

THIS little volume exhibits a very singular instance of literary imposition. We use the word in no dishonourable sense, and wish that one less equivocal could have been found to express our meaning. The trick which Lord Strang-

Digitized by Google

ford has practised is perfectly the reverse of that of which we have convicted Mr. Peter Bayley, junior. Instead of pilfering the reputation of another, Lord Strangford has been increasing it: he has imputed his own merits to Camoens.

"The late ingenious translator of the Lusiad has pourtrayed the character, and narrated the misfortunes of our poet, in a manner more honourable to his feelings as a man, than to his accuracy in point of biographical detail. It is with diffidence that the present writer essays to correct his errors; but as the real circumstances of the life of Camoens are mostly to be found in his own minor compositions, with which Mr. Mickle was unacquainted, he trusts that certain information will atone for his presumption."

It does not, however, appear that any inaccuracies have been detected in Mickle's account. Enough has been added to elucidate, in some degree, the character of the poet, and still more that of his present biographer.

"The family of Camoens was illustrious, and originally Spanish. They were long settled at Cadmon, a castle in Galicia, from which they probably derived their patronymic appellation. However, there are some who maintain that their name alluded to a certain wonderful bird,† whose mischievous sagacity discovered and punished the smallest deviation from conjugal fidelity. A lady of the house of Cadmon, whose conduct had been rather indiscreet, demanded to be tried by this extraordinary judge. Her innocence was proved, and in gratitude to the being who had restored him to matrimonial felicity, the contented husband adopted his name."

Of Vasco Pires de Camoens, Alcayde of Alamquer, the ancestor of the poet, some anecdotes might have been found in history, little to his honour. He is accused of having accepted a commission to assassinate the master of Ovis, afterwards Joam I. at Atouguia, and it is certain, that after he had capitulated with that prince upon honourable terms, he engaged in a conspiracy against his life, in resentment, because certain favours had been refused to his solicitations.

Lord Strangford having stated that the poet was born at Lisbon, observes that the place of his nativity is ascertained by his frequent application of the epithet *paternal* to the Tagus. There is no reason to doubt the fact, because it is certain that his parents were Lisboners; but no such inference can be deduced from his calling the Tagus *paternal*. The epithet would have been equally applicable had he been born at Santarem, Salvaterra, Abrantes, or any village upon the course of the river.

"During the period which he passed at the university, he was an utter stranger to that passion, with which he afterwards became so intimately acquainted. It is recorded, that while the manly graces of his person inspired many of the better sex with admiration, he treated his fair captives with disdain, or at most, as the mere objects of temporary transport.

"But the scene was soon to be changed, and on his arrival at Lisbon, he was destined to feel the full vengeance of that god whose power he had contemned. Love is very nearly allied to devotion, and it was in the exercise of the latter that Camoens was introduced to the knowledge of the former. In the church of 'Christ's Wounds,' at Lisbon, on the 11th of April, 1542, he first beheld Dona Caterina de Ataide, the object of his purest and earliest attachment. The churches of Spain and Portugal, says Scarron, are the very cradles of intrigue; and it was not long before Camoens enjoyed an opportunity of declaring his affection, with all the romantic ardour of eighteen, and of a poet.

"But, in those days, love was a state of no trifling probation, and ladies then unconscionably expected a period of almost chivalrous servitude, which, happily for gentlemen, is no longer required. The punctilious severity of his mistress formed the subject of the poet's most tender complaints; for, though her heart had secretly decided in his favour, still Portuguese delicacy suppressed all avowal of her passion. After many months of adoration, when he humbly besought a ringlet of her hair, she was so far softened by his entreaties, as to make a compromise with roguery, and bestow one of the silken tresses which encircled her head! These anecdotes must not be despised, for they mark the temper of the times.

"The peculiar situation of Dona Caterina

"† The *Camaõ*. Our poet himself gives a somewhat different account of the matter. (*Quintil. a huma dama*, v. 190.) Formerly, every well regulated family in Spain retained one of these terrible attendants. The infidelity of its mistress was the only circumstance which could deprive it of life. Should her guilt have been extended to any degree beyond a wish, the faithful bird immediately betrayed it, by expiring at the feet of its injured lord. It soon was difficult to find a Camaõ that had lived in the same family during three generations; and at length the species became entirely extinct!

"This odious distrust of female honour is ever characteristic of a barbarous age. The *Camaõ* of Spain, and the *Mámlo* of Africa, are expedients indicative of equal refinement."

Digitized by Google

(that of one of the queen's ladies) imposed an *uniform* restrainst on her lover, which soon became intolerable. Like another Ovid, he violated the sanctity of the royal precincts, *and was in* consequence banished from the court. With the precise nature of his offence we are unacquainted, but it too probably arose from a breach of discretion, the first and noblest amongst the laws of gallantry. Whatsoever it might have been, it furnished a happy pretext to the lady's relations, for terminating an intercourse which worldly considerations rendered, on her part, of the highest imprudence. But Love prepared consolation for his votary, where least he expected it. On the morning of his departure, his mistress relented from her wonted severity, and confessed the secret of her long-concealed affection. The sighs of grief were soon lost in those of mutual delight, and the hour of parting was, perhaps, the sweetest of *our poet's* existence. Thus comforted, he removed to Santarem (the scene of his banishment) but speedily returned to Lisbon, again *tasted of* transport, was a second time detected, and a second time driven into exile. To such a spirit as Camoens, the inactivity of this situation must have proved insupportable; the voice of Love whispered a secret reproach, and inspired him with the glorious resolution of conquering the obstacles which fortune had placed between him and felicity. He accordingly sought and obtained permission to accompany King John III. in an expedition then concerted against the moors in *Africa*. Here, whilst bravely fighting under the command of a near relation, he was deprived of his right eye, by some splinters *from* the deck of the vessel in which he was stationed. Many of his most pathetic compositions were written during this campaign, and the toils of a martial life were sweetened by the recollection of her for whom they were endured.

"His heroic conduct in many engagements, at length purchased his recal to court. He hastened home, fraught with the most tender anticipations, and found—what must have been his feelings?—that his mistress was no more!

"There can scarcely be conceived a more interesting theme for the visions of romance, than the death of this young and amiable being. The circumstances of her fate are peculiarly favourable to the exercise of conjecture. She loved, she was beloved, yet unfortunate in her attachment, she was torn from the world at the early age of twenty; and we cannot but adorn her grave with some of the wildest flowers which fancy produces."

To this event the poet often alludes. One sonnet upon the subject is thus paraphrased in the present volume.

When from my heart the hand of Fortune tore
Those smiling hopes that cheer'd mine earlier day,
Would that she too had kindly borne away
The sweetly sad remembrances of yore!
I should not then, as now, in tears deplore
My buried bliss, and comfort's fast decay;
—For Love (on whom my vain dependance lay)
Still ling'ring on delights that live no more,
Kills all my peace—whene'er the tyrant sees
My spirit taste a little hour of ease!
Fell star of fate! thou never canst employ
A torment teeming with severer smart,
Than that which Memory pours upon the heart,
While clinging round the sepulchre of joy!"

The character of Lord Strangford's translations, when any originals actually exist, we shall elucidate hereafter. In this place we will insert another sonnet, omitted by the noble writer, in which nothing has been added to the ideas, though something has certainly been lost in the expression, as must inevitably be the case where the beauty of the original consists in the sweet and simple expression of a sweet and simple feeling.

Meek spirit, who so early didst depart,
Thou art at rest in heaven! I linger here
And feed the lonely anguish of my heart,
Thinking of all that made existence dear.
All lost! if in the happy world above,
Remembrance of this mortal life endure,
Thou wilt not there forget the perfect love
Which still thou seest in me, O spirit pure!
And if the irremediable grief,
The woe which never hopes on earth relief,
May merit aught of thee, prefer thy prayer
To God, who took thee early to his rest,
That it may please him soon amid the blest
To summon me, dear maid! to meet thee there.

To most imaginations Camoens will never appear so interesting as when he is bewailing his first love. It is in these moments that he is most truly a poet. Shall we be excused for inserting another specimen of his natural manner?

Delightful fields, and thickets gay and green,
Ye woods that shadow o'er the mountain's scene,
Ye rocks grotesque, ye fountains cold and clear,
Who, as ye murmur down the sparkling steep
Your concord with the waving woodlands keep,
And send sweet music to the traveller's ear.
O lovely scenes! unsatisfied my sight
Dwells on your beauties now, your ancient shade,
Clear fountains, gleaming through the opening glade,
Rocks, thickets, fields, and all your green delight.

Digitized by Google

Me, other than I was, ye now behold,
I gaze around, and tears suffuse my eyes;
Ye tell me, lovely scenes, of days of old,
And thoughts of former happiness arise.

But it is the humour of Lord Strangford to represent Camoens as very amorous, and very successful in his amours.

"There are some who assert that Camoens quitted Lisbon in consequence of a discovered intrigue with the beautiful wife of a Portuguese gentleman. Perhaps this story may not be wholly unfounded. It is improbable that he remained long constant to the memory of a departed mistress, when living beauty was ready to supply her place. His was not a heart that could safely defy temptation, although the barbarous ingenuity of some commentators would make us believe, that all his amours were purely platonic, and that he was ignorant of the passion in every other respect. Happily for himself, the case was different, and his works record that he more than once indulged in the little wanderings of amatory frolic."

* * * * *

"Gallantry was the leading trait in the disposition of Camoens. His amours were various and successful. Woman was to him as a ministering angel, and for the little joy which he tasted in life, he was indebted to her. The magic of female charms forms his favourite theme, and while he paints the allurements of the sex with the glowing pencil of an enthusiast, he seems transported into that heaven which he describes. Nor did this passion ever desert him; even in his last days, he feelingly regretted the raptures of youth, and lingered with delight on the remembrances of love. A cavalier named Ruy de Camera, having called upon our author to finish a poetical version of the seven penitential psalms, raising his head from his miserable pallet, and pointing to his faithful slave, he exclaimed, 'Alas, when I was a poet, I was young, and happy, and blest with the love of ladies, but now, I am a forlorn deserted wretch:—See—there stands my poor Antonio, vainly supplicating four-pence to purchase a little coals—I have them not to give him!' The cavalier, as Sousa quaintly relates, closed his heart and his purse, and quitted the room. Such were the grandees of Portugal!"

Having, therefore, assigned the character of Camoens, Lord Strangford writes poems in the *purest* manner of Little Moore, and prints them as translations from the Portugueze.

"Thou hast an eye of tender blue,
And thou hast locks of Daphne's hue,
And cheeks that shame the morning's break,
And lips that might for redness make
Roses seem pale beside them;
But whether soft or sweet as they,
Lady! alas, I cannot say,
For I have never tried them.

"Yet, thus created for delight,
Lady! thou art not lovely quite,
For dost thou not this maxim know,
That Prudery is Beauty's foe,
A stain that mars a jewel!
And e'en that woman's angel face,
Loses a portion of its grace,
If woman's heart be cruel!

"Love is a sweet and blooming boy,
Yet glowing with the blush of joy,
And (still in youth's delicious prime)
Tho' ag'd as patriarchal time,
The withering god despises:
Lady! would'st thou for ever be
As fair, and young, and fresh as he—
Do all that Love advises!"

Some of the comment of Faria, says his Lordship, has been introduced into the translation of this poem, and certain very necessary liberties taken with the original. The original poem to which he refers—

Naõ sei quem assella
Vossa formosura,
Que quem he taõ dura
Naõ pode ser bella, &c.

lies open before us, and the necessary liberty which has been taken is to write a new one, differing totally in every part and point. We have not the edition of Faria y Sousa to look for his comment, nor, poet as old Manuel was, are we disposed to believe that the present ingenious writer has been more indebted to the note than to the text.

The original referred to for the following Madrigal consists of only three lines, being the *mote* or text which Camoens was to amplify.

"The simple youth who trusts the fair,
Or on their plighted truth relies,
Might learn how vain such follies were,
By looking in his lady's eyes,
And catch a hint, if timely wise,
From those dumb children, cradled there!
'Poor fool! thy wayward feats forbear,'
(Those mute advisers seem to say)
'And hence with sighs, and tears, and care
'For thou but fling'st thy heart away,
'To make a toy—for babies' play."

He who trusts in eyes, says the original, may see in their babies that babies have no faith.

Quem se confia em hũus olhos,
Nas meninas delles ve,
Que meninas naõ tem fe.

Lord Strangford might have succeeded in his stratagem, if he had not affixed the line of Portugueze to each of his poems; we should then in vain have

Digitized by Google

sought for the originals, though no doubt whatever would have existed in our own minds. In fact, he who is any ways conversant with Portugueze literature, could not for a moment believe that any poems of this character, we may almost add, of this merit, exist in the language. We will not say that Camoens has never written so well, for what beauties he has are of a higher class, of a purer and better feeling: but he has never written so fancifully, and where any hint of these Canzonets and Madrigals does exist in his verses, it has always been most materially improved. We will adduce one instance more. What follows is the literal and naked translation of the 34th sonnet.

When the clouded sun is showing to the world a calm and doubtful light, I go along a delightful meadow thinking of my fair enemy. Here I see her conceiting her tresses, there with her face so fair upon her hand, here chearfully talking, there thoughtful, now standing still, now walking; here she is seated, there she sees me, raising up those eyes, so careless! here somewhat moved, there severe; here she is sorrowful, there she sighs, and in fine in these weary thoughts this vain life perpetually passes away.

When such a poem as this is referred to as the original of the coming canzonet, will not the reader wonder why Lord Strangford, like a true adept, should wish to conceal his power of transmuting base metals into gold?

When day has smil'd a soft farewell,
And night-drops bathe each shutting bell,
And shadows sail along the green,
And birds are still, and winds serene,
I wander silently.

And while my lone step prints the dew,
Fair are the dreams that bless my view,
For Memory's eye the maid appears,
To whom have sprung my sweetest tears,
So oft, so tenderly:

I see her, as with graceful care
She binds her braids of sunny hair;
And hear her harp's melodious thrill
Strike to my heart—and thence be still
Re-echo'd faithfully:

I meet her mild and quiet eye,
Think the warm spirit of her sigh,
The young Love beating in her breast,
And wish to mine it's pulses prest,
God knows how fervently!

Such are my hours of dear delight,
All morn but makes me long for night,
And think how swift the minutes flew,
When last amongst the dropping dew,
I wander'd silently."

As it is an allowable stratagem in war to hoist false colours, we have no objection to see good verses of Irish manufacture smuggled in under the Portugueze flag, but when his Lordship censures the very conduct which he has himself adopted, without acknowledging what he has done, he carries the deception too far.

"The translator begs to observe, that for the most part, he has closely copied his author, but that where circumstances demanded, he has not hesitated to be

"True to his sense—but truer to his fame."

"Literal versions are justly deemed absurd; yet, on the other hand, too great an extension of the Horatian precept, '*Nec verbum verbo*,' has been the bane of many. It has proved to the world of translation, what the phrase 'liberality of sentiment' has been to that of morals—the worst of errors have originated from both."

Twenty sonnets have been selected from three hundred and one of the original; for each of these a prototype exists, but the resemblance is never striking, partly because Lord Strangford cannot submit to the trammels of translation, partly because he has adopted the Italian structure of the sonnet, in opposition as it appears to his own better judgment.

"Amongst other reasons why the legitimate Italian sonnet be not suitable to the genius of the English language, the following is not the least forcible. In those languages which are more immediately formed on the Latin, there is a frequent similarity of termination, which greatly facilitates the use of rhyme. Accordingly, the Italian, Spanish, and Portugueze languages (which originate from that source) have adopted the licence of polysyllable rhyme, and with it the sonnet. The former was a liberty which they could scarcely have avoided, but which has never been sanctioned by the '*Musæ severiores*' of England. To us, therefore, the mechanical arrangement of a sonnet becomes a matter of peculiar difficulty."

The point is fairly stated here, but Lord Strangford has neglected to draw the legitimate inference. This has been well done by Mr. Coleridge. "A sameness," he says, "in the final sound of its words is the great and grievous defect of the Italian language. That rule, therefore, which the Italians have established, of exactly *four* different sounds in the sonnet, seems to have arisen from their wish to have *as many*; not from any dread of finding *more*. But surely it is ridiculous to make the *defect* of a foreign

language a reason for our not availing ourselves of one of the marked excellencies of our own. 'The sonnet,' says Preston, 'will ever be cultivated by those who write on tender pathetic subjects It is peculiarly adapted to the state of a man violently agitated by a real passion, and wanting composure and vigour of mind to methodize his thought. It is fitter to express a momentary burst of passion, &c.' Now, if there be one species of composition more difficult and artificial than another, it is an English sonnet on the Italian model. Adapted to the agitations of a real passion! Express momentary bursts of feeling in it! I should sooner expect to write pathetic axes, or pour forth extempore eggs and altars! But the best confutation of such idle rules is to be found in the sonnets of those who have observed them, in their inverted sentences, their quaint phrases, and incongruous mixture of obsolete and Spenserian words: and when at length the thing is tooled and hammered into fit shape, it is in general racked and tortured prose, rather than any thing resembling poetry." In proof of the justice of this opinion, the reader may be referred to Miss Seward's 'legitimate' sonnet to Mr. Carey, and Mr. Capel Loft's to the young poet of Nottingham, Mr. White, whose productions we have noticed with so much pleasure; and on the other hand, to Bowles and to Charlotte Smith, which last excellent writer must be regarded as the reviver of the sonnet in England.

Lord Strangford has therefore been constrained, by the unnatural metre which he has adopted, to deviate from the sense of the original. That it is possible to render the Italian sonnet, or the Italian ottava rima, into a corresponding metre, without adding to, or detracting from the original, and even without altering or omitting an epithet, and this too in verses which, in the natural flow and life of language vie with those which they represent, we have been convinced, by inspecting such efforts of consummate skill, which the translator of Filangieri has executed. But without this demonstration we should have conceived it impossible, and to effect it requires a combination of talents, which can so rarely occur, that, perhaps, they ought not to be sacrificed to the task of translation. The present translator, however, has deviated from his original, by choice, as well as by necessity. It is evident that he has thought Camoens too low, and has therefore raised him upon stilts. Let the following improvement be compared with a plain and unadorned version of the Portugueze.

"Lives there a wretch, who would profanely dare
On Love bestow a tyrant's barbarous name,
And foe to every soft delight, proclaim
His service, slavery; its wages, care?
For ever may he prove it so, nor e'er
Feel the dear transports of that generous flame;
For him nor maiden smile, nor melting dame
The silent couch of midnight bliss prepare!
For much he wrongs the gentlest, best of pow'rs,
Whose very pangs can charm, and torments please,
Whom long I've known, and in whose angriest hours
Such rapture found, as would I not forego,
No—not forego, for all the dead, cold ease
Which dull indifference could e'er bestow!

* * * * *

Is there who says that love is like the wind
Fickle, ungrateful, full of fraud and lies?
That wretched man hath sure deserved to find
From Love all vengeance and all cruelties!
Gentle, benignant, merciful is Love;
Believe not him who says love is not so!
Let the vile slanderer live by men below
Despised, and hated by the gods above.
If ever Love work'd misery, in me
May man the sum of all his evils see,
Me whom he seems delighted to oppress;
The utmost rigour of his power I prove,
Yet would not change the miseries of love
For all the world beside calls happiness.

Camoens is never so amorous as his translator. There may be as much fire but there is less flame; as much passion but more modesty. The Portugueze is often flat, sometimes puerile, but rarely turgid; and where his subject is happy never writer has poured forth a sweeter flow of natural and recognizable feelings. The two following sonnets, plainly versified, will exemplify his best manner, for his sonnets are beyond comparison his best productions.

Waters of Tejo, gentle stream, that flow
Thro' these fair meads, refreshing as ye go
Herbage and flowers, and flocks, and [illegible] light
Soothing the nymphs and shepherds on your shore,
I know not, gentle river, when my sight
Shall linger on your pleasant waters more.
And now I turn me from you, sad at heart
Hopeless that fate my future lot will bless
That evil fate which bids me now depart,
Converts remembered joy to wretchedness.

Digitized by Google

The thought of you dear waters oft will rise;
And memory oft will see you in her dreams,
When I on other airs shall breathe my sighs,
And drop far off my tears in other streams.

* * *

When I behold you lady! when my eyes
Dwell on the deep enjoyment of your sight,
I give my spirit to that one delight,
And earth appears to me a Paradise.
And when I hear you speak, and see you smile,
Full, satisfied, absorbed, my centered mind
Deems all the world's vain hopes and joys the while
As empty as the unsubstantial wind:
Lady I feel your charms, yet dare not raise
To that high theme, the unequal song of praise.
A power for that to language was not given,
Nor marvel I, when I those beauties view,
Lady, that he whose power created you,
Could form the stars, and yonder glorious heaven.

We may perhaps have trespassed upon the strict purport of a review in intruding these translations; but it was our wish to exemplify the real characteristic of a poet whose merits are, of all others, the most unduly and disproportionately rated. The English Lusiad was certainly the most unfaithful translation in the world, till the present volume appeared. Mr. D'Israeli may chronicle it as one of the curiosities of literature, that two Englishmen, of considerable genius, should have employed themselves at different times in interpolating a Portugueze poet. Passages of ten, twenty, thirty lines are continually inserted by Mickle, and the loose texture of the original is comprest, and thereby strengthened to make room for the improvements: in one place he has introduced above three hundred lines, to the material advantage of the story. The fact is, that Mickle translated the Lusiad as a speculation, thinking that the subject would excite a national interest, and procure him patronage. When he came to examine the poem, he found it uninteresting, tedious, unreadable, and, in fact, worthless to any but a Portugueze, for we shall see that its merits in point of language, which are very frail, are not to be appreciated by a foreigner. That such was his own conviction is evident, by the liberties which he has taken, and we entertain no doubt whatever, that this opinion he expressed to his confidential friends, as may possibly appear by his letters, if any such be in existence. Still the subject was popular, and the poem had obtained some celebrity; *omne ignotum pro magnifico*. Mickle profited by this; he was a man of very considerable genius, and his particular excellence lay in description, of which the Lusiad was barren and bald. He therefore added, altered, and embellished without scruple, and without scruple praised his own interpolations with the freedom of a translator. The English Lusiad is, therefore, a *refaccimiento* in another language rather than a translation. It is still heavy, from the inherent and unconquerable stupidity of the story; and offensive, by its monstrous and gross machinery: but Mickle has mingled so much ardent spirit with the meagre beverage, that it will keep; and the industry with which he has prefaced and elucidated it, cannot be too much praised.

It is not so easy to understand why Lord Strangford should chuse to sail under convoy of Camoens. Poor Mickle was of a calculating nation; and he knew also, that if original merit was powerful enough to attract attention, it infallibly excited envy also: the humbler claim was, therefore, to him the more profitable. But the rank of the present writer would have secured him some notice and some approbation. *Absit invidia dicto*, his talents entitle him to both.

We now return to the preface, which strictly regards Camoens.

"Our author, like many others, has suffered much from the cruel kindness of editors and commentators. After the first publication of his "Rimas," there appeared a number of spurious compositions, which, for some time, were attributed to him. Amongst these was a poem to which notice is due, not on account of its own merit, but from regard to the reputation of Camoens. It is called 'The Creation and Composition of Man,' and is a strange medley of anatomy, metaphysics, and school divinity. In subject, and occasionally in execution, it strikingly resembles the purple Island of Phineas Fletcher; and, like it, is a curious example of tortured ingenuity. One instance shall suffice. Man is typified under the symbol of a tower. The mouth is the gateway, and the teeth are described as two and thirty millers, clothed in white, and placed as guards on either side of the porch. His metaphor is more satirically just, when he represents the tongue as a female, old and experienced, whose office was to regulate and assist the efforts of the thirty-two grinders aforesaid, all young men of indispensable utility and extraordinary powers!

Digitized by Google

" Duros e rijos, trinta e dous moleiros
" De grande força, e util exercico !"

He must possess no little credulity, who would attribute such a work to the author of the Lusiad !"

This poem was attributed to Camoens by the printer, as Britain's Ida was in like manner, and with equal absurdity, ascribed to Spenser. But though the *Creaçam e Composiçam do Homem* was *printed* upon this erroneous supposition, the error was discovered before it was *published*, and acknowledged in the volume which contained it, so that, in fact, the poem has never past as the production of Camoens. The oddity of the allegory alone would be no proof that it was not his work. The two-and-thirty millers may be paralleled by as many porters in one of the most wonderful and delightful poems that ever has been, or ever will be, produced by human genius.

" And round about the porch on every syde
Twice sixteen warders sat, all armed bright
In glistering steel and strongly fortifyde;
Tall yeomen seemed they, and of great might,
And were enraunged ready still for fight."
Faery Queene, b. ii. *c.* 9.

These grinders, indeed, are in keeping; nor would they be disapproved by any new Aristotle who should lay down the rules for allegoric composition, as deduced from good old John Bunyan, the Homer of his class. There are, indeed, two miserable absurdities in this poem:—the castle is built upon two moving pedestals — and is moreover brought to-bed of another castle!

" There is also another poem which bears his name, but is certainly the production of a different hand. The martyrdom of St. Ursula and the eleven thousand virgins forms its subject. But it is not probable that the persevering chastity of these unhappy ladies could ever have found favour in the sight of our amorous bard. It is still less likely that he would have celebrated it in his song."

This is a new and whimsical mode of criticism. Lord Strangford discovers that Camoens was of a very amorous disposition; and, therefore, as chastity was not his favourite virtue, he could not have written this poem in honour of our eleven thousand virgins! This reminds us of Mr. Godwin, who draws a character of John of Gaunt, in contradiction to all the contemporary historians, and then makes his engraver " *very happily*" improve the portrait of John of Gaunt, to make it suit his new historical character! The fact is, that though this poem is one of the many which was stolen by Diogo Bernardes (a poet whom Lord Strangford strangely undervalues), it has been incontrovertibly proved to be the work of Camoens.

" The genius of Camoens was almost universal. Like the great father of English poetry, there is scarcely any species of writing, from the epigram to the epic, which he has not attempted, and, like him, he has succeeded in all. It is not the province of the translator to offer any remarks on the Lusiad. That task has already been ably performed. Of his minor productions, the general characteristic is ease; not the studied carelessness of modern refinement, but the graceful and charming simplicity of a Grecian muse. When he wrote, the Italian model was in fashion, and as Camoens was intimately acquainted with that language, he too frequently sacrificed his better judgment to the vitiated opinion of the public. Hence the extravagant hyperboles and laborious allusions, which he has sometimes, though rarely, employed. But his own taste was formed on purer principles. He had studied and admired the poems of Provence. He had wandered through those vast catacombs of buried genius, and treasure rewarded his search. Even the humble knowledge of Provençal literature, which the present writer possesses, has enabled him to discover many passages which the Portuguese poet has rendered his own. But we must be careful not to defraud Camoens of the merit of originality. To that character he has, perhaps, a juster claim than any of the modern, Dante alone excepted. The same remark which Landino applies to that poet may be referred to him. He was the first who wrote with elegance in his native tongue. The language of Rome, and even of Greece had been refined by antecedent authors, before the appearance of Virgil or of Homer; but Camoens was at once the polisher, and in some degree the creator of his own. His deplorable must have been its state, when he naturalized two thousand new words, on the bare authority of a single man! Monsieur Ménage was wont to pique himself on having introduced into French the term "*naiveté*;" yet all his influence could never make it current, nor indeed did it long survive its illustrious fabricator."

Lord Strangford quotes French authority for the last assertion—bad authority in any point of literature, and particularly of Portuguese literature—witness Voltaire's criticism upon the Lusiad! an instance of shameless impudence so characteristic of the individual and the nation, that it never should

Digitized by Google

be forgotten. Two thousand words would make a large proportion of the poet's vocabulary. That Camoens did much in improving the language is certain. To nouns, which before were used only in the plural, he gave a singular: he changed the termination of proper names for the sake of euphony: he lengthened some words; abbreviated others; revived some which had become obsolete; and made many from the Latin. Sometimes, says Antonio das Neves, he abused this liberty, and coined words almost macaronic. But, in general, his innovations were so analogous to the nature of the language, that occasioning no difficulty, and exciting no surprize, they were quietly naturalized.

Camoens is, therefore, regarded as the writer who gave the last improvement to his native language. How far he actually improved it, it is not possible that a foreigner can judge; but this is his great and main merit. His poetical character can neither be estimated by the present volume, nor by the English Lusiad: the merits of the one must be assigned to Mickle, and the other to Lord Strangford. Whether this species of deception is to be justified we will not say; but, as far as regards our individual gratification, being acquainted with the Portugueze poet, we were well pleased to discover originals where we only expected translations.

ART. XXXIII. *Original Poems on Miscellaneous Subjects. By the late Rev.* JOHN EDMONDS, *Jun. A. M. late Fellow of Catherine Hall, Cambridge, Rector of Skinand, in the Diocese of Lincoln, and Vicar of Alrewas, in the County of Stafford. Written during his Minority (from* 14 *to* 18 *Years of Age).* 8vo. pp. 28.

THESE effusions of early genius are modestly introduced by the following advertisement:

"Parental affection, perhaps, has regarded the following juvenile productions, of a well-loved son, with too great a degree of partiality. From those who bear the honoured name of parent, she has nothing to fear in thus giving to the world a collection of pieces, which the writer never finished for the public eye; and she hopes to disarm the criticism of such readers as do not come under that class, by referring them to the early period of the writer's life when they were composed.

Sept. 5, 1803. "M. EDMONDS."

Are we to infer, that after he had passed his eighteenth year, Mr. Edmonds turned his back on the muses? That they were not coy to his infant embraces, the following lines, written on the death of a school-fellow, John Griffith, will sufficiently prove. This elegy is written both in Latin and English; we give the latter:

"Gloomy Death, why has thine iron dart
Of virtuous youth from his companions torn;
And his sad home with black, each kindred heart
With anguish wrung, and bade a mother mourn?

"O say, thou demon, does not with'ring age
Fill the infernal seats with wonted prey?
Why has thine hand, with undistinguish'd rage,
Before it blossom'd, torn the bud away?

"Yet vain thy trophies! impotent thy powe
To quell its vigour—from the earth shall rise,
With renovated bloom, th' etherial flower,
And with its grateful fragrance fill the skies.

"Oh, blest inhabitant of highest heaven!
(For highest heav'n the just shall ever gain)
Regard the verse, by pious friendship given,
Whose measures of thy mournful fate complain.

"Regard a mother's grief, her sighs attend;
Mark her wan cheeks, what bitter drops bedew;
And eyes that wept so late the husband's end,
How soon for thee, the son, these streams renew!

"Accept this tribute to thy much-lov'd shade,
My breast no weak dissembled sorrows swell:
If these can please thee, lo! these rites are paid—
Farewell, my friend, for evermore farewell!"

Two or three of the pieces have a good deal of humour, and there is altogether an indication of so much poetic talent, that we regret that Mr. Edmonds did not leave some specimens of his powers in maturer years.

ART. XXXIV. *Narrative Poems. By* J. D'ISRAELI. 4vo. pp. 58.

Mr. D'Israeli is well known to the public as a pleasing and successful writer. His Curiosities of Literature have been the amusement of every

Digitized by Google

lounger: his Domestic Anecdotes of the French Nation excited a higher interest, and, while they amused the idler, afforded ample matter of reflection to the philosopher; his Vaurien has produced a swarm of worthless imitations: but it would be as absurd to blame Mr. D'Israeli for the trash of Miss Hamilton and Mr. G. Walker, &c. as to accuse the Nile, because of the reptiles that breed in its slime. His romances displayed fancy and feeling.

Three stories are contained in the present elegant volume. The Carder and the Carrier, which is the first, is so absurd in story, that no talents could make it interesting. The girl sportively rubs her lover's teeth with what she mistakes for a leaf of sage, but it proves to be a poisonous plant, and instantly kills him. She is arrested as a murderer, and led by a crowd, with the judge, to the place where the body lies: there she tells her tale, and then

"Bowing her head, the plant of poisonous breath
She sucked, and blest the vegetable death.
Quick thro' her veins the flying poisons dart,
And one cold tremor chills her beating heart.
She kneels, and winds her arms round Pasquil's breast,
There, as t'were life to touch, she creeps to rest;
On him once more her opening eyes she raised,
The light died on them as she fondly gazed;
With quick short breath, catching at life, she tried
To kiss his lips, and as she kissed, she died.

"O did the Muse but know the learned name
To blast that fair-deceiving plant to Fame!
O never may it drink the golden light
With laughing tints—the garden's hypocrite!
Ye colder botanists the plant describe,
Gaze on the spectre-form, and class the tribe!
But ye sweet-souled, whose pensive bosoms glow
With the soft images of amorous woe,
From ye the Muse one tender tear would claim;
One shudder, at *the plant without a name!*"

We know not whether this tale be original, or versified from some foreign author.

The second is the well-known story of Cominge. The third a tale addressed to a Sybarite. Anasillis places a statue of himself made by Praxiteles in the character of Love, in Aglaia's bower, that she may learn love from adoration. The scheme succeeds—

"All day entranced she sits; her "sweetliest" care
To look and sigh—and evening met her there.
And oft she talked, she vowed, complained, caressed,
Sighed on its face, and leant upon its breast.

"Meanwhile protraction charms th' enamoured boy;
To raise enjoyment lingers to enjoy.
Patient in pleasure forged th' enduring chain
Who wins too easy wins to lose again.
He takes the statue from the maiden's bower
To try if absence breaks its magic power;
Since female vows in absence will decay;
Slaves in an hour are constant for a day.

"But not Aglaia thus—her heart sincere
By love created claimed th' eternal year.
She comes—'tis gone!—what dear enchantment stole
In the soft moanings of her love-worn soul?
From her cold fingers fell each dewy flower
She shuddered, in the solitary bower.
Her fond regrets, her beauty veiled in tears,
Now touched Anasillis—the youth appears
With morn's first beam; like love the youth is drest;
Stretched in the bower he seems by sleep oppressed.
She comes—she starts! she gazes, trembles near—
'Tis Love! (she hardly breathes) the god is here!
Stept from his pedestal, a breathing form
Marble so loved relents, and like myself warm.
Ah, not in vain th' ideal form I loved,
Not vain the silent tears, a picture moved!
Stilly she trod, and all unbreathing gazed,
Then tremulously kissed the hand she raised.
The virgin kiss imparts the finest flame,
The sweet sensation trembling thro' her frame
Nor quits the hand, but half delirious there
To press it to her heart—and Love awakes.

"She kneels—can anger in that soul dwell?
Once having seen thee, must I bid farewell?
Is love a crime? then half the guilt be thine
Blame thy seducing powers, thine eyes divine!
Think ere thou shakest me from thy fond arm,
How small the triumph o'er a virgin form!
Anasillis in fond entrancement hears,
Bends o'er the nymph, and kissed away her fears.
Then thus—an innocent deceit forgive!
Smile on thy picture and the form shall live.

"She then, 'unskilled, how featured, how abroad,'
First of thy race, to me thou art a god!
How oft when idle fancy idle roved
For uncreated shapes—'twas thee I loved!
And if I may not mate with thee, I die!
Oh, be not twice a statue to my sigh!

"With meek surrender, and a timorous glow
The boy, each soft retiring grace enchanted,

Digitized by Google

While to his bosom all the virgin stole,
Kissed with adoring lips, and gazed his soul.
Then triumphed Love, with nature for his dower,
And Time with silvery feathers winged the hour.

"To thee young Sybarite! the tale we give,
If once thou sighest for graces that will live,
To one dear nymph thy spotless youth resign,
And love's eternity shall all be thine!
To modest beauty, fate decrees the power,
To raise with fond delay the amorous hour.
Who knows a soft Aglaia's heart to move,
To her shall be—the tender power of love!"

The language of these poems is highly laboured, and occasionally obscure. It abounds too with modern barbarisms; but these will pass current, for the King's English has long been debased.

ART. XXXV. *Beneficence; or, Verses addressed to the Patrons of the Society for bettering the Condition of the Poor. By* F. A. WARREN, *B. D.* 4to. pp. 35.

"THE author has been desirous of giving to his verses a simple domestic manner; if they please, it will be by natural description, and unrestrained sentiment; he would wish his muse to resemble a rural beauty, who knows not, or if she know, only scorns artificial and meretricious decorations. About the success of his publications, no writer, it is presumed, is altogether indifferent. Great is the authority for the assertion, the event, under any circumstances, that 'success and miscarriage will be alike empty sounds,' savours more of the pride of stoicism, than the reality of truth; but he, whose expectations are low, cannot be very much disappointed; and if the author of the following poem may, on some accounts, be arraigned and condemned in the court of criticism, he still feels confident that, in the opinion of liberal or just judges, he can scarcely deserve to be tortured on its wheel, or exposed on its gibbet."

The subject and temper of this poem would have saved it from a rigorous sentence, even if its size required long examination, or its faults severity. The stanzas upon the death of the Duke of Bedford are the best.

ART. XXXVI. *Scottish descriptive Poems; with some Illustrations of Scottish literary Antiquities.* Edited by Mr. LEYDEN. 12mo. pp. 253.

WE cannot flatter our readers with the hope of much entertainment from this volume before us.

The first and longest poem it contains is entitled *Clyde*; it is the production of a Scottish schoolmaster named Wilson, and was published at Glasgow in the year 1764. In 1767, its author, of whom Mr. Leyden has given a life, was chosen to superintend the grammar-school of Greenock, on condition that he should abandon "the profane and unprofitable art of poem making." It is probable, that Mr. Wilson himself regretted this prohibition more than his readers; for *Clyde* offers no indication of talents above mediocrity. The locality of its subject would preclude a much finer poem from becoming popular; and perhaps the following passage, descriptive of the falls of the Clyde, is the only one that by its animation of arresting the attention of any reader:

Here ancient Corehouse hangs above the stream,
And beneath the tumbling surges gleam,
Pushed in crags, the fretting river raves,
Rolls into foam, resound his tortured waves;
Giddy heads we view the dreadful deep,
Little snort and tremble at the steep,
Adown at once the foaming waters pour,
Scattering rocks repel the deafening roar:
Viewed from below, it seems from heaven they fell!
Seen from above, they seem to sink to hell!
But when the deluge pours from every hill,
And Clyde's wide bed ten thousand torrents fill,
His rage the murmuring mountain streams augment:
Redoubled rage, in rocks so closely pent:
Then shattered woods, with ragged roots upturn,
And herds and harvests down the wave are borne;
Huge stones heaved upward through the boiling deep,
And rocks enormous thundering down the steep,
In swift descent, fixed rocks, encountering, roar,
Crash as from slings discharged, and shake the shore."

"Albania" is another poem of moderate quality, which might have been suffered to fall into oblivion, with little injury to the public. The most curious and interesting piece in the present collection, is pedantically intitled "Day Estival," and was written by Alexander Hume in the latter end of the sixteenth century. His style is a singular mixture of Latin, French, Scotch and English, and is characteristic of the individual much more than of the age. Hume ap-

pears, however, to have possessed an excellent ear for verse, a turn for observation, and a taste for the beauties of nature; and had he not been a pedant in his youth, and fanatic in his riper age, might, we think, have become a poet. Our readers shall judge.

" The time so tranquil is, and still,
That no where shall ye find,
Save on a high and barren hill,
An air of passing wind.

" All trees and simples, great and small,
That balmy leaf do bear;
Nor they were painted on a wall,
No more they move or stir.

" Calm is the deep and purpour sea,
Yea smoother nor the sand;
The wallis, that weltering wont to be,
Are stable like the land.

" So silent is the cessile air,
That every cry and call,
The hills and dales, the forest fair,
Again repeats them all."

Mr. Leyden's notes are prolix and desultory; we could have excused his Gaelic extracts, and their translations likewise.

ART. XXXVII. *Poetical Register, and Repository for Fugitive Poetry, for* 1802. 8vo. pp. 450.

IT is with pleasure that we see this elegant collection increasing in value: the present volume is much richer than the last in " Original Poetry," and the " Fugitive Poetry" likewise appears to us better selected; indeed there is scarcely any absolute trash in the whole work, which, when the size of the book is considered—an octavo of 450 pages—must appear extraordinary, and highly creditable to the bards of the present day, as well as to the editor of the " Poetical Register."

We must allow, however, that we do not see the utility or the honesty of *borrowing* so largely, and without acknowledgment, from periodical works of great sale, and present popularity, which are not usually thrown aside by the purchasers, like old news-papers, but regularly bound up into handsome volumes.

We must further confess, that we ourselves should prefer, and we believe the sentiment extends to all who have drunk deep of the spring of the Muses—to sip slightly of the Castalian dews, in the exalted form of *distilled waters*, instead of quaffing full goblets of the common *draft liquor* of the fountain.

To speak without a metaphor, we should have been better pleased to find such pieces as the following thrown together in the form of a pamphlet of twenty pages, than scattered at certain distances through a volume of some hundred.

" *The Emigrant's Grave, founded on a true Story, by W. Spencer, Esq.*

"WHY mourn ye, why strew ye these flow'rets around,
To yon new-sodded grave, as your slow steps advance?
In yon new-sodded grave (ever dear be the ground!)
Lies the stranger we lov'd, the poor exile from France.

And is this the poor exile at rest from his woe,
No longer the sport of misfortune and chance?
Mourn on, village mourners, my tears too shall flow
For the stranger ye lov'd, the poor exile of France.

Oh! kind was his nature, tho' bitter his fate,
And gay was his converse, tho' broken his heart;
No comfort, no hope, his own heart could elate,
Tho' comfort and hope he to all could impart.

Ever joyless himself, in the joys of the plain
Still foremost was he, mirth and pleasure to raise,
And sad was his soul, yet how blithe were his strain,
When he sung the glad song of more fortunate days!

One pleasure he knew; in his straw-cover'd shed
For the snow-beaten beggar his faggot to trim:
One tear of delight he could drop on the bread
Which he shar'd with the poor, tho' still poorer than him.

And when round his death-bed profuse we cast
Ev'ry gift, ev'ry solace our hamlet could bring,
He blest us with sighs, which we thought were his last;
But he still had a pray'r for his country and king.

Poor exile, adieu! undisturb'd be thy sleep!
From the feast, from the wake, from the village green dance,
How oft shall we wander by moonlight to weep
O'er the stranger we lov'd, the poor exile of France.

Digitized by Google

To the church going bride shall thy
mem'ry impart
One pang as her eyes to thy cold relics glance,
One flow'r from her garland, one tear from
her heart,
Shall drop on the grave of the exile of France."

Most of the pieces of distinguished merit
which adorn this collection, are signed
with the names of writers already known
to the public—we observed, however,
both in the last volume and the present,
some poems with the signature Alcæus,
which are excelled by none of the others
in spirit, originality, and true poetic fire.
As an encouragement to bashful merit,
we swell our article by copying the fol-
lowing

Ode to the Volunteers of Britain, on the Prospect of Invasion.

"O for the death of those,
Who for their country die,
Sink on her bosom to repose,
And triumph where they lie!

How beautiful in death
The warrior's corse appears,
Embalm'd by fond affection's breath,
And bathed in woman's tears!

The loveliest spot of earth
Be sacred to the brave;
The womb of her that gave them birth,
Their country's womb, the grave.

—But the wild waves shall sweep
Britannia's foes away,
And the blue monsters of the deep
Be surfeited with prey!——

No!—they have 'scap'd the waves,
'Scap'd the sea-monsters' maws;
They come!—but O shall Gallic slaves
Give English freemen laws?

By Alfred's spirit, no!
—Ring, ring the loud alarms!
Ye drums awake, ye clarions blow,
Ye heralds shout "to arms."

To arms our heroes fly;
And leading on their lines,
The British banner in the sky,
The star of conquest shines.

The lowering battle forms
Its terrible array:
Like clashing clouds in mountain storms,
That thunder on their way;

The rushing armies meet;
And while they pour their breath,
The strong earth shudders at their feet,
The day grows dim with death.

—Ghosts of the mighty dead!
Your children's hearts inspire,
And while they on your ashes tread,
Rekin le all your fire.

The dead to life return;
Our fathers' spirits rise!
— My brethren! in YOUR breasts they
burn,
They sparkle in YOUR eyes.

Now launch upon the foe
The lightening of your rage;
Strike, strike th' assailing giants low,
The Titans of the age.

They yield,—they break,—they fly;
The victory is won:
Pursue!—they faint,—they fall,—they
die;
O stay!—the work is done.

Spirit of Vengeance rest:
Sweet Mercy cries "forbear!"
She clasps the vanquish'd to her
breast;
Thou wilt not pierce them there!

—Thus vanish Britain's foes
From her consuming eye!
But rich be the reward of those
Who conquer—those who die!

O'ershadowing laurels deck
The living hero's brows;
But lovelier wreaths entwine his neck,
— His children and his spouse!

Exulting o'er his lot,
The dangers he has braved:
He clasps the dear ones, hails the cot,
Which his own valour saved.

—Daughters of Albion! weep;
On this triumphant plain,
Your fathers, husbands, brethren sleep,
For you and freedom slain.

O gently close the eye,
That lov'd to look on you;
O seal the lip, whose earliest sigh,
Whose latest breath was true:

With knots of sweetest flowers
Their winding sheets perfume;
And wash their wounds with true-love
showers,
And dress them for the tomb:

For beautiful in death,
The warrior's corse appears,
Embalm'd by fond affection's breath
And bathed in woman's tears.

Give me the death of those,
Who for their country die;
And O be mine like their repose,
When cold and low they lie!

Their loveliest native earth
Enshrines the fallen brave:
The womb of her that gave them
birth,
That womb shall be their grave."

ALCÆUS.

Sheffield, Aug. 29, 1803.

Digitized by Google

ART. XXXVIII. *The Picture; Verses written in London, May 28, 1803, suggested by a magnificent Landscape of Rubens, in Possession of Sir George Beaumont. By the Rev.* W. LISLE BOWLES, 4to. pp. 20.

——— "For lo! where, all alarm'd
The small birds, from the late-resounding perch,
Fly various, hush'd their early song, and mark,
Beneath the darkness of the bramble-bank
That over-hangs the half-seen brook, where nod
The flow'ring rushes, dew-besprent; with breast,
Ruddy, and emerald wing, the king-fisher
Steals through the dripping sedge away: what shape
Of terror, scares the woodland habitants,
Marring the music of the dawn? Look round,
See, where he creeps, beneath the willowy stump,
Cow'ring, and low, step silent after step,
The booted fowler, keen his look, and fixt
Upon the adverse bank, while, with firm hand,
He grasps the deadly tube: his dog, with ears
Hung back, and still and steady eye of fire
Points to the prey; the boor, intent, moves on
Silent and creeping close, beneath the leaves,
And fears, lest ev'n the rustling reeds betray
His foot-fall: nearer yet, and yet more near
He stalks: ah! who shall save the heedless groupe,
The speckled partridges, that in the sun,
On yonder hillock green, across the stream,
Bask unalarm'd, beneath the hawthorn bush,
Whose aged boughs the crawling blackberry intwines!"

These are the best lines in this poem, and in part these lines are excellent; but what namby-pamby Vauxhall song-monger ever invented any viler trash than this "simple song:"

"Leave the loud, tumultuous throng,
And listen, listen, listen
To the milk-maid's simple song."

SONG.

'Forget me not, tho' forced to go
Wide o'er the roaring sea;
When the night-winds blow,
And the moon is high
In the paly sky,
My love I will think of thee.'

"He look'd in my eyes, for I could not speak
A tear he wip'd from his dark brown cheek,
O then, my own true sailor said,"

'Though the roaring sea,
Part my love and me,
Yet if luck betide,
My bonny, bonny bride,
She shall be the young milk-maid.'

"O green are the rushes that flow'r in the burn,
And I grieve for my love, who may never return."

We know no poet of any merit whose poems are so limited as those of Mr. Bowles—he plays as sweetly as it is possible to play upon a fiddle with one string.

A note to this poem informs us of the design to illustrate the picturesque character of Theocritus by paintings of Sir George Beaumont. Respecting which we do the admirable talents of Sir George, we should be sorry to see them employed on such a subject. Sicilian scenery can only be studied in Sicily.

ART. XXXIX. *Fugitive Verse and Prose, &c. By* J. P. ROBERDEAU. 8vo. pp. 1[illegible]

MIRTH and mourning; magpye feathers—a mixture of all heterogeneous materials. We select a serious and a comic specimen.

To the expiring Century, Jan. 1, 1801.

"Octennia hence!—The desolating groan
Of wars' ensanguin'd field; the purpled pest:
Pale famine's querulous cry, with triple moan
Thy parting steps attend.—Avaunt unblest!
What tho' philosophy has mark'd thy road,
And bright-ey'd science rear'd her radiant head,
And polish'd arts their splendors have bestow'd;
Meteors of bliss!—how little ye bestead!'
"Oh may thy new-born sister's rising rays,
Compose this chaos of conflicting woes!—
May plenty, health, and peace command our praise
To the pure fount whence good and mercy flows!
May reason visit earth, with truth conjoin'd;
Philanthropy refine, and justice guide mankind!"

The Stage Coach Company.—A Shakespeare parody.

——— "Morley is a stage,
Where men and women all are passengers.
They have their middle and their corner seats
Which no one on the road presumes to claim
Altho' close-wedg'd with seven! And first the *lap-child*,
Mewling and pewking o'er your shoes and boots;
And next the down-cast *school-boy*, with his boxes,
And pockets shilling fill'd—and large plum cake,
Which somewhat sweetens school! And next the *Ensign*,
Cramming hot-rolls, and eyeing, at each end, Molly who serves the breakfast.—Next *slumberer*;
Full of sour wine, with ill-look'd, unshaven beard;
Rolling his noddle, sudden in naps and wakings,

Seeking the banish'd, chaste sobriety,
Ev'n in the jolting coach! And then the *Vicar*,
In sloping belly, with fat tythe-pig lin'd;
With grizzled wig, and silken scarf-form'd vest,
Strew'd with rappee: his elbows lifted high,
Tis so he digs your ribs!—The sixth niche shews
A meagre, mortified, warm-wrapp'd *old maid*;
With morning cap snug drawn, and muff up-held,
Her curving nose and chin, seeking approach,
The sole good *points* she shows, and her shrill voice
Pour'd forth against the boldness of the age,
Full oft' repeats the theme! Last plac'd of all,
Which ends this 'worshipful society,'
Sits a young nymph, in ev'ry thing reverse,
Sans sleeves, sans coats, sans cap, sans every thing!"

Mr. Roberdeau is evidently a man of considerable talents.

ART. XL. *Works of Richard Owen Cambridge, Esq. with an Account of his Life and Character. By his Son,* GEORGE OWEN CAMBRIDGE, M. A. *Prebendary of Ely,* 4to. pp. 580.

WE have perused, with singular pleasure, the uneventful but extraordinary life of Mr. Cambridge; extraordinary because we recollect no individual, ancient or modern, whose life was so uniformly happy. Too opulent to need a profession, too wise to chuse one, he passed his days in the enjoyment of a literary leisure, and of a literary fame equal to his deserts and wishes; till the age of eighty-three, he lived without disease or infirmity, and then declining without pain for two years, he enjoyed, at length, the last blessing which can be bestowed upon man, that εὐθανασια, for which it has been well observed by Addoes, the moderns have unhappily no name, that peaceful and placid death which may truly be called falling asleep.

περι υπνου
Κοιμαται ὑπνος μαλιγξ της αγαθης.

Thus us he departed, a man of fourscore and five, leaving his wife and all his children living, having never suffered sickness, sorrow, or any of the calamities which flesh is heir to.

Of the versatile talents of this gentleman, some interesting and uncommon traits are recorded in these memoirs.

"Lord Anson, having admired the structure and success of these boats, as used by the inhabitants of the Ladrone islands, a particular description of which is given in his voyage, and preparing to make trial of one in England, when my father ventured to suggest his doubts whether a boat, whose safety depended upon the most exact equilibrium, would succeed in this uncertain climate, however well it might answer on the smooth sea, and under the steady breezes of the Pacific Ocean; proposing, at the same time, to construct a boat upon a plan somewhat similar, that might obviate those objections. The experiment, in both cases, was creditable to his knowledge of the subject. The flying prow was twice tried between Portsmouth and the Isle of Wight, and each time (as I have been informed) it was overset; after which it was hung up in the boat-house of the royal yard at Deptford, where it has ever since remained, and may now be seen; but the double boat answered every purpose required, being so swift that no other boat could overtake it, and so safe that it was scarcely possible for it to be overset."*

* * * *

"For the ordinary diversions of the field, to which country gentlemen usually devote so much of their time and talents, my father had no relish; but instead of the gun, he took up the exercise of shooting with the bow and arrow, in which he acquired such a degree of dexterity, as with a little further practice might have enabled him to enter the lists with William Tell, or the man recorded in the Scribleriad, who deprived Philip of the sight of one of his eyes with an arrow, which was addressed 'To Philip's right eye.' The head of a duck, swimming in the river, was a favourite mark, which he seldom missed; he likewise shot many small birds perching on trees, and some of the larger sort he has brought down when upon the wing; until happening to see one of his arrows, that had accidentally dropped into a post, he was struck with the hazard he ran of injuring

* The double boat consisted of two distinct boats, fifty feet in length, and only eighteen feet wide, placed parallel to each other at the distance of twelve feet, and secured together by transverse beams, over which a slight platform or deck was placed. Thus constructed, it was enabled to spread a much larger portion of canvas than any other boat that presented equal a resistance to the element in which it moved. It is remarkable that Captain Cook found, many years afterwards, find the ingenious inhabitants of the Sandwich Islands making use of boats upon a similar plan, and which experience had shewn them was preferable to the flying prow, or any other form that could be devised by a people unacquainted with the use of iron.

Digitized by Google

some fellow-creature, and from that time relinquished this amusement. But as shooting fish was not liable to any risk, he continued that diversion, with arrows made for the purpose by the Indians of America, and was almost as expert in the use of them. Whatever pursuit he engaged in, he followed with uncommon ardour, and seldom desisted until he had reached the extent of the subject: this fondness for the bow, therefore, induced him to collect specimens of all the bows and arrows that could be met with in different parts of the world, and to make himself acquainted with the precise methods of using them. He likewise procured whatever books he could find upon the subject of archery, particularly those which related to the laws and practice of the old English bowmen, as well as what remained respecting the use of those weapons among the ancients."

The Scribleriad is the most important of Mr. Cambridge's works. From this, well known as the poem is, we will select two passages for their singular and original excellence.

" This Momus heard and from Olympus height,
To distant Lybia wing'd his rapid flight.
Sudden he joins the rash Scriblerus' side,
While good Albertus' form the god belied.
Instant, behold! the guardian pow'r commands
A spark to issue from the blazing brands;
Which fell, directed, on the sage's head,
And sudden flames around his temples spread.
The subtle god the destin'd moment watch'd:
Swift from his head the hairy texture snatch'd,
And, unperceiv'd, amidst the crowd's amaze,
A soaring rocket in the cawl conveys.
The latent fraud portentous, cuts the air,
And bears, thro' distant skies, the blazing hair."

* * * *

" Firm and compact in three fair columns wove,
O'er the smooth plain, the bold Acrosticks move;
High o'er the rest the tow'ring leaders rise
With limbs gigantic and superior size.
They lead the van, unmov'd in the career,
And Bout-rimées bring up the lagging rear.
Not thus the looser Chronograms prepare,
Careless their troops, undisciplin'd to war;
With ranks irregular, confus'd, they stand,
The chieftains mingling with the vulgar band.
But with still more disorder'd march, advance
(Nor march it seem'd, but wild fantastic dance.)
The uncouth Anagram's distorted train,
Shifting, in double mazes, o'er the plain.
From different nations next the Centos crowd,
With borrow'd, patcht, and motley ensigns proud.
Not for the fame of warlike deeds they toil,
But their sole end the plunder and the spoil.
Next, an uncertain and ambiguous train
Now forward march, then counter-march again.
The van now first in order, duly leads,
And now the rear the changeful squadron heads.
Thus onwards Amphisbæna springs to meet
Her foe; nor turns her in the quick retreat.
To join these squadrons, o'er the champaign came
A num'rous race of no ignoble name;
The mighty Crambo leads th' intrepid van:
The next a forward loud industrious clan.
Riddle and Rebus, Riddle's dearest son;
And false Conundrum, and insidious Pun;
Fustian, who scarcely deigns to tread the ground;
And Rondeau, wheeling in repeated round.
Here the Rhopalics in a wedge are drawn,
There the proud Macaronians scour the lawn.
Here fugitive and vagrant o'er the green,
The wanton Epigrammatist is seen.
There Quibble and Antithesis appear,
With Doggrel-rhymes and Echos in the rear.
On their fair standards, by the wind display'd,
Eggs, altars, wings, pipes, axes were pourtray'd."

Without entering into any minute criticism upon this poem, which certainly deserves the reputation it has obtained, we may observe that there is a radical fault in its design. The objects of Scriblerus's pursuit are represented as actually attainable. The petrified city exists when he sets out in search of it; there is, therefore, no absurdity in his travelling to explore it; the competitors of the games actually fly, and row under water, and there appears no reason in the poem why the transmutation of metals, which is the final action, should not be equally performed.

The prose part of the volume consists of the papers which he contributed to the World; concerning these a good *bon mot* is recorded. A note from Moore, requesting an essay, was put into Mr. Cambridge's hands on a Sunday morning as he was going to church; his wife observing him rather inattentive during the sermon, whispered, " what are you thinking of," he replied, " of the next World, my dear."

We will add one anecdote more in the hope that it may operate as an example.

" Of his attention to collect original papers, and the desire to make them useful to the public, a handsome testimony is given by Mr. Horace Walpole, who, actuated by the same liberal motives, printed at Strawberry-hill, in the year 1758, ' An Account of Russia as it was in the year 1710, by Charles Lord Whi

Digitized by Google

worth.' In the preface to this little book, *Mr. Walpole*, after stating that the manuscript was communicated to him by Mr. Cambridge, who had purchased it among a *very curious* set of books, collected by Monsieur Zolman, secretary to the late Stephen Poyntz, Esq. adds, 'This little library relates solely to Russian history and affairs, and contains in many languages, every thing that perhaps has been written on that country. Mr. Cambridge's known benevolence, and his disposition to encourage every useful undertaking, has made him willing to throw open this magazine of curiosity to whoever is inclined to compile a history, or elucidate the transactions of an empire almost unknown even to its contemporaries."

ART. XLI. *The Pleasures of Nature; or, the Charms of Rural Life; with other Poems.* By DAVID CAREY. 12mo. pp. 164.

THE principal of these poems is that from which the volume takes its title, "The Pleasures of Nature." It is written in the stanza of Beattie's Minstrel, and is principally characterized by the unpardonable crime of dullness. We suspect that Mr. Carey is more likely to excel in the burlesque than the serious. The Parody on Gray's Elegy is well done, and the "Illegitimate Ode to the Shop of an eminent Bookseller," is no bad travestie of a part of the same poet's Ode to Eton College.

ART. XLII. *The Triumphs of Poesy; a Poem.* By J. C. HUBBARD, M. A. *Author of Jacobinism, &c.* 4to. pp. 20.

THIS little poem has merit which entitles it to a longer date than the ephemeral productions of this prolific age. Its verse is correct, flowing, and unusually harmonious. The stanza is happy; it gratifies the ear of the reader with sufficient variety, without imposing too heavy shackles on the genius of the writer. Its style is lively, perspicuous, and dignified. Originality of subject, indeed, it cannot boast. The great luminaries of poetry, Homer, Virgil, Milton, &c. would probably have been equally well known with their characteristic excellencies, to every reader, if Mr. Hubbard had never existed. Still it always gives us some pleasure to hear an old friend and favourite respectfully mentioned, particularly by a man who gives us at the same time a favourable opinion of his own talents and judgment. His character of Horace pleased us much: the fourth line is peculiarly applicable—the "cautious skill" of Horace in following Pindar must be apparent to every observant reader.

Correct and gay, as Horace sweetly sings,
And hangs in rapture o'er the Grecian lyre,
Sith bolder rage he sweeps the Sapphic strings,
Awakes with cautious skill the Theban fire;
Bids the echoes of the Sabine grove
Resound the pleasing pangs, the wanton wiles of love.

"Modell'd with happiest, unobtrusive art,
Obliquely keen and elegantly warm,
His easy numbers steal upon the heart,
Instructing, flatter, and reproving, charm:
Unlike the torrent of a later age;
When satire hurl'd, in vain, the thunders of her rage."

In a passage relative to Thomson, Mr. H. has shown the possibility of reading, admiring, quoting, and at the same time totally misunderstanding an author. He speaks of—

——— "The fleecy veil of falling snow
That hides the blushes of the *boreal morn*,"

without once suspecting that the "boreal morn," or Aurora Borealis, is a quite different thing from a winter morning. Our *Master of Arts* is not more fortunate where he speaks of "the *rich tissue* of his *Doric* lay." A Doric lay, certainly means a rustic lay (if classical cant has any meaning); but what can be less so than the learned strain of Thomson? The author certainly confounds the ideas of rustic and rural.

The poem concludes with a line slightly altered from Collins. Does Mr. Hubbard think originality equally to be dispensed with in modern English as in modern Latin verse? Let him break his college fetters, let him dare to indulge conceptions of his own, and he will find his powers of versification fully adequate, without plagiarism, to express them with brilliancy and effect.

ART. XLIII. *Poems, by* NATHANIEL BLOOMFIELD. 12mo. pp. 128.

MR. Capel Lofft is the editor of this little volume; in deference to his imprimatur, a bookseller of Bury has printed it at his own risk for the benefit of the

Digitized by Google

author; and his *probatum est* is affixed to each of the poems.

"Whoever," says Mr. Lofft, "has read the preface to the Farmer's Boy, will hardly fail of recollecting the name of Nathaniel Bloomfield, the author of the poems here offered to the public.

"It will be remembered, that he there appears, with his brother, George Bloomfield, standing in the place of the father, whom they had early lost, to their younger brother Robert.

"It is natural to suppose, that this brotherly interference, and its consequences, greatly and advantageously influenced the dispositions, pursuits, and habits of thought and conduct, of all three of the brothers. And it is the more exemplary, when it is considered how young the two eldest were at that time.

"It is an encouraging instance, how much may be effected for each other by the poor and uneducated, if they have prudence, activity, and kind affections: and how unexpectedly, and to an extent far beyond apparent probability, success is given by Providence to virtuous and benevolent efforts.

"Beyond question, the brothers of this family are all extraordinary men; and perhaps every one of them is more so than he would have been without the fraternal concord which has animated them all, and multiplied the powers of all by union and sympathy."

Nathaniel was apprenticed to a taylor, and at present works at that trade in London. He was not without his fears, "lest it should be thought that, although the muse can visit a Shepherd's Boy, there may be some employments which exclude her influence.—That a Taylor should be a Poet, he doubted, might appear too startling an assertion; and he had said accordingly to his brother George, in a letter, when this publication was first going to press, 'I want you to exclude the word taylor. Let there be no such word in the book. But perhaps I am too late. I know there is in the public mind as great contempt for him who bears the appellation of taylor, as Sterne has made old Shandy have for Simkin, Nickey, or Tristram. How many Cæsars and Pompeys, says he, by mere inspiration of the names, have been rendered worthy of them? And how many are there who might have done exceedingly well in the world, had not their characters and spirits been totally depress'd and Nicodemiz'd; and I will add (says Mr. N. Bloomfield) taylor'd into nothing? In the Rehearsal, the author, to make the most ridiculous part of it still more ridiculous, tells us, that it was written to a taylor, and by a taylor's wife. And even the discerning Spectator has given into this common-place raillery in the Monkey's Letter to her Mistress. He has made the soul which inhabited Pug's body, in recounting the humiliating state it had formerly been in, say, that he had been a taylor, a shrimp, and a tom-tit. It is from these causes, as well as from the habits and appearance contracted by a reclase and sedentary life, that, in the enlightened, as well as the ignorant, the idea of taylor and insignificance are inseparably linked together."

Tillotson's Sermons and a few religious tracts were his first studies; after he had removed to London he purchased the Night Thoughts, and by means of stall-hunting collected a few other poets. It was his evening's amusement, when single, to read Entick's Dictionary, and to write down every word of which he wished to remember the spelling or the meaning. For the last fifteen years he has read but little, his family having claimed his utmost exertions; his business allowing little leisure, and what leisure he had being generally employed in walking with his children. Though very poor he has been very happy.

The Essay on War is designed to shew, says the author,

"That war is an inevitable ill,
An ill thro' nature's various realms diffus'd,
An ill subservient to the general good."

The paradox is supported by sundry trite arguments which we will not waste time in confuting. As a specimen of the poetry we select the personification of Gunpowder.

"Gunpowder! let the soldier's pean rise,
Where e'er thy name or thundering voice is heard;
Let him who, fated to the needful trade,
Deals out the adventitious shafts of death,
Rejoice in thee; and hail with loudest shouts
The auspicious era, when deep searching art
From out the hidden things in nature's store
Call'd thy tremendous powers: and taught man
To chain the unruly element of fire
At his controul, to wait his potent touch;
To urge his missile bolts of sudden death,
And thunder terribly his vengeful wrath.
Thy mighty engines and gigantic towers
With frowning aspect awe the troubling world.
Or weak, or powerful, what escapes thy force?
When thy dire thunder and thy sudden blast
Hath taught the birds to tremble—little know
Ah! little know those gentle sons of air
How fully their destruction is aveng'd:
That man himself, thy terror's boasted lord,
Within the blacken'd hollow of thy tube,
Affrighted sees the darksome shades of death;
Nor only mourning groves, but human tears,
The weeping widow's tears, the orphan's cries,
Sadly deplore that e'er thy powers were known.
Hosts whirl'd in air, and cities sunk in flames,
Attest the horrid triumphs of thy might.
Yet let thy advent be the soldier's song—
No longer doom'd to grapple with the foe

Digitized by Google

With teeth and nails—when close in view, and in
Each other's grasp, to grin, and hack, and stab;
Then tug his horrid weapon from one breast
To hide it in another; with clear hands
He now, expertly poising thy bright tube,
At distance kills, unknowing and unknown,
Sees not the wound he gives, nor hears the shriek
Of him whose breast he pierces—gunpowder!
(O! let humanity rejoice) how much
The soldier's fearful work is humanis'd,
Since thy momentous birth, stupendous power!"

Of this essay, Mr. Capel Lofft says, that it displays a greater mastery in the mechanism, and greater power of numbers, than he should have almost thought possible in the first attempt in blank verse, even to a person of the best education. I regard it, he adds, as a poem of extraordinary vigour and originality in thought, plan, conduct, language and versification; I think it has much indeed of the philosophic character, poetic spirit, force of colouring, energy and pathos, which distinguish Lucretius. I am either ignorant wherein genius consists, or it is manifest in the idea, the style and numbers, the design and conduct of this poem.

Having read our extract, the reader will see that there needs no waggoner's team to draw the inference. Mr. Capel Lofft is ignorant wherein genius consists, if this poem has all the charms of thought and diction; but this poem has no other merit than what it derives from the situation of its author. It is remarkable, that a poor man, labouring at an unhealthy and ignominious business, should be able to write verses at all. The *reductio ad absurdum* is mathematical demonstration. The poem being bad, Mr. Capell Lofft is ignorant, Q. E. D. lamentably ignorant, and presumptuously obtrusive in his ignorance.

The other poems have more merit. We quote the following stanzas to praise them, and are happy that it is in our power to praise them. They are the advice of an old man to a poor lover:

Though envious age affects to deem thee boy,
Lose not one day, one hour, of proffer'd bliss;
Youth grasp every unoffending joy,
And wing'd with rapture snatch the bridal kiss.

Let not this chief of blessings be defer'd,
Till you your humble fortunes can improve;
None's poor but he, by sordid fears deterr'd,
Who dares not claim the matchless wealth of love.

"Virtue can make most rich thy little store;
Virtue can make most bright thy lowly state;
Murmur not then that virtuous thou art poor,
While prosperous vice can make men rich and great.

"The bad man may, his every sense to please,
Each soft indulging luxury employ:
The plenitude of elegance and ease
He may possess, but never can enjoy.

"No, though his goods, and flocks, and herds abound,
His wide demesne to fair profusion grown;
Though proud his lofty mansion looks around,
On hills, and fields, and forests, all his own:

"Tho' this may tempt thee, murmuring to complain,
With conscience clear, and life void of offence,
'Verily, then, I've cleans'd my heart in vain;
In vain have wash'd my hands in innocence.'

"Yet could'st thou closely mark the envied man,
See how desires ungovern'd mar his peace;
Or had'st thou pow'r his inward mind to scan,
How soon in pity would thy envy cease.

"Repine not then, that low thy lot is cast,
Health gives to life or high or low its zest;
'Tis appetite that seasons our repast,
And weariness still finds the softest rest.

"For all thy blessings thankfulness to wake,
Think of less cultur'd lands, less peaceful times:—
Our coarsest fare, when sparingly we take,
'Tis luxury, compar'd with other climes.

Think of the poor Greenlander's dismal caves,
Where thro' their long, long night they buried lie:
Or the more wretched lands where hapless slaves
Hopelessly toil beneath the fervid sky.

"In Britain, blest with peace and competence,
Rich fortune's favours could impart no more;
Heaven's blessings equal happiness dispense,
Believe my word, for I am old and poor.

"Many who drudge in labour's roughest ways,
By whom life's simplest, lowliest walks are trod,
Happily live, to honour'd length of days,
Blessing kind nature, and kind nature's God."

Mr. Capell Lofft supposes he has found a nest of poets. However much he is mistaken, the Bloomfields are certainly extraordinary men; and it gives us a

moral and consoling pleasure to see, that in circumstances so unfavourable, such men can exist. Their patron, good as his motives are, it is our duty to correct; his impertinent and intemperate exaggerations of praise, must injure those whom he designs to serve.

ART. XLIV. *Poems, lyrical and miscellaneous. By the late Rev.* HENRY MOORE, *of Liskeard.* 4to. pp. 153.

IT is with mingled pain and pleasure, that we prepare to give our testimony to the talents and merit of an author, who was destined, by a singular and melancholy fate, to break forth upon the public ear, in all the pomp and harmony of song, just as the silent lapse of time had hurried him, in the evening of age, but the dawn of reputation, beyond "that bourne whence never traveller returns."

Dr. Aikin, as editor, has prefixed the "few biographical memoirs" that could be obtained, or expected, of a man "whose lot it was, with genius, learning, and morals, to pass a life of almost total obscurity."

Mr. Moore, we are informed, was the son of a dissenting minister at Plymouth, where he was born in 1732. He was destined for his father's profession; and after the usual course of school and academical education,

"In 1755 or 1756, was elected minister to a dissenting congregation at Dulverton in Somersetshire. In 1757, he removed to a similar situation at Modbury in Devonshire; where he continued till his final removal to Liskeard in Cornwall, which took place about the year 1787. In these long periods of life he appears to have been almost totally lost from the notice of the world; recollected, perhaps, by some of his fellow-students as a youth of promise; known by a few brother ministers as a man of learning and critical talents; but probably scarcely recognized by two or three individuals for the splendid and cultivated genius, capable of shining in the highest ranks of literature, had fortune produced him upon a theatre suited to his powers. How he appeared in the latter portion of his narrow course, to an intimate friend who was able properly to estimate him, will best be shown in that friend's own words. 'He was probably led to adopt his retired and obscure mode of life, partly from the weakness of his constitution, the original infirmity of which was distressingly increased by his studious and sedentary habits; partly from the singular modesty and diffidence of his disposition. Notwithstanding, however, he thus voluntarily withdrew from general society, when in company with any one with whom he felt himself at ease, his conversation was most agreeable and entertaining, enlivened with sprightly sallies and seasonable anecdotes. Although there was so little in his situation that seemed calculated to produce contentment and thankfulness, and although he had long suffered under painful and complicated bodily complaints, yet he was perfectly free from any disposition to repine. I never heard him utter a querulous expression. The composure and resignation of his mind seemed always undisturbed.—His manners were singularly mild and gentle. He appeared utterly unconscious of possessing any extraordinary powers: indeed, his behaviour indicated a greater degree of humility and distrust than I almost ever witnessed.' I shall add, that both the trials he underwent, and the sources of his consolation, are strongly marked in his poems; in perusing which, we cannot but feel, that though he suffered much, he was *nobly supported*.

"During the last summer," continues Dr. Aikin, "Mr. Moore put into the hands of the friend above referred to, a volume of MS. poems, which, with singular modesty, he requested him to shew to some person sufficiently conversant with productions of the kind, to judge of their fitness for the public eye. I was applied to on the occasion; and I trust the readers of these pieces will be convinced, that I could not hesitate in giving a decided opinion in their favour. In reality, I scarcely ever experienced a greater and more agreeable surprise, than on the discovery of so rich a mine of poetry, where I had not the least intimation of its existence. That this author should have passed seventy years of life almost totally unknown, was a circumstance that excited the interest of all to whom the poems were communicated; and we were impatient that, however late, he should enjoy those rewards of merit which had so long been withheld. In the mean time he was attacked with a severe stroke of the palsy, which, while it left his intellects free, incapacitated him for every exertion. There was now no time to be lost. My offer of taking upon myself the whole care of the edition was thankfully accepted; and a subscription was set on foot, which met with the warm support of many, who were desirous that all possible comfort should be supplied to cheer the helpless decline of such a man. But the progress of debility anticipated these well intended efforts: he sunk tranquilly under his disease, on November 2, 1793, having, however, lived to enjoy some satisfaction from the knowledge, that there were persons whom he had never seen, who could regard him with cordial esteem and friendship. As he lived in celibacy, and had no dependent relatives, no other object remained

Digitized by Google

for a subscription, than that of bringing forward his posthumous work in an advantageous manner, secure both from loss and neglect."

To *analyse* a volume of lyrical and miscellaneous poems, would be difficult, to *characterize* them will be easier to us, and more satisfactory to our readers. The moral and religious odes exhibit the conceptions of a saint, and the execution of a poet; the most fervent, rational, and amiable piety, varied and enlivened by faithful and animated sketches of nature, by apt and classical allusions to the history and poetry of antiquity, and, above all, by the "breathing thoughts and burning words" which impress on the scrolls of eloquence and poetry the stamp, the inimitable stamp, of genius. The lighter and miscellaneous pieces, are captivating by their harmony, elegance, and originality of sentiment.—The subject matter of Mr. Moore's poems is such as the book of nature and of God, the treasures of learning, the feelings of a warm heart, and the reveries of an active fancy, offer to the retired and contemplative man. His versification, evidently modelled on that of Dryden, is sonorous, rich, flowing, and majestic.—In forming the measures of his odes, which are mostly of the pindaric or irregular kind, he displays the most exquisite taste and knowledge of harmony; his rhymes partake of the inaccuracy common to the last generation of versifiers; his sentences are sometimes intricate, from their length and parenthetical construction, a fault probably occasioned by the want of some friend to whom he might have read his compositions aloud; which he has sometimes been guilty, like most of those, whose minds receive little other nourishment than such as is supplied by their own reading and meditations, of imitating and repeating himself. Occasional imitations of other poets might also be pointed out, if the venerable author were now capable of profiting by our strictures.

The "Ode to Spring," with which the volume commences, has the merit of novelty on a trite subject, which is chiefly endeared by the moral reflections drawn from the prospect of universal reanimation and beauty, and the lively glance through nature up to nature's God." The ode, as a specimen of those on moral topics, which have all a strong resemblance to each other in diction, and the general tone of sentiment, we present entire to our readers, who will do justice to the new and brilliant simile with which it opens, and the noble vein of sentiment and picturesque description by which it is pervaded.

"*The Vanity of Fame.*

"As vapours from the marsh's miry bed
Ascend, and gath'ring on the mountain's head,
Spread their long train in splendid pomp on high;
Now o'er the vales in awful grandeur lour;
Now flashing, thund'ring down the trembling sky,
Rive the tough oak, or dash th' aspiring tow'r;
Then melting down in rain,
Drop to their base original again;
Thus earth-born heroes, the proud sons of praise,
A while on fortune's airy summit blaze,
The world's fair peace confound,
And deal dismay, and death, and ruin round,
Then back to earth these idols of an hour,
Sink on a sudden, and are known no more.

"Where is each boasted favourite of fame,
Whose wide expanded name
Fill'd the loud echoes of the world around,
While shore to shore return'd the lengthen'd sound?
The warriors where, who, in triumphal pride,
With weeping freedom to the chariot tied,
To glory's capitolian temple rode?
In undistinguish'd dust together trod,
Victors and vanquish'd mingle in the grave;
Worms prey upon the mould'ring god,
Nor know a Cæsar from his slave;
In empty air their mighty deeds exhale,
A school-boy's wonder, or an ev'ning tale.

"In vain with various arts they strive
To keep their little names alive,
Bid to the skies th' ambitious tow'r ascend;
The cirque its vast majestic length extend;
Bid arcs of triumph swell their graceful round;
Or mausoleums load th' encumber'd ground;
Or sculpture speak in animated stone
Of vanquish'd monarchs tumbled from the throne:
The rolling tide of years
Rushing with strong and steady current, bears
The pompous piles, with all their fame away,
To black oblivion's sea;
Deep in whose dread abyss the glory lies
Of empires, ages, never more to rise!

"Where's now imperial Rome,
Who erst to subject kings denounc'd their doom,
And shook the scepter o'er a trembling world?
From her proud height by force barbarian hurl'd.
Now, on some broken capital reclin'd,
The sage of classic mind
Her awful relics views with pitying eye,
And o'er departed grandeur heaves a sigh;
Or fancies, wand'ring in his moon-light walk,
The prostrate fanes, and mould'ring domes among,

Digitized by Google

He sees the mighty ghosts of heroes stalk
In melancholy majesty along,
Or pensive hover o'er the ruins round,
Their pallid brows with faded laurels bound;
While Cato's shade seems scornful to survey
A race of slaves, and sternly strides away.

" Where old Euphrates winds his storied flood,
The curious traveller explores in vain
The barren shores, and solitary plain,
Where erst majestic Babel's turrets stood;
All vanish'd from the view her proud abodes,
Her walls, and brazen gates, and palaces of gods!
A nameless heap o'erspreads the dreary space,
Of mingled piles an undistinguish'd mass;
There the wild tenants of the desart dwell;
The serpent's hiss is heard, the dragon's yell;
And doleful howlings o'er the waste affright,
And drive afar the wand'rers of the night.
" Yet 'tis divinity's implanted fire,
Which bids the soul to glorious heights aspire;
Enlarge her wishes, and extend her sight
Beyond this little life's contracted round,
And wing her eagle flight
To grandeur, fame, and bliss without a bound.
Ambition's ardent hopes, and golden dreams,
Her tow'ring madness, and her wild extremes,
Unfold this sacred truth to reason's eye,
That 'man was made for immortality.'

" Yes, friend! let noble deeds, and noble aims
To distant ages consecrate our names,
That when these tenements of crumbling clay
Are dropt to dust away,
Some worthy monument may still declare
To future times 'we were!'
Not such as mad ambition's vot'ries raise
Upon the driving sand of vulgar praise;
But with its firm foundation laid
On virtue's adamantine rock,
That to the skies shall lift its tow'ring head
Superior to the surge's shock.
Plann'd like a Memphian pyramid sublime,
Rising majestic on its ample base,
By just degrees, and with a daring grace,
Erect, unmov'd amid the storms of time!

" Of time! no, that's a period too confin'd
To fill th' unbounded mind,
Which o'er the barrier leaps of added years,
Of ages, æras, and revolving spheres,
And leaves the flight of numbers still behind.
When the loud clarion's dreadful roll
Shall rend the globe from pole to pole;
When worlds and systems sink in fire,
And nature, time, and death expire;
In the bright records of the sky
Shall virtue see her honours shine;
Shall see them blazing round the sacred shrine
Of blest eternity."

" The fall of Zion" is one of the sublimest prophetic denunciations we have met with; never surely was a picture of consummate horror so strongly drawn, and so artfully shaded, as the following:

" 'Tis come—the mighty day! how awful low'rs
Its murky morn! the works of death begin!
Without, the flame—without, the sword devours,
And famine wastes within.
Ah! what a groan was there,
As bursting from the bosom of despair!
See o'er her famish'd babe the mother hang!
Maternal fondness adding edge to woe,
Keen as her childbed's agonizing throe.
But, oh! my chill'd blood shudders at the sight—
Resistless hunger gives a fiercer pang.
Mother, forbear!—sun, hide thy trembling light!
Blot out the deed accurst, eternal night!"

The veil is indeed cast by the hand of a master! There is a happy boldness in the following metaphor of the "Ode on Divine Love:"

" What tho' to Heaven's empyrial vault aspire
Your gilded domes, with rival splendors crown'd!
Soon, soon *destruction*, *with her tongue of fire*,
Shall *lick* them from the ground."

The much lamented loss of a young lady, to whom he was fondly attached, and soon after of a bosom friend, awoke the lyre of our poet to strains of the deepest pathos. His "Invocation to Melancholy" must touch a responsive chord in every human breast, which has once vibrated to the stroke of tender grief. The first verse contains a very judicious deviation from the rules of prosody, which *this writer* never lightly violates:

" Dost thou thro' the glimmering glade,
Beneath the moon's pale ray,
With many a *slow* step stray?"

An exquisite imitation of a celebrated passage of Virgil, occurs in this stanza:

" All the long night he tells his plaintive tale
Along the list'ning vale,
To ev'ry vagrant rill,
To ev'ry bending hill,
And bids the hollow gales in pity bear
His swelling sighs to her.
Thee beautiful, thee cold, thee scornful maid,
Thee mourns his musical, his melting lay,
Thee at the closing shade,
And thee at dawning day."

" Te dulcis conjux, te solo in litore secum,
Te veniente die, te decedente canebat."

Gladly would we indulge ourselves in still more copious extracts from so rich a store. But we have done enough; the lovers of genuine poetry, and pure elevated virtue, will eagerly welcome the production, as offering in its moral

Digitized by Google

what has long been a *desideratum* in the language. France still boasts the far inferior and almost antiquated works of J. B. Rousseau, in a similar walk; and it is not probable, that the British public will value less highly this, the first offering, and dying legacy of humble worth and bashful genius.

ART. XLV. *Poems, by Mrs.* G. SEWELL, *Relict of the late Rev. George Sewell, Rector of Byefleet, Surrey.* 12mo. pp. 283.

THIS elegant little volume, which appears to be patronised by a numerous and very splendid list of subscribers, consists of short miscellaneous pieces, exhibiting just sentiments in easy verse. High poetic fancy, glowing diction, rich and varied harmony are of such rare occurrence, that their absence ought no more to excite disappointment, than the not finding pearls in every oyster.

ART. XLVI. *The Press; a Poem, published as a Specimen of Typography. By* JOHN M'CREERY, *Liverpool.* Thin quarto.

THE singular humility of this title-page cannot fail to excite the curiosity of our readers, who will ask with astonishment, what kind of poet he can be, who submits his numbers to the public eye, merely for the purpose of affording an opportunity of display, to the mechanical skill of the printer. Their surprize will be diminished on learning that, in this instance, the poet and printer are one and the same person, and that the author of "The Press," is the very man who, in his humbler capacity, has been instrumental in diffusing through the nation the rich intellectual stores of a Currie, a Roscoe, a Smythe, and a Shepherd. It is not wonderful that Mr. M'Creery, animated by the encouragement of such patrons, should feel anxious to acquire for the Liverpool press, a reputation for beauty and correctness of workmanship hitherto confined to those of the metropolis.

In the laudable pursuit of excellence in his art, our poetical printer engaged in a course of laborious and expensive experiments, by means of which he has at length succeeded in preparing an ink which, without fatiguing the eye by a too glaring black, gratifies it by a mellow richness of tint never before attained. His presswork is likewise remarkable for its smoothness and evenness of colour: though the common, not the French, type, has been employed. The type, which is the same used by Bulmer, in Boydell's splendid Shakspeare, is an extremely good one, formed on the Baskerville model, though inferior to the delicate fineness of Figgins's best letter. This *pattern work* is likewise adorned by emblematical wooden cuts of superior excellence.

A clear and satisfactory statement of the controversy respecting the origin of printing is subjoined to the poem; as likewise, a somewhat violent declamation against the paper-taxes, and the act by the which a printer is obliged to subscribe his name at the beginning and end of every work. The intentions of the legislature, in framing this regulation, might perhaps afford cause for reprehension; but certainly the obligation of marking their works has enabled this class of artizans, to make known to the world in general, their names and respective merits, with which only authors and booksellers were previously acquainted. Mr. M'Creery is not a man to be ashamed of working under the public eye, as his present production sufficiently evinces, nor ought he, therefore, to be the first to exclaim against the revival of a practice, universal among the early and eminent printers, and alone capable of again elevating that into a liberal art, which, for some time past, has sunk into a mere mechanical trade.

The sentiments of our author are free and manly; his verse is smooth and correct, and certainly reflects honour on one whose opportunities for the cultivation of literature must have been snatched, with haste and difficulty, from more important and lucrative avocations.

ART. XLVII. *The Powers of Imagination; a Poem, in three Parts. Written at the Age of Sixteen. By Miss* CHARLOTTE SEYMOUR. 4to. pp. 130.

THIS poem possesses three irresistible claims to be indulgently reviewed, namely, the youth and sex of the author, and the lovely portrait which is prefixed: at the same time we are bound not to violate our implied engagement with the

Digitized by Google

public. We shall therefore confine ourselves to the expression of regret, that the friends of this young lady should possess so little common sense as to encourage a publication which, we are sure, the author herself, when her taste and judgment shall be a little more matured, will wish that it had been confined within the circle of her family and intimate acquaintance.

ART. XLVIII. *The Temple of Nature; or, the Origin of Society: a Poem, with philosophical Notes. By* ERASMUS DARWIN, *M. D. F. R. S.* 4to. pp. 300.

DR. Darwin, like Lucretius, has endeavoured to blend in his poetical works the grave features of philosophy with the mutable graces and smiling charms of imagination. In a considerable degree he has succeeded; and his "Economy of Vegetation," and "Loves of the Plants," will attract notice for the splendid digressions and similes which they contain, long after the philosophical reveries upon which they are based shall be forgotten.

The distinguishing characteristic of Dr. Darwin's poetry is picturesque description, conveyed in remarkably harmonious language, but weakened in its effect by the very slight interest which the general plan is calculated to excite in comparison with that of particular passages. The author himself indeed has compared his "Loves of the Plants" to a series of paintings connected together by a festoon of ribbands, a description which may also be applied with perfect justice to the "Economy of Vegetation," and the work at present before us.

The "Temple of Nature" consists of four cantos, the first of which treats of the origin or production of life; the second of the transmission or re-production of life; the third relates to the progress of the mind; and the fourth investigates the necessary connexion between good and evil. The philosophical system here displayed and illustrated in the notes, scarcely differs, in any respect, from what has been already published in the former works of the same author, and is therefore, for the most part, a mere repetition of dubious or misapplied facts. The verse abounds with stanzas, and even whole passages, closely imitated from the "Botanic Garden," and is strikingly deficient in those brilliant similes and personifications which constitute the most valuable portion of Dr. D.'s poetry.

As in the Newtonian system the motions of inanimate matter are explained by the laws of attraction and repulsion, so Dr. Darwin considers the phenomena of vitality to be ultimately attributable to *contraction* or the shortening of a fibre on the application of a stimulus, and its gradual re-extension when the stimulus is removed. There is this slight difference, however, between the two theories, that Newton did not proceed a step without rigorous demonstration, whereas Dr. Darwin does not bring a single argument, or even analogy, in support of his hypothesis. Having formed a contractile fibre by the successive application of minute particles of matter to each other, he supposes its extremities to unite and thus produce a ring; a multitude of rings united form a tube, which, by the process of assimilation, forms a living animal. Or to use the author's own words,

"In earth, sea, air, around, below, above,
Life's subtle woof in Nature's loom is wove;
Points glued to points a living line extends,
Touch'd by some goad approach the bending ends;
Rings join to rings, and irritated tubes
Clasp with young lips the nutrient globes or cubes;
And, urg'd by appetencies new, select,
Imbibe, retain, digest, secrete, eject."

From living tubes, which have thus acquired "appetencies new," he supposes the microscopic animalcules and vegetables to be produced without the intervention of either solitary or sexual generation. At length in some of the larger of these living tubes two kinds of organic particles begin to be formed, the one endowed with "nice appetencies," and the other most conveniently with "apt propensities:" in consequence of which, whenever they arrive within the sphere of each other's attraction, they unite, and strange to say, produce a living being similar to that of which they composed a part; and thus commences the process of *solitary generation*. In this manner are formed the leaf-buds in vegetables, and thus

"——The male polypus parental swims,
And branching infants bristle all his limbs.
So the lone taenia, as he grows, prolongs
His flattened form with young adherent throngs;

Digitized by Google

Unknown to sex the pregnant oyster swells,
And coral insects build their radiate shells."

During the numberless ages that intervened between the advancement of vital fibres to animals, the different circumstances to which individuals were exposed by exciting different wants and sensations, would produce corresponding changes in their organization, and in some of the most complicated *sexual reproduction* would commence. At first the two sexes would be united in the same individual, as we find to be the case in snails; but this soon proving inconvenient, the hermaphrodites, by the help of wishing and imagination, or (in the language of another school of modern philosophy equally rational with Dr. Darwin's) by exerting their energies, would be able to separate the sexes into distinct individuals, and by successive improvements convert a snail into a man and woman.

"In these lone births no tender mothers blend
Their genial powers to nourish or defend;
No nutrient streams from Beauty's orbs improve,
These orphan babes of solitary love;
With after birth the line unchanging runs,
And parents live transmitted in their sons;
Each passing year beholds the unvarying kinds,
The same their manners, and the same their minds.
Till as ere long successive buds decay,
And insect shoals successive pass away;
Pressing wants the pregnant parents vex
With the fond wish to form a softer sex:
These milky rills with pure ambrosial food
Might charm or nourish their expected brood.
One potent wish in the productive hour
Lends to its aid Imagination's power;
O'er embryon throngs with mystic charm presides,
And sex from sex the nascent world divides."

The evolution of this supremely absurd system is the main object of the first cantos; the ingenious author, however, finds occasional opportunities of informing us how the more complicated animals originated from the simpler ones. Animal life begun while the earth was yet covered with water; but when the continents were raised by central volcanoes, multitudes of microscopic animalcules would find themselves in the air, on the moist earth, and being thus compelled to adopt new habits and modes of life, would, by degrees, convert their aquatic organs into aerial ones; their fins would become legs and wings, and their gills be changed into lungs, &c.

"As in dry air the sea-born stranger roves,
Each muscle quickens, and each sense improves;
Cold gills aquatic form respiring lungs,
And sounds aerial flow from slimy tongues."

It grieves us to throw any suspicion on the originality of this luminous theory; but truth obliges us to say that the Abbate Fortis has at least as strong a claim to it as Dr. Darwin: this philosopher being of opinion, not merely that microscopic animalcules and some of the simpler animals have learnt to accommodate themselves to a terrestrial instead of an aquatic existence, but that the human race has originated from mermen and mermaids; he is inclined to believe that the celebrated Neapolitan diver, surnamed *the fish*, was, like Achilles, Aristæus, and other heroes of antiquity, very nearly allied to the oceanic nymphs; and that the Greenlanders have but very lately emerged, as is evident from their strong attachment to whale oil and seal-flesh. In a note to the "Botanic Garden," Dr. Darwin throws out a hint that insects may have originated from the male and female blossoms of vallisneria, and other diœcious plants; the same idea is repeated in the present work, whence we may conclude that the author considered it as by no means improbable. He repeats also with seeming satisfaction the old Egyptian and Rabbinical notion, that man was formerly hermaphrodite, and sagely remarks, in confirmation, the existence of the rudiments of nipples in the male. That the human race was formerly quadruped, and arose from a family of monkeys on the banks of the Mediterranean, who had accidentally learnt to use the adductor pollicis, he is well disposed to believe, on the authority of those profound and accurate observers, Buffon and Helvetius!

The "philosophical notes," which, from the title page, seem to have been of at least equal value, in the estimation of the author, with the poetical text, besides serving to illustrate the proper subject of the poem, are occupied with various geological and chemical discussions. These exhibit as noble a contempt of facts and philosophical precision as any part of the work; but to enter into a formal refutation of them is neither consistent with our plan, nor with the limits to

Digitized by Google

which we are restrained. A short example will be sufficient.

"It is probable that much oxygen enters the composition of glass, as those materials which promote vitrification contain so much of it, as minium and manganese; and that glass is hence a solid acid in the temperature of our atmosphere, as water is a fluid one." All future chemists will, we doubt not, hold themselves indebted to Dr. Darwin for informing them that an acid may be composed of siliceous earth, metallic oxyds and alkali, and that water and sulphuric acid are similar substances, though they have not a single characteristic property in common.

We have already observed, that the poetry of this volume is by no means so deeply impressed with the characters of genius as the "Botanic Garden;" there are no passages to be compared with the splendid simile of the balloon, or the sublime description of the army of Cambyses, in the African deserts, perishing by hunger and overwhelmed by sand. We are disgusted by perpetual repetitions, and no author ever so strikingly exemplified that odious fault of imitating himself: the structure of the verse too is remarkably monotonous, and destitute, in several instances, of that rich harmony which so eminently distinguishes the former productions of Dr. Darwin.

As pleasing exceptions, however, to these faults we shall quote two passages: the first of which is taken from the triumphal progress of Cupid and Psyche, in the second canto, and is exquisitely harmonious; the second describes the cavern of Oblivion.

"Pleased as they pass along the breezy shore,
In twinkling shoals the scaly realms adore,
Move on quick fin with undulating train,
Or lift their slimy foreheads from the main.
High o'er their heads on pinions broad display'd,
The feather'd nations shed a floating shade;
Pair after pair enamour'd shoot along,
And trill in air the gay impassion'd song.
With busy hum in playful swarms around
Emerging insects leave the peopled ground,
Rise in dark clouds, and, borne in airy rings,
Sport round the car, and wave their golden wings.
Admiring Fauns pursue on dancing hoof,
And bashful Dryads peep from shades aloof.
Emerging Nereids rise from coral cells,
Enamour'd Tritons sound their twisted shells;
From sparkling founts enchanted Naiads move,
And swell the triumph of despotic Love."

* * * *

"Deep-whelm'd beneath, in vast sepulchral caves,
Oblivion dwells, amid unlabell'd graves;
The storied tomb, the laurell'd bust o'erturn'd,
And shakes their ashes from the mould'ring urns.
No vernal zephyr breathes, no sun-beam cheer,
Nor song, nor simper, ever enters here;
O'er the green floor, and round the dew-damp'd wall
The slimy snail and bloated lizard crawl;
While on white heaps of intermingled bones
The Muse of Melancholy sits and moans;
Showers her cold tears o'er Beauty's early wreck,
Spreads her pale arms, and bends her marble neck."

Digitized by Google

CHAPTER XI.

PLAYS.

THE loss of popularity which Drury-lane theatre experienced last year from the secession of Mrs. Siddons and her brother, was most amply retrieved by the invention of a thing in which a dog and a wooden doll were the most interesting characters. After such a proof of the public taste, we cease to be astonished at the miserable trash contained in the following articles.

ART. I. *Hear Both Sides; a Comedy, in five Acts; as it is performed at the Theatre Royal, Drury Lane. By* THOMAS HOLCROFT. 8vo. pp. 90.

THIS comedy acts extremely well: there is a good deal of bustle and plot in it, and the dialogue is supported with a considerable degree of spirit. Sir Ralph Aspen, a valetudinary, both in body and mind, is a well drawn character, and has something of originality in it. There is an inconsistency in suffering Fairfax, who is represented as having so much real disinterestedness and generosity about him, to behave with such unfeeling contumely, and inhumanity to the starving Milford. His restitution of Old Travis's fortune, too, should have anticipated the personal reproaches of Headlong, Transit, &c. It should not have been possible to have attributed his conduct to a double motive.

ART. II. *Delays and Blunders; a Comedy, in five Acts; as performed at the Theatre Royal Covent Garden. By* FREDERICK REYNOLDS. 8vo. pp. 74.

THE critics of box, gallery, and pit, have passed judgment on this play; we submit in silence: if they have *blundered* upon applause, we shall *delay* censure.

ART. III. *The Voice of Nature; a Play, in three Acts; as performed at the Theatre Royal Haymarket. By* JAMES BOADEN.

IN the third chapter of the first book of Kings is that celebrated judgment of Solomon between the two harlots, which made his wisdom renowned throughout all Israel. A French dramatist, M. Brugniez, selected this as the subject of a play, and Mr. Boaden's "Voice of Nature" is avowedly imitated from the *Jugement du Salomon*. The story is simple and affecting, and Mr. Boaden has certainly confided its effect upon the audience entirely to its own intrinsic simplicity and pathos. It has succeeded upon the stage without show or bustle, without the aid of elevated sentiment or spirited dialogue. The voice of nature has prevailed; it must indeed find its way to every maternal bosom, and we consider it as honourable to the feelings of an audience, that it should be gratified with such a plain unvarnished tale as this.

ART. IV. *A Tale of Terror; a Dramatic Romance, in three Acts; as first acted at the Theatre Royal Covent Garden. By* HENRY SIDDONS.

WE are sorry to see the name of Siddons annexed to any thing so foolish.

ART. V. *The Maid of Bristol; a Play in three Acts; as performed at the Theatre Royal in the Haymarket. By* JAMES BOADEN. *With an Address to the Patriotism of the British People, as an Epilogue, written by George Colman the Younger.* 8vo. pp. 48.

MR. Boaden is an old *stager*; he knows very well what will draw a clap from the gallery, and is not at a loss to throw out something every now and then to please

the pit, and eke the boxes. Every other sentence in this play is in honour of the humanity, the generosity, the nobleness, the tenderness, the patriotism, the —— every thing else that is godlike of the British tar. In times like these, as Mr. Colman says in his epilogue—

"In times like these, the sailor of our play
Much more than common sailors has to say."

Truth will out, and here it is blundered out. But Mr. Boaden is no party-man: he is too prudent to trust the fate of his play to the sailors alone; and very wisely, now that two-thirds of the audience are soldiers, or soldiers' wives and daughters, very wisely he divides his compliments with an even hand between the red coats and the blue trowsers.

The sea-slang of Ben Block glides very glibly off his tongue, and his is the most entertaining character of the piece.

ART. VI. *Hearts of Oak; a Comedy, in five Acts; as performed at the Theatre Royal Drury Lane. By* JOHN TILL ALLINGHAM. 8vo. pp. 71.

MR. Allingham seems to have had Kotzebue's *Stranger* in view when he wrote this play. Dorland suspects Eliza, his wife, of infidelity; is absent from her seventeen years; returns to England in disguise, is introduced to her, finds her innocent, implores pardon for his injurious suspicions, and the play closes with the prospect of their living very happily afterwards. The singular character of the stranger, however, is not transferred to Dorland, but to Dorland's friend, Ardent, where it is preposterous and unaccountable. When Dorland leaves the country he gives charge of his daughter to Ardent; Ardent receives very large remittances for the education of his adopted child, and, in order to stifle any jealousy which might arise in the bosom of his own daughter, at the superior influence of his friend's, he sends the former out of the way. Can any thing exceed the absurdity of supposing that a man would turn his own child out of doors, and neglect her, that he might take somebody's else! Mr. Allingham must study the human heart a little more before he can excel as a dramatist.

ART. VII. *Mrs. Wiggins; a Comic Piece, in two Acts; as performed at the Theatre Royal Haymarket. By* JOHN TILL ALLINGHAM. pp. 49.

THE audience had sense enough to express their disgust at such insufferable nonsense.

ART. VIII. *Raising the Wind; a Farce, in two Acts; as performed at the Theatre Royal Covent Garden. By* JAMES KENNEY. 8vo. pp. 37.

THERE is a good deal of dry humour in this after-piece; the principal character, Diddler, is very well supported, and with the assistance of Mr. Lewis's acting, we hope Mr. Kenney has found answer his purpose of *raising the wind*.

ART. IX. *The Caravan: or, the Driver and his Dog. A grand serio-comic Romance in two Acts. Written by* FREDERICK REYNOLDS. *The Music by William Reeve.* 8vo. pp. 46.

IT is curious enough that the principal personage in this "grand serio-comic romance" should be omitted in the dramatis personæ! Carlo—the dog Carlo who has brought so many good houses

Digitized by Google

CHAPTER XII.

ROMANCES AND NOVELS.

IT is a singular circumstance, that the once popular, but, of late years, almost forgotten romance of Amadis de Gaul, should have been brought to public notice by two writers in the course of the last year. To Mr. Southey we are indebted for a compressed prose translation of the whole; and to Mr. Rose for a metrical version of the first part of this celebrated work. Of the novels which have appeared since the publication of our last volume, we have selected *Delphine*, translated from the French of Madame de Stael, and *The Depraved Husband*, originating also from a French female writer; because, from their popularity, we suspect that they have already done some mischief, and, if not timely opposed, may be productive of more. *Miss Riversdale's Letters*, the *St. Clair* of Mrs. Helme, and *Thaddeus of Warsaw*, by Miss Porter, are added to our list, as the best among the many incentives to idleness, which the last year's stock of the circulating libraries can exhibit.

ART. I. *Amadis de Gaul: a Poem, in three Books; freely translated from the first Part of the French Version of Nicholas de Herberay, Sieur des Essar, with Notes. By* WILLIAM STEWARD ROSE, *Esq.* 12mo.

THIS venerable romance has been chiefly known to the public through the medium of Mons. de Tressan's French judgment. Although we admit that Tressan's lively talents, as well as the extent of his researches into ancient lore, have never been quite satisfied with the romances, and particularly with his Amadis. It is difficult, perhaps impossible, for any Frenchman so absolutely to forget his country, his age, and above all his own dear person, as to execute a good and sustained picture of former manners. Above all, the solemn and dignified stile of chivalry, exalted too often by the formality of the Spanish character, sits awkwardly upon the Parisian man of fashion. It is a masquerade disguise which he finds it impossible to maintain with uniformity; and he therefore ever and anon lifts the mask, slides into a *bon-mot*, a compliment, or a trite sentiment about *la belle humanité*; all which is utterly inconsistent with the grave and masculine manners of the knights and dames of old, and with the corresponding tone of their historians. Impressed with these feelings, it is with great pleasure that we behold an emulation among the English literati to restore to his pristine honours Amadis de Gaul, the model of romance and flower of knights errant. The public have been at the same time favoured with a poetical version of the first book by Mr. Rose, and with a prose translation of the whole four books by Mr. Southey, of which in our next article.

Amadis de Gaul differs from most romances of chivalry in the unity and simplicity of the plot, and affords at the same time a greater display of the author's inventive powers. The numerous romances of the Round Table, as well as those of Charlemagne and his Paladins, concern a set of actors, to each of whom earlier tales, or perhaps remote tradition, had already affixed a local habitation and a discriminate character. The story, therefore, frequently referred to older romances on the same subject,

upon which it was founded, or with which it was connected, and was of course in itself imperfect and desultory. But in Amadis de Gaul the whole history, the dramatis personæ, nay often the very scene of action, is the pure invention of the author from the stores of his own imagination. Hence his work in this particular has more the plan of a regular epic than the Orlando Furioso itself. Mr. Rose seems to have been struck with these advantages, and impelled by them to the task of translating into English verse the first book of this admired work, which, as it concludes with the consummation of the loves of Amadis and Oriana, is easily separated from the other three, which terminate with their marriage. The translator has chosen the common heroic stanza, of which he has displayed a pleasing command: perhaps we might, from early association, have preferred that of Spenser and Fairfax, dedicated, as it were of old, to record feats of chivalry, but Mr. Rose may shelter himself under the authority of the late Mr. Way, and the more venerable example of Dryden. We proceed to analyze the fable, intermingling some specimens of the poetry.

Garinter, an ancient monarch of Brittany, had two daughters; the eldest was married to the king of Scotland, the second, named Eliseni, was termed the *Lost Recluse*, on account of her devotion to religion. Garinter in hunting sees a valiant knight beset by two felon barons, both of whom fall under his single arm. He accosts the victor and invites him to his court; upon the road the stranger again signalizes his prowess, by slaying a lion. The knight proves to be Perion, king of Gaul; and during his residence at the court of Brittany, he captivates the affections of the *Lost Recluse*. At a stolen midnight interview their faiths are solemnly pledged, and Amadis owes his birth to the meeting. Perion returns to Gaul, upon hearing tidings of his father's death, under the solemn promise of claiming the hand of Eliseni as soon as his kingdom should be settled: but he is prevented from executing his purpose, by a "tide of strange adventures." Meanwhile the Lost Recluse is in the utmost danger from a rigorous law, which sentenced to death every maiden who violated the laws of chastity. By the prudent intervention of her confidante, she is delivered of a male child, the famous Amadis, who is placed by the attendant in a small cradle, containing his father's sword and other tokens of recognition, and thus launched into the ocean. The cradle and its contants are rescued by Gandales, a knight of Scotland, when returning in a galley to his native country. The infant Amadis, named the Child of the Sea, is educated with Gandalin, the son of his foster-father. Meanwhile Perion finds time to wed publicly the Lost Recluse. A damsel appears suddenly before him, and in mysterious language announces the chivalrous prowess of his sons. The fair Eliseni bears another son, named Galaor, but he also is lost to his parents, being carried off by a giant. Meantime the mysterious damsel appears to Gandales, declares herself to be a fay or fairy, named Urganda the Unknown, and foretells the renown of the Child of the Sea. That noble youth being accidentally noticed by his aunt, the queen of Scotland, she requests he may be sent to court. Here Amadis first sees the lovely Oriana, daughter of Lisvard, king of England, who becomes the unrivalled lady of his affections. He receives the honour of knighthood from the hand of his own father, Perion, who comes to Scotland to request aid against the invasion of Abyes, king of Ireland. Amadis sets out to join the Scottish army raised for this purpose. On his way he receives a lance from Urganda, with which he frees his father, Perion, imprisoned by a false old knight, and abolishes the evil customs of Galpan, a lawless baron, who, not content with oppressing knights and dishonouring damsels, was wont to impose upon them certain hard and intolerable conditions. By these atchievements the renown of Amadis is highly exalted, when attended by Gandalin, his foster-brother, now acting as his squire, he joins the Scottish succours, and reaches Brittany. In a desperate battle the Irish prove successful, notwithstanding the prodigies of valour atchieved by Amadis and his father. But the issue of the war being pledged on a single combat betwixt the young hero and the Irish king, the latter is slain by Amadis, and the invading army retreat with his dead body. His victory is followed by a discovery of our hero's birth, in consequence of the tokens with which he was exposed being recognized by his mother. Shortly after this happy event, Amadis departs for England, under pretence of seeing the court of king

Digitized by Google

Lisvard, but in reality again to enjoy he society of the lovely Oriana. In assing a forest he again meets Urganda, whom he renders an essential service, nd by whose direction he bestows the rder of knighthood upon a youth, who roves to be Galaor, his own brother. roceeding on his adventures, he is be- ighted near a castle during a heavy orm.

"Gay glittering forms athwart the case-
ment glance,
nd loud resounded minstrelsy and dance;
ong at the gates he shouted, in the sound
f mingled dance and song his cries were
drown'd:
t length a voice, 'I wot some craven knight,
ome losel vile that fears the face of light;
ence from my gates! hence while unscathed
ye may,
nd bless thy dole that sent thee not by day.'
'Caitiff accursed,' made Amadis reply,
Bereft of grace, devoid of courtesy,
ifi let my blazing torches lend their light,
d take my fierce defy to mortal fight.'
Bethinks me, sir,' the taunting churl re-
plied,
lore ire than wit thy random speech doth
guide;
th screech owls and ill-omen'd birds of
night
age not, I, unprofitable fight.
so it please thee ill-advised remain,
bide the piercing cold and pelting rain,
eftsoons as Aurora's dawning light
ll serve to guide my conquering arm aright,
wish'd for tho' it come, I ween the day
ll ill the night's bad harbourage repay.
hold thine host excused if he retire
nd the festive dance, to joy the lyre,
with fair dames the spicy goblets quaff:'
aid, and ended with a churlish laugh."

madis, repulsed from this inhospit- castle, finds shelter in the pavilion damsel, where he learns that the lish castellan, Durdan by name, on a certain day to maintain by bat in the lists, the right of his pa- our to certain fiefs and lands pos- d by another lady. It will readily uessed that Amadis appears as the rse champion, and discomfits the urteous Durdan. He is welcomed Lisvard, but more tenderly in a te interview with Oriana.

Say, lordings gay! say damsels bright in
bower!
reap love's sweets, and own his magic
power,
t blissful thoughts these faithful lovers
share?
ceaseless transports joy the tender pair?
ll too faint the poet's art, I wis,
int in seemly guise their rapturous bliss."

After some stay at King Lisvard's court, Amadis resumes his profession of knight-errantry, and encounters Arcalaus, redoubted as a knight, but yet more terrible as an enchanter, in his own castle. Our hero, successful in the combat, is nevertheless imprisoned in an enchanted chamber in the castle; and Arcalaus, clothed in his arms, repairs to the court of Lisvard, and announces his having slain the heir of Gaul. The consternation of the court, and the despair of Oriana is soon removed by the appearance of Amadis himself, liberated from the dungeon by the superior spells of Urganda. Meanwhile an old man with two knights, to whom he was apparently captive, enters the court of Lisvard, and commits to that monarch's care a splendid crown and mantle, desiring that they should be restored on the next plenar court-day, or that the king should in lieu grant him a boon. The old man and his attendants accordingly appear at the *cour pleniere*, and the king, unable to produce the treasures (which had been stolen from his custody by enchantment), is compelled by his knightly faith to grant the boon demanded, which is no other than the surrender of Oriana to the strangers. The obligation of the "boon granted" (*don octroyée*) permitted no evasion, and the princess was delivered up to the disguised Arcalaus, by whose art this stratagem had been executed. Amadis was not in court when this extraordinary scene took place; but, apprized by his faithful squire, he waylays the ravishers, and dealing among them death and discomfiture, rescues from their hands the beloved Oriana. A bank by a fountain engages the lovers to rest on their return to London. Here the lovely princess becomes conveniently and obstinately drowsy, though Amadis attempts to awake her by the most endearing caresses.

"Or slept the damsel still, or paused the
knight,
I wot not, I: wo worth the daring wight
Who steals on hymen's joys, and boldly wrays
Fond love's mysterious rites to vulgar gaze!
But sooth to say, if still soft slumber weigh'd
The drooping eyelids of the royal maid,
A dream of more than mortal joy, I wis,
Lapt the sweet damsel's every sense in bliss."

With the mutual happiness of the lovers concludes this elegant version of the first book of Amadis. Mr. Rose's

Digitized by Google

style, which is simple without meanness, and from a judicious intermixture of ancient words, has an antique and interesting cast, is well suited to the nature of the subject. Among these phrases we observe the verb *gar, (to cause to do,)* which we believe is exclusively a Scottish expression, and therefore should not have been used. An occasional monotony occurs in the poem, which we conceive to arise from Mr. Rose having chosen to abridge certain parts of the narration, which he could not avoid alluding to for the sake of distinctness, and which his plan did not suffer him to dilate into description. All mere narrative conveyed in verse has a cold and creeping effect. In those passages where Mr. Rose has given more rein to his imagination, the descriptions are natural and spirited, and the adventures well selected. We think, however, more use might have been made of the volatile Galaor, whose fickleness in amours forms, in the original romance, such an admirable contrast to the fidelity of his brother. Notes are added to this pleasing poem, in which Mr. Rose displays considerable acquaintance with the manners of the middle ages and the laws of chivalry. Two elegant imitations of Ovid, entitled, "Elisena Perioni," and "Guendolena Locrino," are prefixed to the poem. They are the contribution of the honourable William Herbert, the friend of the author.

ART. II. *Amadis de Gaul: by Vasco Lobeyra. From the Spanish Version of Garciordonez de Montalvo. By* ROBERT SOUTHEY. 4 vols. 12mo.

THIS article is so intimately connected with the last, that referring to our account of the first book of Amadis, as versified by Rose, we proceed with the story of the following three books from the prose translation of Mr. Southey.

While the enchanter Arcalaus was practising his ineffectual stratagem upon the peace and honour of Oriana, he had organized against Lisvard a grand revolt headed by a false traitor, named Barsinan. Amadis was mean time engaged in delivering the princess, and in reaping the reward of his victory; but his brother Galaor suppressing by his valour this formidable insurrection, the court of Lisvard was restored to safety and splendour by the united exertions of the brothers of Gaul. Amadis, to increase his renown, seeks to accomplish the adventure of the Firm Island, an enchanted domain, containing certain perrons (pillars), by which the fidelity of lovers might be ascertained. The probationers were able to advance only in proportion to the warmth and constancy of their affection, and the ground of trial was terminated by a most splendid apartment, which was only accessible to the most valiant knight and the fairest lady in the universe. Amadis penetrated into this beautiful chamber, and was acknowledged as their lord by the inhabitants of the Firm Island. While he was triumphing in his conquest, he received an unexpected and heart-rending letter from Oriana, who, by a concurrence of circumstances, had been led to believe him false to her love. Her letter branded him with disloyalty, and forbade him ever to appear before her. The superscription, like that of Don Quixote's letter from the Sierra Morena, bore these words: "I am the damsel wounded through the heart with a sword, and you are he who wounded me." Amadis, on receiving this letter, abandons his conquest in despair, and betakes himself to a solitary island, or rather insulated cliff, called the *poor rock*, where he does penance with a hermit until he is reduced to death's door. Oriana, however, being at length undeceived, discovers with difficulty his retreat, and commands him to live for her sake. The obedient knight recovers at his lady's command, and repairs again to the court of Lisvard, where he performs miracles of valour in defence of the English monarch, which are duly rewarded in secret by his grateful daughter. Meantime certain envious courtiers excite a jealousy of Amadis and his friends in the mind of Lisvard, who, forgetting his own character and their services, treats them at first with coldness, and at length with absolute injustice and contempt. Fired at this usage, Amadis himself, the knights of his kindred, and many others, whom he had subdued by arms or attached to him by courtesy, renounce formally the service of Lisvard, and retire to the Firm Island. Amadis himself, incapable of making war upon the father of Oriana, wanders through the world under various disguises, quitting his arms and cognizance as soon as his great deeds had

Digitized by Google

made them distinguished, and assuming others which were till then unknown. He even comes to the assistance of Lisvard when sorely distressed by his enemies, and with his father and brethren aids him in procuring a decisive victory. But Lisvard, hardening his heart against conviction, refuses to receive Amadis to favour, and he leaves Britain in despair, narrowly escaping the snares of Arcalaus, by whom he was again imprisoned. Meanwhile Oriana is secretly delivered of a son, named Esplandian. The infant is carried off by a lion, but is finally reared by a holy hermit, called Nasciano. Amongst the subsequent adventures of Amadis, that of the Endriago is distinguished for its wildness. This monster was born of a giantess, by incestuous commerce with her own father. The idols whom its parents glutted with human sacrifices conferred on their unnatural offspring the strength and courage of a lion, the wings and talons of a griffin, and the free-will of a human being. Its first exercise of its privileges was to suck some five or six nurses to death, shortly after it slew its parents, and finally it laid waste the island where it was born, which from that time was called the Devil's Island, the body of this monster being tenanted by a foul demon. Amadis, on hearing this history, landed on the isle, and, attended by his squire Gandalin, went in quest of the monster.

"The Endriago came bounding over the rocks, but fiercer and more terrible than ever; and the reason was, that the devils seeing how this knight put more trust in his mistress Oriana than in God, had power thereby to enter it and make it more terrible, thinking that if that knight perished there would be none other so bold as to attack this monster. The Endriago came on, breathing smoke and flames of fire in its fury, and gnashing its teeth, and foaming and rustling its scales, and clapping its wings, that it was horrible to see it; and when the knight saw it and heard its dreadful voice, he thought all that had been told him was nothing to what the truth was, and the monster bounded towards them more eagerly, because it was long since it had seen a living man. But the horses took fright at seeing it, and ran away in spite of all the knight and Gandalin could do: so the knight dismounted and said, 'Brother, keep you aloof that we may not both perish, and see what success God will give me against this dreadful devil; and pray to him to help me, that I may restore this island to his service, or if I am to die here to have mercy upon my soul: for the rest, do as I have said before.' But Gandalin could not answer for exceeding agony, for assuredly he thought his master's death was certain, unless it pleased God miraculously to deliver him. The green-sword knight then took his lance, and covered himself with his shield, and went against the Endriago as a man already dead, but without fear. The devil seeing him come, snorted out fire and smoke so black and thick that they could scarcely see one another; and he of the green-sword went on through the smoke, and drove at the monster with his lance, and by great good fortune pierced it in the eye; it caught the lance with its talons and bit it into pieces, and the iron and a fragment of the stave remained driven in through its tongue and the skin of the throat, for it had sprung on upon it, thinking to seize the knight, but he defended himself with good heart seeing his exceeding peril, and the shock of this wound repelled the monster; and the blood ran fast, and with the shrieks it gave ran down its throat and almost choaked it, so that it could neither close its mouth nor bite with it. The knight then drew his green sword and struck at it, but the blow fell upon its scales and felt as though it had fallen upon a rock, and it made no impression; the Endriago thought then to grasp him, but only caught his shield, which it plucked so fiercely that he fell upon his hands, but he recovered, while with its talons the monster rent the shield to pieces. He then, seeing that his shield was gone, and that his good sword availed him nothing, knew that he had no hope unless he could strike the other eye. Now the Endriago was faint and weak with its wound, and our Lord having wrath that the wicked one had so long had the dominion over those who, sinners as they were, believed his holy catholic faith, was pleased to give the knight strength and especial grace to perform what else, by course of nature, could not have been done. He aimed his sword at the other eye, but God guided it to one of the nostrils, for they were large and spreading, and so hard he thrust that it reached the brain, the Endriago itself forcing it on, for seeing him so near it grappled with him and plucked him towards itself, and with its dreadful talons rent away the arms from his back, and crushed the flesh and bones to the very entrails: but being then suffocated with its own blood, and the sword being in its brain, and above all the sentence of God being passed upon it, its grasp released and it fell like one dead, and the knight plucked out his sword, and thrust it down his throat till he killed the monster. But before its soul departed, the devil flew from its mouth, and went through the air with a great thunderclap."

After this horrible adventure, in which we acknowledge the bold imagination of the old romancer, Amadis continues to

Digitized by Google

signalize himself by various deeds of prowess. Meanwhile Lisvard, blinded by ambition, betrothes his daughter Oriana to El Patin, emperor of Rome, thinking by that means to secure the succession of his crown to his younger daughter, whom he especially favoured. As this was contrary to the feudal establishment, his best counsellors and vassals remonstrate against it, but in vain. Oriana is embarked on her journey to Rome, when the Roman fleet is attacked by that of the Firm Island, totally defeated, and the princess carried to the island in triumph. Lisvard levies an army to avenge this insult, and two desperate battles are fought betwixt him and the knights of the Firm Island. At length, however, by the intervention of the hermit Nasciano and that of the young Esplandian, the loves of Amadis and Oriana become known, and a reconciliation being accomplished betwixt him and Lisvard, both armies turn their swords against Arcalaus, who had hovered in the mountains to assail them when exhausted by mutual wounds. The romance concludes with the final defeat of the false enchanter, and the triumphant entry of Oriana into the forbidden chamber, by which the enchantments of the Firm Island were terminated; but above all with the marriage of Amadis and Oriana, the boldest knight and the most beautiful damsel in the universe.

From this meagre sketch the reader may perceive at least the unity of the story of Amadis, in which all the adventures combine as directly to the same grand end as in the wrath of Achilles, or the wanderings of Ulysses, sung by the earliest romance writer, as well as the most sublime poet of antiquity. But the liveliness of the subordinate adventures of Don Galaor, together with the pointed discrimination of the inferior characters, can be only learned from the work itself. We venture to say that those who seek mere amusement will not be disappointed of their aim; and that those whose object is information, may learn more of the manners of chivalry, as well as of the structure of the ancient romance, by an attentive perusal of Amadis, than by a [illegible] modern essays. We gre[illegible] stile in which Mr. [illegible] is executed. Di[illegible] modernizing w[illegible] being ancie[illegible] of language perfectly intelligible to modern readers, but from the arrangement of the sentence and the occasional use of phrases, which, though not obsolete, are at least antiquated, he has united clearness with an appropriate and venerable cast of antiquity. Mr. Southey's original intention seems to have been to correct and republish the old English translation of Anthony Munday, but he judiciously exchanged his plan for a new version of the Spanish original, with the use of a copy of which he was accommodated from the valuable collection of Mr. Heber. The work is shortened, but not abridged. All unnecessary recapitulation and circuity of expression is avoided or condensed, and thus without omission of a fact or sentiment, the translation is one half shorter than that of Munday.

Some preliminary remarks are given by way of preface, in which Mr. Southey ardently maintains that Amadis de Gaul was first written in the Portugueze language. The authors of that nation (with a single exception) claim it as the original composition of Vasco Lobeira, a valiant knight of Lisbon, who flourished during the reign of King Joam, and died at Elvas in 1403. The Portugueze edition of Lobeira is not now known to exist, the earliest version being executed by Garciordonez de Montalvo, a Spaniard, who professes to have compiled it from ancient histories. We do not think that Mr. Southey has clearly made out Lobeira's title to be the original author, at least in the strictest sense of the word. Nicolas de Herberay, Sieur des Essars, who in 1574 executed a French translation of Amadis from the Spanish of Montalvo, says, that he had seen a remnant of an old MS. on the same story, written in the Picard language, from which he thought that the Spanish authors had made their translation. Mons. de Tressan, after describing the collection of French romances lodged in the library of the Vatican by Christina of Sweden, affirms positively that he remembers there to have seen Amadis de Gaul written in very ancient French, being what Herberay described as the Picard language, the dialect of Picardy corresponding precisely to the [illegible] latter part [illegible]istus, and [illegible]L. and of [illegible]dedication [illegible]ovatido

Digitized by Google

p. 5. Corps d'Extraits des Romans, tom. iii. p. 4. Fontenelle Theatre, tom. iii. We do not think that the direct testimony of these two witnesses (Frenchmen although they be) to the existence of a work which they themselves saw, can be weighed down by the negative affirmation of the Portugueze writers. But enough of praise will remain to Lobeira, if we suppose it was he who first modelled the romance into its present shape; and in this view his inventive powers will deserve as much praise, as if he had not assumed for the groundwork the rude lays of some ancient French minstrel. Had Milton executed his projected epic upon the story of Brutus, the tale of Geoffrey of Monmouth would have little injured his claim to originality.

Mr. Southey in his preface touches upon the endless continuations, so inartificially tacked to the original Amadis by a herd of Spanish imitators. In these ill-adapted supplements, which swelled to an immense size, the dignity of the original Amadis was inflated into the most insupportable bombast, the wildness of his magic into puerile *diablerie*, nay the morals were depraved, although Herberay tells us, "*toutefoys ils ne sont a rejetter; car il se trouve maintes bonnes exemples, qui peuvent servir pour la salvation de noz ames.*"

Our limits would be exceeded by further commentary on this interesting article. In our opinion, the public is much indebted to Mr. Southey for restoring to general inspection what may be justly termed a classical romance of the first order, while the *raciness* of the original is so admirably preserved, that but for the introduction, the modern orthography, and the modern type, we could have believed it written under the auspices of the house of Tudor.

ART. III. *Sappho; after a Greek Romance.* 12mo. pp. 310.

WIELAND, in the preface to his Peregrine Proteus, assures us, that he enjoys the possession of a talent in common with the renowned spirit of Swedenborg, by virtue of which his soul transports itself at times into the company of departed persons, and according as it is inclined, can either hearken unseen to their conversations with each other, or if it chooses, can join in conversation with them. Wieland has often exercised this faculty with the greatest advantage; for whenever his soul, after any of its visits to the departed shades below, or the Olympic gods above, returns into its earthly body, we are made very accurately acquainted with the conversation that passes among philosophers and moralists, and even among the immortals themselves.

The author of the present volume has thus endeavoured to transport his readers into Greece, and introduce them to the company of the Lesbian muse. We meet her at dinner, we meet her at supper; we listen to her conversations with Eutychius and Nomophilus, and among other important subjects, hear discussed with becoming gravity and seriousness, the grave and serious questions "whence arises th[illegible] with which we behol[illegible]" "why, during the so pleasing to as[illegible]y hearth?" These [illegible] length, and thus is the knotty question solved: "I believe, answered Nomophilus, that it is from the varying motion of those objects; and if such be the case, he continues, with much facetiousness, "let us go in quest of fresh amusement from motion and variety—having remained here long enough!"

The story of Sappho is doubtless well fitted to be the ground-work of a romance; but in such hands as those of Wieland, it would have been made the vehicle also of much critical and philosophic learning: here it is a mere story. The author has scraped together what history has recorded of this unfortunate female, for the sake of effect has added a few circumstances from the stores of his own fancy, and altogether produced a decent novel for the shelves of a circulating library.

If history has not left it quite certain whether Phaon was insensible to the ardour of Sappho's passion, or unfaithful to his vows, the testimony in favour of the latter opinion certainly preponderates.

"*Cantabam: memini (meminerunt omnia amantes)*
Oscula cantanti, tu mihi rapta dabas,
Hæc quoque laudabas; omnique a parte placebam
Sed tunc precipue, cum fit amoris opus."

Ovid agrees with those who assert that she lost her parents when very

Digitized by Google

young; and if not a wife, that she was at least a mother:

" Sex mihi natales ierant, cum lecta parentis
Ante diem lachrymas ossa bibere meas."

\- - - -

" Et tanquam desint, quæ me sine fine fatigent
Accumulat curas filia parva meas."

HEROID XV.

Our author, on the contrary, makes Sappho a virgin; leaves her father and mother alive, and disconsolate at her flight into Sicily; and although Phaon is related to have received his death from the hand of an enraged husband, who surprized him in bed with his wife, he is here represented as most conscientiously insensible to the caresses of Sappho, his faith being pledged to a rival virgin!

Some authors have supposed that the beautiful ode which is preserved in Longinus, was addressed to one of her female favourites; but the writer of this volume asserts, " that none of these scandalous histories have record or repute in Mitylene:" he has, therefore, translated this ode, and made Sappho address it to Phaon.

" As blest as a goddess is she,
Who, sitting beside thee awhile,
Can hear thy sweet converse, and see
Thy face that enchants with its smile.
" Yet this of its ease robb'd my heart;
For, when lovely Phaon was nigh,
My tongue not a word could impart,
Its accents half-utter'd would die.
" Flames subtly pervade ev'ry vein;
Mine eyes with thick mists, swimming round,
All dark on a sudden remain;
Mine ears in deep murmurs resound:
" Cold dews o'er my body prevail;
I tremble quite through me and sigh;
My cheeks like sick roses grow pale;
And, breathless, I fancy I die."

That any body should satisfy himself with this sing-song ditty, after the glowing version of Ambrose Phillips, or the more close but less spirited translation of the same fragment by Mason, is perfectly astonishing! The translation of the Hymn to Venus is in a better style, but will not bear a comparison with that of Ambrose Phillips.

ART. IV. *Thaddeus of Warsaw.* *By* MISS PORTER. 12mo. 4 vols. about 220 pages each.

THE high spirit of patriotism which animates the bosom of Thaddeus, could not have been more opportunely displayed than at this moment, when the alarm is revived of a meditated invasion from the most implacable and unmerciful of foes. Historical truth is in these pages made the handmaid of fiction: Miss Porter, desirous of pourtraying a character, which prosperity cannot intoxicate nor adversity depress, has chosen magnanimity as the subject of her story. Nowhere have the reverses of fortune given more ample scope for the display of this virtue than in Poland, whose unassisted sons struggled valiantly for her independence, and were afterwards doomed to grace the victorious car of their barbarian conquerors. Miss Porter has introduced some of the leading characters and events in the last hapless efforts of that ill-fated country: he who can read the exploits of a Kosciusko and a Sobieski, without feeling his bosom warmed with the generous emotions of patriotism, would hear the beat to arms in defence of his own shores with a cold and insensible heart.

We cannot for one instant doubt but that *our* resistance will be more successful, and that France will lead her ineffectual hordes to disgrace, discomfiture, and death; but in order to give additional vigour and effect to that resistance, let the massacres at Ismael and Prague be present to our recollection. The blood-stained hero of those scenes, indeed, is gone to answer for his guilt; but there is a living likeness left behind him, who would revive those scenes in all their horror: should his foot reach England,

" The thirsty entrants of this soil,
Would daub her lips with her own children's blood."

Far is it from us to insult the misfortunes of a fallen man, but we cannot think the unhappy Stanislaus deserves all the encomium which Miss Porter bestows on his character: his intentions were benevolent, and he wished to save the lives of his subjects. But through age, probably, and infirmity, his mind had lost its vigour at that momentous crisis, when more than its pristine vigor was demanded. When at a council of deputies he laid before them the dispatches of the empress, and determined

Digitized by Google

to surrender at discretion, she hould have put himself at the head of his army, he should have recalled to memory the unconquerable valour of La Valette, and he would have found that the nobles of Poland could emulate in intrepidity and persevering courage, the brave knights of Malta: *perhaps* Suwarrow and Brinicky might have retired abashed, like Mustapha, and Hassem, bearing back to Catherine, as these did to Solyman, the ghost of a departed army!

In Vol. II. p. 191, Miss Porter has unaccountably attributed Ambrose Phillips's translation of Sappho's celebrated ode, to Mr. Addison.

ART. V. *Very Strange but very True! or the History of an old Man's young Wife. A Novel. By* FRANCIS LATHOM. 12mo. 4 vols. about 240 pages each.

MR. LATHOM is a gentleman who very frequently amuses himself in writing novels and plays. We have read some of his productions, and they have generally evinced a fertility of invention, rather than any refinement of taste, or cultivation of the understanding. His forte is low humor. In the present instance he has descended to mere vulgarity: the characters here introduced are to the last degree unnatural, the story and the incidents equally improbable. We regret that Mr. Lathom should waste his time and talents in this manner: instead of writing a foolish novel once a month, if he studied character with attention, and gave himself time to mature his plans, rather than trust to his invention as he proceeds, we are inclined to believe that he might produce something which would do him credit. That he should not perceive how much he lowers himself in the public eye by writing such stuff as this, is *very strange but very true.*

ART. VI. *The Depraved Husband and the philosophic Wife. By* MADAME GENLIS. 12mo. 2 vols. pp. 325.

MADAME GENLIS has endeavoured to shew the absurdity and viciousness of what is called *modern philosophy*, by exhibiting characters in which its principles operate in full force. We have several novels on this thread-bare subject in our own language, far more ably executed than the Depraved Husband and the Philosophic Wife, which is as dry and uninteresting a *lecture* as we ever read.

ART. VII. *Estelle: a Pastoral Romance. By M. de Florian, Member of the French Academy, and of those of Madrid and Florence. Embellished with seven Plates. Translated by Mr.* MAXEY.

TO translate, though a humble, is not always an easy task. "Grace," as Florian justly observes in the introduction of this very work, "is not translatable;" and grace is almost the sole merit of Estelle —grace too of a kind so purely French, that the author himself could not have transfused it into another language.—The plot of this romance is equally Gallic with the style, and most peculiarly uncongenial to English feelings.

The childish fondness of Estelle and Nemorin has ripened, on their attaining the age of sixteen, into a passion which *of course* is pronounced invincible. The father of Estelle then induces Nemorin to banish himself from his fair shepherdess and his native village, by acquainting him that he had promised an old friend on his death-bed to marry her to his son. The shepherdess *virtuously* consents, without a moment's hesitation, to obey her father, by resigning her hand to one man, while she cherishes in her heart the fondest passion for another. Circumstances, however, occur to delay this horrible marriage; and the supposed death of the father, and the absence of the intended husband, leave Estelle at liberty to contract herself to her first love. In vain! the old man comes to life again, the young one returns, the *submissive* damsel receives this *qui pro quo* without a murmur, and the wedding is concluded. We must not, however, partake the despair of our disappointed hero; to husbands in the situation of Meril, it is, indeed, "dangerous to take a cold, to sleep, to drink," how much more to go into battle! Meril is killed: the heroine in a very *curious* soliloquy on his grave, informs the hero and the reader that he had been her husband only in name, and that her heart is unchanged. She insists, however, on mourning her full year, with an attention to punctilio truly admirable

in so fond and so simple a shepherdess: after this, hands are joined, and all parties made happy.

We have detailed the story of this romance thus fully, for the purpose of exposing the false and dangerous principles of conduct adopted even by those French writers who seem to pique themselves on decency and morality; for, by how many besides Florian, is the "legal prostitution" of a marriage, against which the heart revolts, cried up as the most heroic of sacrifices, at the same time that the first love is represented as unconquerable, and the obstinate perseverance in it, after the most sacred vows have been exchanged with another object, this adultery of the heart, is made the test of exalted sentiment, and a soul superior to the common kind! Thus, by an absurd and cruel contradiction, the most amiable characters are rendered at the same time the slaves both of duty and passion, on the success of which attempt, "to serve two masters," the manners of modern France afford an ample comment. Wiser was the attempt of Madame de Genlis utterly to expel the tender passion from the female bosom at least, in a state of society which afforded scarce a hope of its innocent gratification! Wiser still, and much more consonant with the best feelings of our natures, is the system of the English law, which, by restricting the authority of parents within moderate bounds, and enabling young persons to follow, in a considerable degree, the dictates of their own hearts, spares the anguish of concealed and hopeless love, while it checks the frenzy of illicit passion.

Long may the indulgence of our laws guard the strictness of our manners; and while we spurn our neighbours' fetters, on one hand, let us not adopt, on the other, that unbridled licentiousness which slavery has produced, and slavery alone can palliate.

We are not displeased to conclude this article, by pronouncing, that the execution of the translation is little calculated to recommend the design of the original. The prose is very bald *French English*, and the verse is contemptible.

ART. VIII. *St. Clair of the Isles; or, the Outlaws of Barra, a Scottish Tradition.* By ELIZABETH HELME. 4 vols. 12mo.

AMID the masses of dulness and vulgarity intruded on the public under the title of novels and romances, it is not a little refreshing to us to meet with any thing that relieves our weariness, and interests our feelings. The demand for works of this class is much too large to be entirely supplied by first-rate artificers; when, therefore, a piece comes to hand, free from stain and mildew, and turned out in a conscientious and workman-like manner, we are eager to recommend it to our customers, even though it should be found deficient in perfect symmetry of pattern, exquisite brilliancy of colouring, and laborious accuracy of finishing.

The tradition on which the romance before us is founded, possesses both interest and novelty: the characters are sketched with considerable strength, and blended and contrasted not unhappily. The scene is laid in North-Britain, during the 15th century; but the manners and language are those of an age and nation much more refined than Scotland under the two first Jameses. This is a kind of anachronism, however, which it would be idle to represent in a heinous light, when the genuine language of the country could not be understood by an Englishman, nor the unvarnished manners of the times tolerated by a modern.

The style of Mrs. Helme is deficient in grace, in polish, and sometimes in grammar; but it is clear and unaffected, and displays the fluency of a practised writer, though not the accuracy of a scholar. The heroine may be thought somewhat too forward, and more eager than beseems a modest damsel to share the fortunes of "a banished man condemned in woods to roam."

But on the whole, we may promise the readers of these volumes a considerable share of entertainment, enjoyed free of expense to morality, propriety, or common sense.

ART. IX. *Letters of Miss Riversdale, a Novel,* in three Volumes, 12mo. about 370 pages each.

THIS novel is not to be confounded with the vulgar trash of the day: the author is one of those who have seen the *mores hominum multorum & urbes*, and who

has not suffered the advantages of an extensive intercourse with mankind to pass unheeded away. In a sort of prefatory advertisement some anxiety as to the success of this 'artless tale' is expressed, from the prevailing taste of the day for the marvellous dramatic; contrary to the usual mode of dressing fiction in the semblance of truth, we are told, that in the present instance pains have been taken to dress truth in the garb of fiction; "still it is fiction so devoid of adventure, so little deviating from the natural result of the genuine workings of a susceptible mind, that its chief claim to interest must rest upon the corresponding emotion it will excite in every unsophisticated honest heart." The mere story, indeed, is so extremely simple, that we should convey a very inadequate and injurious idea of this novel by a dry and meagre relation of it: Miss Riversdale, who addresses these letters to her absent brother, is at a very early age impressed with a deep sense of gratitude to Colonel Malcolm, for the parental guardianship which he assumes over her conduct. Young, beautiful, amiable, and accomplished, protected only by a mother, who for the advantage of conferring on her daughter an unexpensive education, had left her native country and retired to Geneva, Miss Riversdale is exposed to the flattery of fops, and the artfulness of knaves. Malcolm warns her of the danger, but his friendship is not perfectly disinterested: the charms of his protégée make an impression on his heart, and notwithstanding the very great disparity of years between them, he is induced, from the frequent and sincere expressions of esteem and gratitude which had flowed from her lips, to hope that he may have inspired her with a more tender passion. She admits his addresses; but the colonel, with an honest and an honourable heart, is haughty, coarse, and intemperate: his love degenerates into jealousy, and the workings of this turbulent and detested passion are strikingly pourtrayed in the character of Malcolm. His suspicions are excited to the very highest pitch by the assiduities of Prince Polinski, a most accomplished character, into whose company Louisa Riversdale is frequently thrown, and to whose talents, virtue, and grace of body and of mind she is far from being indifferent.

To the unreasonableness of his jealousy in its commencement, Colonel Malcolm might fairly have attributed the too just grounds for it which now existed: it had so frequently hurried him into violence, and even brutality of behaviour towards Miss R. that all her friends were alarmed at the certain misery which awaited her. The attachment of Miss R. indeed had been so sensibly weakened, that she had unguardedly expressed a conviction that the fulfilment of her engagement with the Colonel would make her wretched; nevertheless, she says, "I must abide by it; from the dictates of honour there is no appeal." Under such an impression, happiness in the marriage state is not to be looked for; and Lady Riversdale, without the knowledge of her daughter, addresses a letter to Colonel Malcolm, who is at Venice, stating the situation of Louisa's feelings, and throwing her upon his honour for releasing her from an engagement which she is determined to fulfil, although it blasts every hope of happiness. The colonel, before he replies to Lady R. writes to Louisa, incredulous that her affections were so estranged: "no pen but your own shall make me believe it. I await my fate at your hands."

Lady Mary Melville is a character who effectually forwards the action of the piece here: in earlier life she had been fascinated with the accomplishments of Colonel Malcolm, who was not equally sensible of her charms. The brother of Lady Mary, a Scotch gentleman of fortune, who affectionately sympathized with his sister's sufferings, had deviated from the ordinary delicacies which prohibit the unsolicited avowal of a female passion, and had gone so far as to make overtures to the colonel in behalf of one who had

> "let concealment
> Like a worm i' the bud, feed on her damask cheek."

The colonel, however, was too much a man of honour to bestow his hand where he could not give his heart: a sincere friendship had nevertheless been cultivated between them, and some recent acts of disinterestedness on the part of the lady, had given it additional force and ardor. Our readers will not fail to recognise in this story some of the features of Clementina, in Sir Charles Grandison.

Digitized by Google

At the time that Lady Riversdale addressed her letter to the colonel, Louisa was confined to her bed at Paris, in so dangerous a state of illness, that it was not even thought prudent to indulge her with the perusal of any letters which were sent to her; of course she was unable to answer any. Colonel Malcolm considered her silence as a confirmation of the mortifying intelligence he had received from Lady Riversdale, to which, therefore, he now returned an answer, releasing Louisa from an engagement which appeared to her so pregnant with wretchedness. At the same time he addresses a letter to Lady Mary Melville, complaining of the treatment he had received, and expressing his regret that he had not been more sensible of the honour done him by her partiality, at a time when it offered a prospect of the steady and unalloyed satisfaction for which a rational man ought alone to look in a matrimonial connection. He states that rejected, cast off, as he now is, it would be an insult to court her acceptance of his hand, intimating, however, at the same time, that the slightest encouragement would bring him to her feet. Lady Mary immediately writes to Miss Riversdale for an explanation of the mystery: the favourable impression which Colonel Malcolm had made on her heart is indelible; but she has too high a sense of honour to accept of his hand, without previously informing herself from Louisa's pen, of the circumstances of the case. The same illness, however, which incapacitates Louisa from answering the colonel, incapacitates her from answering Lady Mary, who draws a similar inference from her silence; and is prompted to return a flattering answer to the long-lost object of her affections, telling him that if his proposal is not solely dictated by anger against Miss Riversdale, but really arises from a wish to pass his life with a woman, whose every thought will be subservient to his pleasure, she is ready to convince him that her affection is of that generous sort which only seeks the happiness of its object, and that he may command her hand whenever he pleases to call for it.

It must be acknowledged that the god of silence is not called in here to accomplish a difficulty unworthy of his interference. The author, indeed, must have been a good deal puzzled to get Louisa out of the scrape, and tie the hands of the colonel before he had recourse to so singular a corresponce as that which produced the present happy extrication. We consider this as one of the clumsiest manœuvres in the novel; it has a number of excellencies, but is not without faults, some of which we shall notice as we proceed.

After a very lingering illness, Louisa at length recovers, and goes into company; this gives the author an opportunity of shewing his intimacy with Parisian manners and characters, which indeed are sketched with a very skilful hand: he is master of colloquial French, and seems to be versed in the idiomatic niceties of the language. The conversations with which the novel abounds are extremely characteristic: as the subject of the following, which takes place at the English ambassador's hotel, is generally interesting, we shall give it as a specimen:

"At dinner the conversation was uncommonly brilliant, chiefly supported between the Marchioness and Mr. Stanville; she speaking French, he English. Wit sparkled on both sides, but I thought a great deal of what Madame de Stanville said borrowed its prettiness from the language in which it was spoken; while Mr. Stanville lent a grace to his expresions, of which I was not aware the English language was susceptible. His selection of words is very striking; for, without the smallest degree of pedantry, he says the very commonest things in the very best possible manner, and seems indeed, as you say, to have a turn of thought peculiarly his own.

"The tone of his voice appeared to me also singularly pleasing. I should think his persuasion would be irresistible—what influence must his oratory derive from this in the house of commons! Did you ever hear him speak, Henry?

"The conversation at one time took a political turn, and Madame de Sainval having expressed a curiosity, in regard to the different merits of some of the most admired speakers; Sir George said, that Lord N——'s fort seemed to lie in the clearness of his financial statements, and the simplicity of his arguments, never weakening their force by superfluous declamation.

"Add to this his extraordinay self-possession, and peculiar felicity in warding off the scurrilous invective with which he is frequently attacked," said Mr Stanville, "I can often fancy I see his guardian angel perched upon his shoulder, and whispering in his ear the best possible reply upon every occasion. Then, his pleasantry so conciliating; his ridicule enlivening, without irritating the house—the very objects of it join-

Digitized by Google

ing irresistibly in the laugh; his wit is phosphoric, brilliant, without being caustic."

"*Comment!*" interrupted Madame de Sainval, "*on se permet dans votre grave parlement de faire de l'esprit? j'aurois crue que ce seroit un crime de lèse-raison.*"

"You would perhaps on the contrary, think it usurped a portion far too considerable of the debate," replied Mr. Stanville, "if you were to hear the splendid, figurative, animated imagery of B——, soaring away from his subject, till it is scarce possible for the mind's eye to follow him; quoting from Lucretius, Hudibras, Cicero, Rabelais, or an old ballad, with equal readiness."

"But all this occasionally so interlarded with puerile pathos, and vulgar scurrility," said Sir George.

"That arises from want of taste, not of powers," Mr. Stanville replied.

"Digressions without end," continued Sir George, "the apparent conclusion of his speech starting into the exordium of another, like Ovid's Metamorphoses; in short, I am come to consider his rising to speak, merely as a signal to adjourn to the beef-steak room; and so, I'll be sworn, did the better half of the members, when they nicknamed him the dinner-bell."

"I believe it may be fair to say of him," rejoined Mr. Stanville, "that for good, bad and indifferent he has not his equal. There is a mixture of delight and disgust in hearing him, which seems to endue the ear at once with the centripetal and centrifugal motions; at the same time, his mind is perfectly electric, for upon the slightest friction, it pours forth a stream of intellectual light."

"Which so completely dazzles his devotees," interrupted Sir George, "that they are ready to subscribe even to his judgment."

"The ambassador thought, that, as a finished orator, Mr. P—— soared above competition.

"Mr. Stanville admitted his talents to be refined, versatile, and polished. His flowery, harmonious periods, his nice selection of apparently unstudied phrases, his inexhaustible copiousness are very striking; and that perspicuity of diction, which seems to express his ideas with such clearness."

"*Seems* to express?" interrupted the ambassador.

"Certainly only *seems*, for upon a moment's reflection, you will commonly find it impossible to attach any precise meaning to it."

"But this I take to be a peculiar art, for which I give him great credit," contended the ambassador; "for you will allow, that when it suits his purpose to be fully understood, he can state the most complicated business with the clearest accuracy."

"So that your lordship values his powers of language," replied Mr. Stanville, archly, "in proportion as they serve to disguise his meaning?"

"This occasioned a general smile. Mon-

sieur de Sainval, who from having served in America, understands English, and speaks it with tolerable fluency, observed, that he had always conceived British orators above every sort of trick themselves, while they so constantly affixed that epithet as the stigma of French politics.

"We have an old adage which may account for it," said Sir George, "mocking is catching."

"Mr. Stanville good-humouredly seeming to wish to do away his friend's bluntness, said, "there are certain *ruses de guerre* admitted in all governments; and I do not mean to detract from abilities so conspicuous as Mr. ——'s in particular; I have always admired the never failing felicity, with which he improves to his own advantage, the slightest opening given by his antagonist."

"But observe," said Sir George, "whether it be ever possible to carry away, or quote any thing from his speeches."

"No, they certainly are characterised," Mr. Stanville replied, "by a languid, glittering verbosity, which fills the ear without satisfying the mind. How strikingly contrasted with the energetic, commanding, impassioned eloquence of his rival! which at once convinces the understanding, and seizes upon the heart."

"Ay, there indeed," exclaimed Sir George, "are candour and acuteness, joined to sound judgment, depth of thought, and force of logic, unequalled."

"His elocution level to every capacity," rejoined Mr. Stanville; "never seeking for a word to embellish his period, but enlisting and disciplining the commonest in a moment, to charge in the ranks, and bear down all opposition. He proves the irresistible power of luminous common sense, leaving all the little arts of debate at a distance, and stands forth alone the *Orator of Reason*."

"There I recognize the true English character," said Madame de Sainval, "and I judged your whole parliament to be so composed."

"You did us too much honour, indeed," replied Sir George, shaking his head. "One such man in a century would be sufficient to support the dignity of the human race! You'll allow him to be phosphoric and electric too, Stanville?"

"He," exclaimed Mr. Stanville, with an enthusiasm that well became him!—"His oratory is the effulgence of the meridian sun, darting the ray of unsophisticated reason around, and shedding intellectual day."

"Upon my soul, you are inspired, Stanville!" cried Sir George, looking delighted with the brilliancy of his friend's observations.

"*Et inspiré encore par la raison, dénuée des graces!*" added Madame de Sainval, smiling, "*cette grande triste raison—si froide—si âpre—si peu inspirante—quel miracle!*"

"Perhaps, upon *better* acquaintance with

Digitized by Google

her, you might think more favourably," said Monsieur de Sainval, with a degree of archness which I did not think he had possessed. Her eye struck fire as she glanced at him; and the 'retort' *not* 'courteous,' I believe, was rising to her lips; but Mr. Stanville averted it by observing, that Madame de Sainval would not easily find the opportunity of improving an acquaintance, which her appearance was so likely to put to flight.

"Mr. Stanville's wit, like Midas's touch, has the property of converting all to gold. It would not readily have occurred to any one else, to turn the mere repetition of a reproach into a compliment," replied the Marchioness smiling, who required but the moment's reflection, to curb her displeasure, for which he had given her time; she added, "I may be excused, if I fail in the accurate appreciation of *un personnage de trop mauvais ton*, to be admitted into French good company; but I will trust to my Louisa for putting me in the way *de lui faire réparation d' honneur* in England; where I expect to find her presiding at every tea table—*et puis, nous irons aussi entendre ces miracles au parlement; n' est, ce pas-mon cœur?*"

"I said, I was afraid she must take them upon trust, for I had understood that women were now excluded from the gallery.

"To the eternal disgrace of our gallantry, I confess it," the ambassador said. "*Ah, les Ostrogots!*" cried Madame de Sainval. "No wonder that reason should have power, where women are inadmissible."

"Would any of us have dared to utter such an implied sarcasm on the sex?" exclaimed Mr. Stanville. "In virtue of my claim, as its professed champion, I beg leave in our parliamentary language, to offer an amendment, by substituting the word *graces*, which, however it may strike us all *at this moment*, to be synonimous with woman, will certainly rescue a part of the sex at least, from the severity of Madame de Sainval's remark: which will then be reduced to this political axiom, 'that the triumph of reason can only be secured by the exclusion of the graces.' And this is undoubtedly the principle upon which those senators acted who voted the ladies out of the gallery."

Mr. Stanville, whose conversational talents are here displayed with so much brilliancy, is the brother to Lady Belford: the charms of Louisa Riversdale make a deep impression on his heart, nor on the other hand is she by any means insensible to the polished manners, the cultivated understanding, and the splendid abilities of Mr. Stanville.

The character of Louisa is too susceptible: she transfers her affections from one object to another with a facility which derogates from that exalted dignity with which the author intended to endow her. She is very young, indeed; not eighteen, but the author has conferred on this girl of eighteen all his own powers of discrimination, his own insight of character, his own accuracy of judgment, and maturity of reason.

It will here be very naturally asked what became of Polinski? the ardent lover, the accomplished prince? Louisa had given him unequivocal acknowledgments of the impression which his varied accomplishments had produced in her bosom. When he quitted Geneva, where he could no longer remain the tortured witness of her impending misery as the wife of Malcolm, he was permitted to correspond with her. What becomes of Polinski? Louisa is liberated, and his own engagement is also at an end: the lady to whom he was betrothed, it seems, thought he was dilatory in coming to claim her promised hand, and therefore conferred it on another. Once more, then, what becomes of the prince? had absence cooled his ardour, or had the charms of some third beauty fascinated his affections? No: but we are incidentally informed, not from the best authority indeed, that the only impediment to offering his hand where his heart is so entirely devoted arises *from the difference of religion*: but for that he would immediately have flown to the feet of his charmer: In this abrupt manner is Prince Polinski driven off the stage: his character is drawn with a great deal of spirit, we are interested in his fate, and he ought not to have been dismissed with so little ceremony. The difference of his religion and Louisa's must have been perfectly well known to him at Geneva; so that our author has been as unsuccessful in extricating himself from this scrape as he was in the other.

Mr. Stanville, then, is the next object of Louisa's love: but an unfortunate amour has implicated his honour, and he struggles boldly, but ineffectually to resist the impression of her charms. The story of Agathe, who has been the unhappy victim of Stanville's impetuous passion, is extremely beautiful; it is told with simplicity and feeling, and is altogether full of interest. But here again the author entangles himself in a net which he is obliged to break in order to escape from: Agathe is the mother of a babe of which Mr. Stanville is the father. Her disgrace is concealed in a convent in the south of France. Louisa Riversdale cannot accept the hand which, upon every principle of honour and duty,

must be the exclusive property of another! The sacrifice is mutual, and after having loitered away a considerable time in England with Louisa, who had now settled in her native country, it is determined that Mr. Stanville should confer the only reparation in his power on the girl whom he had seduced, namely, by marrying her. But it is clear that this would have been a miserable termination of the story: if Stanville had married Agathe, the heroine of the novel would have been left in the lurch—a poetical injustice quite inadmissible. How then is the difficulty obviated? Stanville sets out for France with the most honourable intentions, *but*—an unfortunate *but*—

"Upon his arrival at Languedoc, he was refused admittance to Agathe, whose letters had uniformly breathed impatience for his presence, and dependance upon him alone for restoring her to peace and reputation. He obtained an interview with the friendly cousin, who explained to him, that however steady the affection of Agathe had continued, his long absence and frequent delays, had at length given efficacy to the remonstrances of the confessor, who held out the veil as the only adequate atonement for her fault; which, so far from being expiated by marriage with a heretic, would, on the contrary, he insisted, endanger the eternal salvation not only of her own soul, but of that of her child."

Mr. Stanville actually returns to England without seeing Agathe, contenting himself with addressing a letter to her, expressive of his solicitude for her happiness! It is needless to add, that he marries Louisa.

The conduct of Mr. Stanville is very inconsistent with that high sense of honour which is represented as his ruling principle of action. In the rapid sketch here given, we have also noticed some other inconsistencies; but the novel is notwithstanding very far above the ordinary salmagundies that assume this name. A considerable knowledge of the human mind is displayed, and of foreign and domestic manners: fashionable vices are severely satirized, and virtuous sentiments and honourable feelings are every where inculcated.

ART. X. *Amelia Mansfield. Translated from the French of Madame C* * *, Author of Malvina and Claire d' Albe* 12mo. 4 vols. about 280 pages each.

THIS is one of those performances which are difficult to characterize without entering fully into their merits: Madame C. has endeavoured to shew, that "the most venial love may lead to unhappiness," that "pride will harden the heart and mislead the judgment." And are four volumes required to establish such a truism as this? The following is a brief outline of the story:

Amelia Mansfield is the grand-daughter of the Count de Woldemar, who, proud of belonging to a family which had given sovereigns to Saxony and Poland, determined to inflict an exemplary penalty on any of his descendants, who should contaminate the blood of his illustrious ancestors by a plebeian alliance. After having united his only son, Baron de Woldemar, to the haughty heiress of the Counts of Kybourg; and his two daughters, one to the Count de Lunebourg the father of Amelia, and the other to Baron de Geysa, his next object was to arrange the future marriages of his grand-children. Finding no better alliances than those which might be contracted within the circle of his own family, he made a will, by which he declared his grandson, Ernest de Woldemar, heir to his title and fortune, provided that he should marry Amelia de Lunebourg, his grand-daughter. In case of Amelia's refusal he disinherited her, transferring her portion to Blanche de Geysa, his other grand-daughter, on the same condition; and if Ernest refused to marry either of his cousins, he then gave his title and property to Albert de Lunebourg, Amelia's brother, provided however, that he took the hand of Blanche de Geysa.

Amelia, the heroine of the piece, is an amiable, mild, and susceptible girl, while Ernest, her betrothed husband, exhibited when a lad so proud, domineering, and ferocious a temper, that she shrunk with horror from the alliance which her grandfather had prescribed for her, and determined never to submit to the odious bondage.——This determination was strengthened by her affection towards a young man, Mr. Mansfield, who was on a visit to her father; a man whose engaging manners and various accomplishments, forming a striking contrast to the brutality of Ernest, soon fascinated the yielding fair one. In short, they married: the pride of the family was not to be violated with impunity; the persecu-

tion, however, of Madame de Woldemar, the mother of the disappointed Ernest, is carried to an improbable excess. It is perfectly extravagant. The young couple live very happily at the chateau of Amelia's brother, Albert, during a twelvemonth: Mr. Mansfield, at length, grows tired of seclusion among Bohemian mountains, is ever devising excuses for occasional absence, becomes dissipated, debauched, and is killed in a duel which he fights with a Russian officer, about some singer with whom they are both in love. Amelia, with her child, a little boy, is left exposed to the unabated fury of her family, consoled, however, by the kindness of her brother Albert.

By and by she accepts a pressing and affectionate invitation from her husband's uncle, Mr. Grandison, to pass her time with him, at Belinzonna, a small town in Switzerland, whither he had retired after a laborious life at sea. Amelia's days roll on very tranquilly here: Albert, says she, in a letter to her brother,

"I grow more and more attached to my uncle, and his kindness seems to increase in proportion. The winter is set in here: the roads are covered with snow, and the avalanges often carry away in their fall, trees, cottages, and even the inhabitants. My uncle is wholly employed in preventing and repairing the melancholy accidents which so frequently happen in these parts. In a journey that he took last winter across the Alps, he stopped several days with the monks of Mount St. Bernard. He was so much pleased with the utility of their establishment, that he immediately took the necessary steps to form a similar one here, and he is now busily employed in carrying his plan into execution. He has erected, at proper distances, on the great road which passes the château, high poles, to point out the path through the snow: to these poles are fixed great bells, in order that travellers who lose their way may, by ringing them, obtain quicker assistance. We have a dog trained to the discovery of those who are bewildered, in this hoary labyrinth; and, night and day, six men alternately watch, to succour any who may be in danger. I know that money alone could furnish all this, and though we might applaud the man who should apply it to such a use, yet if he were contented with giving his orders, and not seeing himself to their execution, the project would not be worthy of Mr. Grandison. More than once I have seen him, at the sound of the signal of distress, fearlessly put himself at the head of his guides, for the purpose of encouraging them. Every day his house is the asylum of some wandering travellers: if they are poor, he gives them money; if rich, he lends them mules to convey them to Bellinzonna. All bless him, and call him, next to Providence, the greatest friend of the unfortunate. I cannot express to you how much this practical benevolence endears my uncle to me, and adds to the agreeableness of my present abode."

Ernest had already set out on his travels before the marriage of Amelia: he had now attained his manhood, seen various courts, and is represented as having in a great measure overcome his native impetuosity of temper. His pride had been so deeply wounded at Amelia's refusal of his hand, and her preference to one of the untitled vulgar, that he meditates a deep and diabolical revenge. He had heard of her retirement at Bellinzonna, and determined, under the disguise of a private gentleman, to introduce himself, secure her affections, and seduce her.

One pitiless night, after Mr. Grandison had retired to his chamber, Amelia heard the sound of one of the alarm-bells, swinging at intervals, upon the wind. It was with difficulty, and only after repeated entreaties, that she could persuade her uncle's guides to face the sleet, and risk their own lives among treacherous drifts of snow, in order to follow the cries of distress, and succour the lost travellers. They turned out, however, and after a long and perilous search, came back with some travellers who had been on the point of perishing. Mr. Semler was the assumed name of one, who had violently sprained his foot, in assisting his servant: he is confined some days to his bed, in the hospitable chateau of Mr. Grandison, attended by Amelia Mansfield. This Mr. Semler is no other than Ernest himself, who was traversing the mountains in disguise, for the accomplishment of his foul purpose. Amelia's kindness melts all his revenge: he writes to his young friend and Mentor, Adolphus de Rheinsberg, in strains of the utmost contrition and self-abasement, for his meditated perfidy towards the most virtuous, accomplished, and enchanting woman, that ever trod upon the surface of the earth. He had anticipated, with a devilish delight, the ruin of a female, against the influence of whose charms, the remembrance of an imaginary offence, he thought, would completely have secured him. He sees her, and is subdued! So many years have elapsed, that he continues under the same roof with his betrothed Amelia, and no feature, no tone of voice, no gesture

brings to her recollection the altered Ernest, the son of her relentless enemy, Madame Woldemar. A reciprocal attachment succeeds to mutual attention, and offers of kindness; the pride of Ernest prompts his flight, but his fondness detains him. He writes in the most peremptory tone to Adolphus, that the widow of Mansfield shall never become the wife of Ernest. He is aware that the hateful name of Amelia is never pronounced in the ears of his mother, without reviving emotions of inexorable anger: he is aware that the knowledge of his attachment would excite the deepest indignation; and that his marriage with her would call down a mother's curse, and be the occasion probably of her death. This is extravagant and improbable enough of all reason; but it is absolutely necessary, in order to place the hero and heroine in those critical and conflicting circumstances, without which every body knows that a novel would be unpardonably dull and stupid. Every thing, it is clear, must be sacrificed to the interest of a novel. The author who cannot excite and preserve interest by the delineation of a natural character, and the detail of probable circumstances, makes no scruple of peopling his pages with such monsters either of perfection or iniquity, as the world never saw.—Opposite and irreconcileable passions are blended and amalgamated to produce a *tertium quid*, a third something, which, however ridiculous, from its absurdity, shall at any rate make an impression by its novelty.

As to contradictory oaths, they are too common in real life to be the subject of censure in a novel; but we must go on with the story, and defer our remarks till we come to the end of it.

Ernest, under the name of Mr. Semler, passes several months at the chateau of Mr. Grandison without exciting suspicion. His fondness for Amelia cannot conquer his aversion for her child, the hated offspring of his hated and successful rival, Mansfield. When he sees the mother caressing her infant, he often behaves rudely; but even this is set down to a mere whimsicality of character, unaccountable indeed, but not sufficiently odious in the sight of Amelia, the amiable, mild, and *susceptible* Amelia, to counteract the impression of his seductive accomplishments. In short, under the platonic guise of friendship, she falls desperately in love with the stranger. Living under the same roof, their reciprocal attachment cannot long be concealed from each other, and Ernest, maddened with the requital of his passion, now writes to Adolphus, that no power on earth, no consideration of duty or of pride, shall avail to prevent his marriage.

Mr. Grandison, who feels the sincerest interest in every thing which concerns his beloved Amelia, and who saw very clearly the attachment which had taken place between the young persons, waits not for solicitation, but makes an offer of his niece's hand, with an ample portion of his own fortune, to Mr. Semler. Ernest, when the cup of happiness was presented to his lips, refused to taste it: the recollection of his mother's antipathy to the object of his profoundest love and adoration, (he had not seen his mother for ten years!) induces him to decline the proffered bliss. Grandison, exasperated that Amelia's affections should be thus perfidiously sported with, without listening to any explanation, instantly turns his guest out of doors, with ignominy and in anger. In this forlorn situation Ernest forgets his birth, forgets his mother, forgets every thing but Amelia: he contrives to send her a note, intimating, that unless she meets him on the terrace at twelve o'clock that very night, to take leave of him before his departure to Woldemar, in order to obtain his mother's consent, the consequence will be fatal. Alarmed at this 'dreadful note of preparation,' Amelia proceeds to the spot, where she finds her Semler in a state of insensibility: he had been waiting an hour, and in the noble violence of his distress, he had gnawed the stone on which he had reclined his head. "In my impatient rage," says he in his letter to Adolphus describing his situation,

"I tore my hands with the gravel against which I pressed with all my strength; and this laceration, which I was unable to feel, was, nevertheless, the means of softening my anguish. The clock struck twelve: each stroke was a dagger to my soul. Had I remained in that situation another hour, Amelia would have found me lifeless at her door. I began to lose my recollection, and my distracted brain confounded all the surrounding objects, while grief remained like a dead weight on my heart. On hearing a slight noise at the door, every limb trembled; but, however singular it may appear, instead of listening attentively, the fear of destroying the hope I had just begun to indulge, induc-

Digitized by Google

ed me to cover my head with my cloak. In this situation I was found by Amelia, who, terrified at seeing me motionless, stooped down, and fearfully uncovering my face: 'Henry, what do you desire of me? I am here.' At the sound of that voice I underwent an entire change; the world, in which I was, disappeared; my heart became light and tranquil; a celestial vision snatched me from the torments of hell, to transport me into the regions of bliss; but this instantaneous removal from one extreme to another, had like to have proved fatal to me: I thought the moment of death was arrived; I was unable to breathe. Placing the hand of Amelia on my heart,—'Restore me,' said I, in a voice scarcely audible, 'or receive my last sigh.' And I again fell lifeless on the stone. Oh, how powerful is love! She, who, but a few minutes before had been feeble and languid, no longer felt her indisposition nor her weakness: she raised me up, supported me to her chamber, placed me in a chair, and pressed me to her bosom. I felt her tears, they drew forth mine, and life returned.—Amelia fell on her knees, in gratitude to heaven. In extending my hand to her, she remarked it was bloody. 'Oh, my Henry!' cried she, 'What has happened to you? Speak; remove my fears.'——'While you were absent, Amelia, I cannot say what may have taken place: I was labouring under the weight of a frightful dream, in which I could neither see nor feel any thing, but the fear of having lost you for ever—You suddenly appeared, and it was too much for me—But, my Amelia, is it not enough, that in you, as in Heaven, all is good, compassionate, delightful; and that your tenderness is now unreserved.'——'It is, my Henry, and to grant you my confidence, I need not the explanation of the miserable state to which you were reduced: you love me, that is sufficient; the world contains nothing of equal value to me.' Transported, I clasped her in my arms, and felt her heart beat against my own. Never was such beauty seen before! Her brilliant eyes swam in an ecstasy of delight! 'I call Heaven to witness, that I will ever be your's: to you I devote the remainder of my life. Swear you will be mine, and accept my vows.' She complied.

"O, Adolphus! Providence has proportioned our felicity to our pain; but love has more joys than sorrows, and this moment was not bought too dear."

In short, like another Julia, our heroine could resist the ardour of love, till he disguised himself in the shape of pity. *Je me sentois troubler de ses transports, ses soupirs oppressoient mon cœur; je partageois ses tourmens en ne pensant que les plaindre. Je le vis dans des agitations convulsives, prêt à s'evanouir à mes pieds. Peut-être l'Amour seul m'auroit épargnée; o ma cousine! c'est la Pitié qui me perdit.*

Ernest makes his escape from the polluted chamber of Amelia before daybreak, and flies to Woldemar for the consent of an inexorable mother. Her inflexibility drives him to madness; the dread of her suspended curse on the one hand, and his ardent love for Amelia on the other, which he had repeatedly sworn should be sanctioned by marriage, induce a delirium. His situation becomes more and more alarming every day: he is unable to write to Amelia, who on her part becomes suspicious, from his silence, that she has been the victim of some foul seducer. Day after day, week after week rolls on, and she hears nothing of her lover; at length, in the anguish and distraction of her mind, she leaves her uncle, she leaves her child, and wanders about in the hopes of finding him. She learns that Semler, who had afterwards assumed the name of Adolphus, is in reality no other than Ernest. She follows him in disguise from place to place: at Vienna, on learning that he is to be present at a masked ball, she gains admission in a domino, watches his motions, hears indistinctly some earnest solicitations which he makes to Blanche, and in a fit of unfounded jealousy, slipping a note into his hand, signifying that Amelia is convinced of his perfidy, she plunges into the Danube. Ernest rushes after her through the different chambers of the palace, and the different streets of the town: sees her struggling with the waves, and brings her almost lifeless to the shore. She is recovered, however, and becomes doubly sensible of the fidelity of Ernest: she is taken to the hotel of Madame Woldemar, whose indignation is rekindled. Her brutal behaviour, in short, superadded to the fatigue of body and affliction of mind to which Amelia had long submitted, is too much for her feeble frame; she sinks under it, and the unhappy Ernest, clasping her lifeless body, expires also in an agony of distress.

This work bears marks of talent, but it abounds with improbabilities and extravagancies. It cannot escape the most superficial observer, that the object which Madame C** professes to have had in view is totally lost sight of. "I have endeavoured," says she, "to show to what a pitch of unhappiness love, *even the most venial*, may lead." Rather ought she to have said, my intention is to shew the complicated crimes which follow from the guilty indulgence of an ill-fated passion.

Digitized by Google

The misery which Amelia suffers flows not from her venial love and legitimate marriage with Mansfield: he dies in a very short time after it had taken place, and she has a babe to employ her affections, and sooth her grief. She retires to the house of a generous and kind uncle, who anticipates every wish she has, and with whom she lives in the utmost harmony and happiness till her connection with Ernest.

Here we feel ourselves called upon to reprehend, with great severity, the voluptuous and exciting language in which this scene is depicted. From the pen of a female it is doubly poisonous.

This unfortunate Amelia, for whom our compassion is endeavoured to be excited in every page, had by her sentiments already prepared us for her fall. In one of her early letters to her brother, where she is describing Mr. Semler, she says,

"Albert, I am too well acquainted with love to mistake it. That word, which Mr. Mansfield sounded so sweet, I now repel with horror. Far from being pleased when that passion is descanted upon, I feel uneasy, as long as it is the subject of conversation. Nor is this all, my dearest brother! for that is only a disorder of the mind, which time may cure; but a reason exists, that will always preserve me from again being in love: a reason which I could wish to conceal from myself, and which I could not resolve to tell you, but to convince you of my unalterable determination. It is, that dire experience has inspired me with such an invincible horror of those ties, from which you expect all your happiness, that were I so unfortunate as to love again, and that I must either submit to a union with the possessor of my heart, or devote myself to his embraces——death would be my only resource; but were death denied to me, I am doubtful if my heart, if reason itself would side with virtue."

Amelia's regrets, too, are less for the offence than the consequences of it: her sentiments, in the letter which she writes to Adolphus, vol. iii. p. 3, *& seq.* are extremely immoral, and the language of the lovers speaks less for the purity of the author's imagination, than for the warmth and excitability of her passions. "Oh Adolphus!" says this Heloise to her St. Preux, "would you believe it, all I reproach myself with is to have embittered your delight by my melancholy." This refers to an allegation which it is not for us to repeat. Again she says, "do not, I beseech you, endeavour to persuade me I am not guilty. I wish to know that I am so—it is sweet to be so for you. The forfeit of my life for you would be nothing; but to yield up my innocence, to forfeit the esteem of the public, these are sacrifices which I glory in making, since these alone can prove the excess of my fondness! Yes, in the infatuation which possesses me, I find a pleasing satisfaction in thinking, that it is for you that I am lost; and in alienating from me every virtuous mind, I detach myself from the whole world, that I may exist only by my love."

This is that *venial* love which leads to such unhappiness: Amelia, the amiable Amelia, in whose mind and person are assembled all the virtues and all the graces, is not restrained by the consideration that she is already a mother, by the very presence, perhaps, of her child, from disgracing her character, and bringing disgrace upon her progeny. Her amorous feelings are more powerful than her maternal ones. This object for whom Madame C * * * endeavours to excite such deep commiseration, leaves her child, and bearing an unborn one in her bosom, makes an attempt to commit suicide!

"Oh, but Amelia Mansfield is a novel that can do no harm—look at the moral of the story; she dies in the deepest distress, and together with her seducer, pays an ample forfeit for her offence:" such is likely to be the apology for these pages, which we cannot but warn our readers against as dangerous; for it is our most decided opinion, that a syllogistic moral, a dry mathematical inference, is utterly incompetent to destroy, or even to weaken the evil tendency of immoral sentiments, lascivious descriptions, and exciting scenes. On a former occasion, we stated our determination to give open warning, "if any thing tainted, any thing unwholesome should be brought to market." We have performed this duty on the present occasion, and painful as it is, we will at all times perform it with the most scrupulous fidelity. There is something treacherous about this novel: under the pretence of instilling virtuous principles, it is calculated to enflame the passions of young persons, and corrupt their morals; there are many, very many pages in it, which we should shudder to see under the perusal of our daughters.

There are several minor faults in "Amelia Mansfield," whilst many parts do credit to the skill of the author. The character of Madame Woldemar is unnatural to the last degree: in this coun-

Digitized by Google

try, at least, we may venture to say it never had a prototype; among the Saxon nobility perhaps it might. The character of Adolphus, too, a moralizing pedagogue, is somewhat extravagant; he is so strictly virtuous that, on discovering he is a bastard, he deserts his mother, and declines to close her dying eyes. Perhaps Madame C * * * intended that we should extract a moral, too, from the conduct of this *virtuous* youth; perhaps she meant to shew us that the mother who brings an illegitimate child into the world, must expect that he should pluck by the roots all filial affection from his bosom, and fling it in his parent's face! An exquisite lesson!

Adolphus's letter (vol. iv.) to Madame Woldemar, in reply to one where she had desired him to use treachery towards his friend, contains many fine sentiments, powerfully expressed. Several of the conversations between Amelia and Semler are good, and his preparation of Amelia for the disclosure of his real name, his attempt to efface the odious remembrance of one which had already caused her so much persecution, is managed with great art. Indeed if there had not been a display of considerable talent we should have apprehended less mischief, and less pains than we have now taken would have been sufficient to expose and counteract it.

ART. XI. *Delphine: a Novel. By Madame* DE STAEL-HOLSTEIN. *Translated from the French.* Three vols. 8vo.

THIS novel has attained a celebrity much beyond its merit. It is the production of a lady connected with some conspicuous men in France, and its personages have by some been supposed to be the representations of real characters. This, therefore, must have been the cause of that avidity with which it has been generally received here and on the continent; an avidity which has given rise to two English translations, one in six volumes, and one in three. But let not the reader, who dreads wading through six volumes, therefore have recourse to the three, for he will find that these contain as much as the six—it is a mere mechanical compression—alas, our weary jaws declare that none of the yawn-exciting redundancies have been lopped off. Our objections to the novel are two, its dullness and its immoral tendency. We do not mean to say that it is uniformly fatiguing throughout, but are glad to acknowledge that there are passages which excite a strong interest, that the story itself is not ill imagined, that there is novelty, to an English reader at least, in one or two of the characters, and that if it had formed one volume instead of six it would have been read with interest, and have produced a considerable effect. The story is simply as follows: Delphine, at the moment of its commencement, is supposed to have been married when very young to Mons. d'Albemar, a respectable old man, who leaves her at the age of twenty a widow with a considerable fortune. Madame de Vernon, a cousin of the deceased Mons. d'Albemar, has an only daughter, Matilda de Vernon, whom she wishes to marry to Leonce de Mondoville, but despairs of getting his mother's consent unless Matilda can bring with her a considerable marriage portion. Delphine, conceiving herself to be in some degree bound to make up for the neglect of her husband to his relations, and having at the same time a passionate regard for Madame de Vernon, though she scarcely feels any kindness for Matilda on account of the want of sympathy in their characters, presents her with the Andelys estate, and in consequence the marriage treaty goes on between the two mothers. The novel commences with the intelligence of the approaching arrival of Leonce from Spain to marry Matilda, and the very first letter, which is from Delphine to Matilda, begins thus: "I shall be extremely happy, my dear cousin, if I can promote your marriage with M. de Mondoville." Yet after having done all in her power to effectuate this match, she herself, the disinterested, amiable, philosophical Delphine, actually falls in love herself with Leonce, not at first sight but before she has ever seen him at all. She hears a high character of him from his tutor, Mr. Barton, a grave personage (who very foolishly hints to her that she would suit his pupil better than her cousin) and immediately falls desperately in love with him. Intelligence arrives of his having been assassinated in his passage over the Pyrenees, and of his lying at the point of death at Bayonne: in consequence of this Delphine exclaims,

"Yes! if he dies, I will devote to him the worship of my heart; I will fancy that I

Digitized by Google

have loved him, that I have lost him; and I will be faithful to the memory which I shall ever retain of him: it will be a pleasing sentiment, the object of a melancholy untainted with bitterness. I will request his picture of M. Barton; and I will ever preserve it, as the portrait of a hero in romance, of which the original no longer exists. I had already for some time begun to lose the hope of meeting a man who should possess all the affections of my heart: the matter is now reduced to certainty; and that certainty is all that is required, to resign myself in peace to advancing old age."

It appears to have been the intention of Madame de Stael, to exhibit in the two characters, of Matilda and Delphine, the effects of Christianity and Deism on the human character. They are both young and handsome women, but while all the graces of character are lavished on Delphine, every effort is made to render Matilda cold, unattractive, and even disgusting. Not so Rousseau—enemy as he at times was to the Christian religion, he yet makes Julie the most amiable of women, and when she dies, what deist does not admire her truly christian end!

Leonce recovers of his wounds, arrives at Paris, and, of course, falls in love with Delphine instead of Matilda. Now comes on the charming play of sentimentality: while she even makes him the first avowal of love, (p. 158.) while, she gives him every encouragement, passing hours and hours of the utmost confidential intimacy with him, she would not, on any account whatever, jilt her cousin, Matilda; her union with Leonce is to be that of kindred minds alone! a mere refined Platonic attachment! It happens, however, that Madame de Vernon (whose character is drawn in a very masterly manner, and is by far the most striking of any in the work) has the sagacity to discover the alienation of Leonce from her daughter, and the address to destroy for the moment his attachment to Delphine, by artfully exposing some of her imprudent conduct to him. This leads us to notice the very blameable conduct of Delphine, in the affair of Theresa d'Ervins, a married woman, who has imbibed a most violent passion for M. de Serbellane. When this adulterous attachment is first made known to Delphine, by Mons. de Serbellane, instead of manifesting the indignation which a virtuous christian woman would not have failed to have done, she recommends Theresa to the protection of her paramour.

"Yes!" said I 'I shall not be afraid to demand of the man who has seduced her, to act as her guide and her brother, in this critical situation. Theresa is more impassioned than you: she loves you more ardently than you love her: it is therefore your duty to direct her: the one of the two parties who cannot live without the other, is the party subject to the other's dominion. Theresa has neither relatives nor friends in Paris: do you watch over her with the care of a generous and affectionate protector: repair the wrongs you have done to her, by those virtues of the heart which are all the offspring of kindness.' I felt myself animated as I spoke these words, and laid my hand on M. de Serbellane's arm: he took hold of it, and approached it to his lips with an expression of feeling, of which Theresa alone was the object."

After some time this intrigue is discovered by the husband, and Delphine is guilty of the astonishing imprudence, to say the least of it, of permitting the lovers to have a parting interview in her house. This is discovered by the husband, who bursts into the room, and demands instant satisfaction of M. de Serbellane. They adjourn to a proper place, and the poor husband receives his *satisfaction*, that is to say, he is run through the body, and expires on the spot. By an act of generosity, on the part of Delphine, Theresa's reputation is saved, at the expence of her own: Mons. de Serbellane is supposed to have been concealed in her house as her lover: and the duel with M. d'Ervins is attributed to a political dispute: Delphine confides to Madame de Vernon the care of informing Leonce of the real state of the case, which she engages to do, and then wilfully neglects. In consequence, the impetuous Leonce, the victim of jealousy, instantly marries Matilda. In process of time, the treachery of Madame de Vernon is discovered, and then the smothered flame of Leonce's love bursts forth again with double fury. A reconciliation soon takes place between the lovers—they meet daily, pass hours alone together. Delphine glories in her love for the husband of her cousin, and satisfies her conscience with the hope that Matilda will remain ignorant of the attachment, and with their mutual determination that the connexion shall be purely spiritual. The consequences are sufficiently obvi-

Digitized by Google

ous; the fleshly man soon prevails in the impassioned Leonce, and it is not a little curious to observe how a female author, in a work meant for general reading, treats so delicate a subject. Delphine attempts to save herself in a way, in which, we believe, woman's virtue never was saved; namely, by throwing herself completely on the mercy of her lover. A more effectual method of preserving her chastity is, however, adopted by the penitent Theresa, who desires to expiate her own guilt by dedicating the remainder of her life to the service of God, in a religious community, and who prevails on Leonce and Delphine to be present at her religious profession. She avails herself of this solemn occasion, to make a most impressive appeal to their consciences, and at the moment of her quitting the world for ever, she conjures them to save their souls by renouncing a dangerous and criminal attachment, and prevails on Delphine to consent to fly all future intercourse with her lover. They are left alone in the church, and then ensues a scene which, we dare say, the author imagined to be very fine and impassioned, but to us appears no better than the raving and ranting of mad people.

"Let us remain here,' said I to Leontius: 'let us rest near the dead.'—'No,' said he, which still vibrates through my frame, 'no resistance! follow me!'—My strength failed me: he clasped me round the waist, and dragging me with him, I found myself precisely in the front of the altar, at which the sacrifice of my fate had been consummated. I looked at Leontius, endeavouring to discover his intentions. His hair was dishevelled; his beauty, more remarkable at this moment than at any other of his life, assumed a supernatural character, and filled my soul at once with terror and love. 'Give me your hand!' he exclaimed, 'give it me! if it be true that you love me, you must stand in need, hapless Delphine, you must, like me, stand in need of happiness Swear upon this altar, yes, upon the very altar from which we must for ever banish the frightful phantom of an odious marriage, swear never to acknowledge any other tie, any other duty than love: take an oath that you will be united with your lover; or I will this instant before your eyes dash out my brains against these marble steps, from which my blood will be spouted back upon you."

The consequence of this terrible scene is, that Delphine is seized with an illness which brings her to death's door. At her recovery, is it not to be supposed that, now at least, all intercourse will cease between them? No such thing, however, takes place: their dangerous intimacy continues; and what is the most extraordinary is, that Mademoiselle d'Albemar, an old maiden sister of Delphine's late husband, a kind of mentor, who, in general, gives her good advice, does not now counsel a separation. "I do not well understand the boundaries that divide love and morality; destiny has denied me that experience, but to me it seems that, after the marriage of Leonce, you ought to have seen him no more; and having seen him, you ought not now suddenly to sacrifice him to the *tempestuous* virtues. I know not whether Leonce may have influenced me by his powers of pleasing, but, I own, *if there be a glory to be obtained by the woman who wanders from the path of morality*, it must surely be that of gaining the heart of such a man."

The harmony of the lovers is soon disturbed by the appearance of a M. de Valorbe, who makes pretensions to the hand of Delphine. Actuated, as she says, by a sense of gratitude for his having once saved Mons. d'Albemar's life, she gives him one of those gentle refusals which do not deter lovers from still wearing their chains. He is threatened with arrest, on account of his aristocratical opinions. Delphine promises him an asylum in her house, and as he is going to enter it, in the middle of the night, Leonce accidentally discovers him, and, stimulated to madness, by jealousy, he grossly insults him. A challenge ensues; and Delphine endeavours to prevent a duel, by appealing to the feelings of M. de Valorbe. This gentleman, after proving for a long time inexorable, makes a kind of bargain with her, namely, that if the affront which he had received from Leonce (which was at present a secret), should ever be made public, and he, in consequence, suffers in his reputation for not having resented it; in that case, as a compensation to him, Delphine should become his wife—to which she gives a tacit consent. Valorbe then quits Paris, to join his regiment, and soon after intelligence arrives, that his brother officers have received information of the affair, and oblige him to quit the regiment in disgrace. In consequence of this, the reputation of Delphine suffers so much at Paris, that she is pub-

Digitized by Google

licly affronted at an assembly, which has a prodigious effect on the irritable mind of Leonce, who is ever keenly alive to public opinion. Soon after this, Matilda, who has miraculously remained ignorant of what had been long known in all the circles of Paris, the attachment of her husband to Delphine, is at length informed of it; and in an interview with Delphine, demands of her to quit Paris, and abstain from all further intercourse with Leonce. This is acceded to, and Delphine goes into Switzerland, and becomes a boarder in the Abbaye du Paradis. It happens that Mons. de Valorbe has also taken refuge in this neighbourhood, and not finding her disposed to marry him, according to the tacit engagement she had entered into, makes use of a manœuvre to compel her. Through his means she is informed, that he is arrested for debt, at Zell, and anxious to make him at least a pecuniary compensation, she visits him in person, and he detains her in his apartment to so late an hour, that he imagines she will marry him to save her reputation. She however prefers to become a nun, and makes her profession in the abbaye du Paradis. Valorbe, in despair, tears open some wounds he had received in two recent duels, and dies miserably at Zell. In the mean while Matilda dies of her lying-in, at Paris, and Leonce, freed from his fetters, hastens to the convent, to claim Delphine, and is thrown into a paroxysm of rage and grief, to find her bound to celibacy by inevitable vows. M. de Lebencey, a protestant friend, advises her to break her vows and fly from the convent, to which, without the smallest difficulty, she consents. When she has escaped from her convent, and gained Leonce, she finds so cool a reception from him, owing to his nice sense of honour, which makes him rather averse to allying himself with a run-away nun, that she refuses to marry him. They remain, however, together, uncertain how to act, till at length the fate of Leonce is determined, as follows;

"At this moment a regiment passed under my windows, and a band of music playing a beautiful warlike march. Leontius, on hearing this, raised his head with an expression of dignity and enthusiasm so imposing and sublime, that for a moment, forgetting my sorrows, I looked at him with ecstacy, and drank once more the intoxicating draught of love. He divined my thoughts, and letting his head fall on my hands, I felt his tears pour down upon them in abundance. The music ceased, and Leontius, having apparently recovered his composure, said, my soul is more tranquil, the celestial intelligence that watches over thee has inspired a salutary counsel. Adieu, my friend, I have need of repose, adieu till to-morrow!—'Till to-morrow,' repeated I.—'Oh, yes,' he replied; 'adieu!'—and he left me without uttering another word."

Leonce therefore, set agog by the martial drum and spirit-moving fife, abandons Delphine, and hastens to join the combined armies, who are marching into France. Delphine, who very luckily meets with M. de Serbellane, determines to follow him, and chances to arrive at Verdun the very day that he is brought in a prisoner. He is condemned to be shot: she passes the night in prison with him; urges him to take poison, which he refuses; accompanies him the next morning to the place of execution; and having herself taken poison, which happens to operate precisely at the critical moment, they both expire nearly at the same time.

About two years are occupied by the events of this story; and during this short period our readers will observe, that the amiable Delphine promotes a criminal intercourse between Theresa and De Serbellane, which causes the murder of Mons. de Ervins; attempts to deprive her cousin Matilda of her betrothed lover; afterwards carries on a secret culpable intercourse with her cousin's husband; breaks an engagement with poor Valorbe; binds herself by a solemn religious vow, though at the same time she contemns the principle of that religion; breaks without the smallest scruple, vows thus solemnly contracted; urges Leonce to commit suicide; and, at length, dies herself a miserable self-murderer!

Besides the general dulness of this novel, there are passages bordering on the ridiculous. Of this kind are, "Hark you, Leontius,' said I, with enthusiasm, 'I love you." "Marriage a ceremony of death." "Delphine, I will see you this evening; you shall teach me your religion." Which put us in mind of Lady Bab, in High Life Below Stairs. "Shakspeare, Shakspeare! I don't know him, but I will read him one afternoon!" "You know not how expressive is the countenance of M. de Mondoville, and with what energy and beauty he can ex-

Digitized by Google

hibit grief: he had passed the night motionless in the same attitude; his hair was in disorder, *and he really looked remarkably handsome.*"

Even the last pathetic scene in the prison is disgraced by littleness. We shall, however, present our readers with a scene with which we were much pleased.

"Yesterday, Madame de Mondoville being absent, I was able to spend the whole day at Bellerive; Madame d'Albémar proposed to me a walk after dinner, telling me that a family from Languedoc, whose name she believed she knew, had come to live in her neighbourhood, and that she wished to go and enquire about them. We set off, and Madame d'Albémar appointed her carriage to meet us about a mile from Bellerive.

"When we came near the place she had pointed out, we saw at a distance a small but neat cottage, and heard voices and instruments, which appeared singularly harmonious. We drew near; a child, who was at the door making snow balls, asked us to walk in; his mother, hearing him, came out and met us; Madame d'Albémar immediately knew her to be Mademoiselle de Senanges, whom she had formerly met in company with M. d'Albémar, but whom she had not seen these ten years. Mademoiselle de Senanges, now Madame de Belmont, received Delphine in the most amiable and friendly manner. We followed her into the little apartment of which she made a drawing-room, and we there saw a man about thirty, sitting at a piano-forte, while a girl of eight was singing: he arose at our approach, when his wife went up to him, and gave him her arm to lead him towards us. We then perceived he was blind, but his countenance was pleasing and dignified, notwithstanding his loss of sight: an expression of tranquillity reigned in all his features, which silenced even pity.

"Delphine, whose heart is so accessible to kind emotions, was visibly affected, notwithstanding her endeavours to conceal it. She asked Madame de Belmont her motives for leaving Languedoc.—A law-suit, which was carried against us, she answered, ruined us entirely; I had before lost half my fortune, as an aunt disinherited me on account of my marriage. To support ourselves and two children we had only eight pounds a year left, and we chose rather to live in a country where we were unknown, than be obliged to keep up our former way of life without a fortune. This climate too agrees better with my husband's health than the heats of the south, and during the fortnight we have been here we have been perfectly well.

"M. de Belmont then congratulated himself on knowing such a person as Madame d'Albémar; he expressed himself with much propriety and elegance, and his wife recalling to mind with pleasure, that she had seen Madame d'Albémar when but a child at her father's, spoke to her of their common connections with perfect serenity and simplicity. I considered her attentively, and in her whole manner I perceived not the least trace of any uneasiness; she appeared not to suspect that there was any thing in her situation to excite any extraordinary concern, and was long before she perceived that which we felt on her account.

"Her husband was desirous of showing us his garden, and he offered his wife his arm to lead him thither: she appeared to be so much in the habit of leading him, that when she left him to Delphine for a few moments to give some directions, she walked with anxiety, and appeared—not uneasy, for she has too little affectation to be disturbed without any motive—but altogether unaccustomed to move a step without serving as a guide to her husband.

"M. de Belmont interested us every instant still more by his wit and understanding; we led him several times to talk of his occupations, and of his own concerns; he always answered us with pleasure, appearing completely to forget that he was ruined and blind, and giving us the idea of a happy and tranquil man, who has never in his life had the least occasion to exercise courage or even resignation, only when he pronounced the name of his wife, or called her his dear friend, his voice had a tone I cannot define, but which echoed all the remembrances of his life, and pointed them out to us without expressing them.

"We returned to the house, the piano-forte was still open, and Delphine expressed to M. and Madame de Belmont a wish to hear, while present, the music that had charmed our ears at a distance. To this they assented, observing, that as they almost always sung trios with their daughter, their performance would be very simple. The father began a prelude on the instrument with superior talents and profound feeling. I know nothing so affecting as a blind man who gives himself up to the inspiration of music; it seemed as if the variety of sounds, and of the impressions thence arising, restored to him all nature, of which he had been deprived. The timidity naturally inseparable from such a disastrous infirmity prevents a man from conversing with others on the pain he feels, and he almost always avoids speaking of it; but when a blind man plays a melancholy tune he seems disclosing the secret of his sorrows; he rejoices at having at length found a language which permits him to touch the heart without fear of tiring it.

"The fine eyes of Delphine swam in tears, and I saw by the agitation of her bosom how much her heart was moved! But when M. de Belmont and his wife sang together, and their daughter, eight years of age, joined her clear and infantine voice with those of her parents, it was irresistible. They gave us a

Digitized by Google

harvest song of the peasants of Languedoc, the burden of which was :

" Accordez-moi donc, ma mère,
Pour mon époux, mon amant ;
Je l'aimerai tendrement,
Comme vous aimez mon perè.

" Dear mother, for my husband give
The youth whose constant vows I prove :
I'll love him fondly while I live,
As you my father fondly love.

" The little girl lifted up to her mother her charming eyes as she sung these words ; her countenance was all innocence, but educated by parents who live only on affection, she had already in her voice and look that melancholy which is so interesting at such an age, that melancholy, which is a presage of the fate that threatens the unconscious infant : the mother took up the same burden, singing,

" Elle t'accorde ta mère,
Pour ton époux, ton amant ;
Tu l'aimeras tendrement,
Ainsi qu'elle aime ton père.

" Dear girl, I, for your husband, give
The youth whose constant vows you prove ;
Fondly you'll love him while you live ;
As I your father fondly love.

" At these words there was something so impassioned in the look of Madame de Belmont, and so much modesty immediately succeeded the emotion, that I felt myself penetrated with enthusiastic respect for these family ties, of which we may be so proud while they render us happy. At length the father sung in his turn.

" Ma fille, imite ta mère,
Prends pour époux ton amant ;
Et chéris-le tendrement,
Comme elle a chéri ton père.

" Dear girl, your mother's steps pursue ;
Take the fond youth whose vows you prove ;
And love him with affection true,
For such to me your mother's love.

" The voice of M. de Belmont was lost as he uttered these words, and it was not without a considerable effort he recovered it, so as for all three to repeat the burden together to a mountain air, in which fancy seemed to hear the echoes of the Pyrences.

" Their voices were perfectly true, and the sonorous base of the husband gave a masculine dignity to the softer tones of the females ; their situation, the expression of their countenances, all was in harmony with the purest sensibility, from which nothing distracted the imagination, or even left it any thing to desire. Delphine has since told me that she was so much affected by this perfect union of every thing capable of moving the heart, that she wanted power to support it. Her tears had nearly suffocated her, when Madame de Belmont, almost throwing herself into her arms, said to her,—Amiable Delphine, I know you well, but do you suppose we are unhappy? Oh, how much are you mistaken ! And as if the music had in an instant established an intimacy between us, she seated herself by Madame d'Albémar, and said to her, When I knew you ten years ago, M. de Belmont had already loved me for some years, but as it was apprehended he would lose his sight, my relations objected to our marriage. He became completely blind, and I then no longer paid any attention to my family. Every moment's delay, when I was become so necessary to him, appeared to me insupportable ; and as I had neither father nor mother, I thought I had a right to determine for myself. I married him without the knowledge of my relations, and for some time I suffered enough from their threats to annul the marriage : but when they were thoroughly convinced that it was not in their power, they endeavoured all they could to ruin us, and succeeded. However, as I had been for some time under apprehensions that they would effect a separation between me and M. de Belmont, I was scarcely sensible of the loss of our fortune, my imagination being struck only with the misfortune I had escaped.

" My husband,' she continued, ' instructed his son, I educated my daughter, and our poverty naturally bringing us closer to our children, affords us new enjoyments. When we are perfectly happy in our affections, perhaps certain misfortunes, which strengthen our ties by the power of circumstances, are favours of Providence. I should not venture to say so before M. de Belmont, did I not know that his blindness does not render him unhappy ; but this accident fixes him in the bosom of his family ; it renders my arm, my voice, my presence necessary to him every instant : he has seen me in the days of my early youth, he will always retain the same remembrance of me, and I may be permitted to love him with all the enthusiasm of affection, without the expression of my sentiments being checked by that timidity, which the loss of personal charms induces. I will say it before M. de Belmont, madam, he must hear what I think of him, for I will not quit him an instant, even to indulge myself in the pleasure of praising him. The first happiness of a woman is to have married a man whom she respects as much as she loves him ; who is superior to her in talents and frame of mind, and who decides on every thing for her, not domineering over her will, but enlightening her understanding, and supporting her weakness. Even on occasions when her opinion differs from his, she yields with pleasure and confidence to him who is responsible for their common lot, and can alone repair an error, even if he should commit one. That marriage may fulfil the design of nature, the husband should possess a superiority over his wife by his real merit, a superiority which she may acknowledge, and by which she may profit ; unhappy the women obliged to conduct themselves through

life to conceal the defects and littleness of their husbands, or to emancipate themselves from it by supporting the weight of existence alone. The greatest of pleasures is that cordial admiration which fills up every moment, gives an end to every action, is a continual spur to self-improvement, and imparts that true glory, the approbation of a friend who honours you by his love. Amiable Delphine, judge not of the happiness or unhappiness of families by the goods of fortune or of nature; learn the degree of affection, which conjugal love gives them to enjoy, and then you will know their share of earthly felicity.'

"She has not told you all, my sweet friend,' said M. de Belmont: 'she has not spoken to you of the pleasure which she has found in the exercise of an unexampled generosity: she has sacrificed every thing for me, who had nothing to offer her but a life of continual sacrifices. Rich, young, and shining, she voluntarily devoted her life to a blind man without fortune, and who was the occasion of her losing that which she possessed. Among the treasures of heaven existed one of inestimable worth; and this has been bestowed on me to compensate a misfortune, which so many unhappy persons have experienced in a solitary state. And such is the power of a profound and pure affection, that it converts the most real afflictions of life into enjoyments; I please myself with thinking, that I cannot walk a step without the hand of my wife, and that I could not even feed myself, if she did not give me my food. No new idea would reanimate my imagination, did she not read to me the books with which I wish to be acquainted; no thought would reach my mind without the charms her voice gives it; all my moral existence, the image of herself, comes to me through her, and Providence, when it gave me existence, left to my wife the task of completing the present, which would be useless and painful without her assistance.

"I believe,' added M. de Belmont, 'I love better than any person, for all my being is concentred in this sentiment; but how is it that all men do not endeavour to find happiness amid their family? It is true that my wife, and my wife alone could render marriage such a delightful state. Yet I have been deprived of the pleasure of ever seeing my children, but I persuade myself that they are all like their mother! Of all the images that my eyes have formerly admitted, only one has remained perfectly distinct in my memory, which is the person of my wife. I do not imagine myself blind when with her, so lively is the idea I form of her features. Have you remarked the sweet tone of her voice? when she speaks she modulates it with softness and grace, as if she delighted in paying attention to the pleasures that are left me; I feel every thing, I forget nothing, a squeeze of the hand, an accent of emotion, is never effaced from my memory. Oh, how happy a state of existence, thus to taste affection and its charms! to enjoy it without ever experiencing those inconsistencies of the heart, which are sometimes produced by the splendours of wealth, or natural excellencies!

"Nevertheless, though my lot cannot be compared to that of any one upon earth, I must say to the young, the handsome, and the great, there is no happiness during life except in the marriage bonds, except in that affection of our children which is only perfect when we love their mother. Men, much more at liberty than women, think they may easily supply the enjoyments of domestic life; but I know not by what sweet power implanted by Providence in morality, the circumstances of life appear independent of it, yet ultimately they are determined by it alone. All bonds except those of marriage, want durability; some shocking event, or natural disgust, breaks ties presumed to be the most solid; opinion pursues you, opinion some way or other insinuates its poisons into your happiness; and should it be possible to escape its power, can the pleasure of seeing one another a few hours, be compared with the perfect intimacy of marriage? What would have become of me without her? of me who could only carry my misfortunes to one who was capable of being proud to share them. How should I have been able to struggle against the laws of society, disarmed as I am by nature? How necessary was the shelter of constant and sure virtues to me, unable to acquire any thing, and having to hope only the happiness that would not come to seek me! But I possess felicity, not consolations; and I boldly repeat, he who is not made happy by marriage is alone, yes, every where alone; for he is threatened sooner or later with living unbeloved."

We have not seen this work in the original, in which we have heard that it possesses the merit of a remarkably pure and elegant style. Of this advantage it is unluckily deprived in the present translation. The translator deprecates criticism for the first volume, the manuscript of which was destroyed by fire and replaced hastily. Unfortunately he has not the same excuse for the second and third.

Digitized by Google

CHAPTER XIII.

PHILOLOGY AND CRITICISM.

THE most important article in this chapter is Mr. Astle's splendid volume on "Origin and Progress of Writing," which contains much curious informa-, yet scarcely adequate to the extent of its title. In Dr. Aikin's "Letters English Poetry, addressed to a young Lady," will be found many valuable ob-vations on this species of writing in general, and on the characteristic faults excellencies of our native poets, illustrated by references to such of their pro-tions as will inform and refine the taste, without running any risque of sullying purity or impairing the delicacy of the moral sense. The posthumous work of Pegge, entitled, "Anecdotes of the English Language," is rather amusing useful and accurate; and the Baroness de Stael's "Observations on ancient modern Literature," exhibit almost equal ignorance in the author and her slator.

. I. *The Origin and Progress of Writing, as well hieroglyphic as elementary; illustrated Engravings taken from Marbles, Manuscripts and Charters, ancient and modern. Se-d Edition with Additions. By* THOMAS ASTLE, *Esq. F. R. S. F. A. S. and per of the Records in the Tower of London.* 4to. pp. 240, 32 Plates.

HIS book treats better of the pro- than of the origin of writing; and er to be classed among the efforts antiquary than of the philosopher. a work of great information, curi- compiled and curiously illustrat- yet the erudition is often of that and antiquated sort, which the researches of modern sagacity have great degree exploded. Mr. Astle much on the compilers of the Uni- History: they have stated well the s of their time; but a great mist ce been dispersed from the historic n.

introduction contains very inte- anecdotes of the fortunes of lite- and libraries; and thus sketches n of the ensuing work.

The first and second chapters are found- principles of philosophy, supported by deduced from the histories of different ns.

In the third chapter, which treats of iquity of writing, it was necessary to have recourse to the most antient historians, both sacred and prophane; the latter of which are so involved in fable, that it was extremely difficult to separate the ore from the dross. However, the most respectable authors have been consulted, from whom has been selected such evidence, as appeared to be most rational, and to deserve the most credit. Several particulars concerning the civilization of antient nations, occur in the course of this chapter, which may appear interesting, not only to the historian and antiquary, but also to the philosopher.

"In the fourth chapter it appears, that all alphabets are not derived from one, but that most of those now used, are derived from the Phenician. This chapter contains a general account of such as are supposed to have arisen from that source, which furnishes many important facts relative to the history, population, and the progress of arts and sciences, in the most celebrated nations.

"The fifth chapter, contains the History of Writing in different ages and countries, proved from antient inscriptions, manuscripts, and other authentic documents, of which engraved specimens are given, and several rules are laid down, which may ena-

ble our readers to judge of their age and authenticity. This chapter necessarily contains much ancient history, and establishes many important truths, hitherto little known or attended to."

* * * *

"The sixth chapter treats of the writing of the Chinese, and of various Characters and Literary Signs, used both by the antients and moderns, for brevity, expedition, or secrecy. The facts which appear in the course of this chapter, fully confirm the doctrine laid down in the second and fourth chapters, *that all marks whatever are significantly compact, and that* LETTERS *do not derive their powers from their forms*, but from the *sounds which men have agreed to annex to them.*

"The seventh chapter treats of Numerals, and of Numeral Characters, which were probably used before letters.

"The eighth chapter treats of the Librarii, Notarii, and Antiquarii, among the antients: of Paintings and Ornaments: of the materials for writing upon: of Instruments for writing with: and some account of Inks, both antient and modern."

The first step toward the invention of alphabetic writing was indubitably picture-writing: this invention is thus traced.

"It will presently be demonstrated that men, even in their most uncivilized state, display *a faculty of imitation*, which enables them to delineate objects, and communicate information by rude pictures or representations. For example, a man who had seen a strange animal, plant, or any other new object, for which he wanted a name, would have been almost mechanically led to illustrate his description by *signs:* and, if they were not readily comprehended, by a *rude delineation* in the sand, on the bark of a tree, on a slate, or a bone, or on such materials as first presented themselves: these being handed about, naturally suggested the hint of using this method of conveying intelligence to a distant friend. The exercise of this faculty of imitation, so eminently conspicuous in the human species, will be found, on an accurate investigation, to have been common to all nations, and perhaps coeval with the first societies or communities of mankind.

"It is not probable that the art of *picture-writing* was brought to any degree of perfection by one man or nation, or even by one generation; but was gradually improved or extended, by the successive hands of individuals, in the societies through which it passed; and that more or less, according to the genius of people, and their state of civilization; the ruder nations requiring fewer signs or representations, than the more cultivated. At first, each figure meant specifically what it represented. Thus, the figure of the sun expressed or denoted that planet only; a lion or a dog, simply the animals there depicted: but in process of time, when men acquired more knowledge, and attempted to describe qualities, as well as sensible objects, these delineations were more figuratively explained; then the figure of the *sun*, besides its original meaning, denoted *glory* and *genial warmth*; that of the *lion, courage*; and that of the *dog, fidelity*.

"A still further improvement in civilization occasioned these delineations to become too voluminous; every new object requiring a new picture, this induced the delineator to abridge the representations, retaining so much of each figure as would express its species. Thus, for example, instead of an accurate *representation* of *a lion*, a slight sketch, or more general figure of that animal was substituted; and for a *serpent*, either a *spiral* or *crooked line*, like the letter S. Besides this, as there occurred a number of ideas, not to be represented by painting, for these it was necessary to affix *arbitrary signs*.

"The transition was not so great as at first it may appear. In all probability these signs were introduced slowly, and by degrees, and in such manner, as to be always explained by the context, until generally known and adopted.

"That such was the *origin* and *progress* of this invention, history, and the journals of travellers, furnish us with variety of proofs; hieroglyphics, in all their different stages, being found in very distant parts of the globe. Of these we shall mention some instances.

"Jacob d'Acosta relates, that on the first arrival of the Spanish squadron on the coast of Mexico, expresses were sent to Montezuma, with exact representations of the ships, painted on cloth; in which manner they kept their records, histories, and calendars; representing things that had bodily shapes in their proper figures, and those that had none, in arbitrary significant characters. It is here to be observed, that the Mexicans had long been a civilized people; so that this kind of writing may be considered among them as almost advanced to its most perfect state. Specimens of *Mexican painting* have been given by Purchas in sixty-six plates. His work is divided into three parts. The first contains the history of the Mexican empire, under its ten monarchs: the second is a tribute-roll, representing what each conquered town paid into the royal treasury: and the third is a code of their institutions, civil, political, and military. Another specimen of Mexican painting has been published, in thirty-two plates, by the present archbishop of Toledo. To all these is annexed a full explanation of what the figures were intended to represent, which was obtained by the Spaniards from the Indians well acquainted with their own acts. The stile of painting in all these is the same; and they may be justly considered as the most curious monuments of art, brought from the new world."

Our author proceeds to prove that alphabetic writing preceded the time of

Digitized by Google

Moses, and consequently had not a supernatural origin. The passage is satisfactory:

"The first mention of *writing* recorded in scripture, will be found in Exodus xvii. v. 14. '*And the Lord said unto Moses, write this, for a memorial, in a book; and rehearse it in the ears of Joshua; for I utterly put out the remembrance of Amalek from under heaven.*' This command was given immediately after the defeat of the Amalekites near Horeb, and before the arrival of the Israelites at Mount Sinai. It is observable, that there is not the least hint to induce us to believe that writing was then newly invented; on the contrary, we may conclude, that Moses understood what was meant by *writing in a book*, otherwise God would have instructed him, as he had done Noah in building the ark, for he would not have been commanded to *write* in a *book*, if he had been *ignorant of the art of writing*: but Moses expressed no difficulty of comprehension, when he received this command. We also find that Moses *wrote* all the words and all the judgments of the Lord, contained in the twenty-first and the two following chapters of the book of Exodus, before the two written tables of stone were even so much as *promised*. The delivery of the tables is not mentioned till the eighteenth verse of the thirty-first chapter, after God had made an end of communing with him upon the Mount, though the ten commandments were promulgated immediately after his third descent.

"It is observable, that Moses no where mentions that the alphabet was a *new thing* in his time, much less that he was the inventor of it; on the contrary, he speaks of the art of writing as a thing well known, and in familiar use; for, Exodus xxviii. v. 21, he says, 'And the stones shall be with the names of the children of Israel, TWELVE; according to their names, *like the engravings of a signet*, every one with his name, shall they be according to the twelve tribes.' And again, v. 36, 'And thou shalt make a plate of pure gold, and *grave* upon it, *like* the engravings of a signet, HOLINESS TO THE LORD.' Can language be more expressive? Would it not be absurd to deny that this sentence must have been in *words* and *letters*? But writing was known and practised by the people in general in the time of Moses, as appears from the following texts, Deut. chap. vi. v. 9.; chap. xi. v. 20.; chap. xvii. v. 18.; chap. xxiv. v. 1.; chap. xxvii. v. 3. 8. By this last text the people are commanded to *write* the law on stones, and it is observable that some of the above texts relate to transactions *previous* to the delivery of the law at Mount Sinai.

"If Moses had been the *inventor* of the alphabet, or received letters from God, which till then had been unknown to the Israelites, it would have been well worthy of his understanding, and very suitable to his character, to have explained to them the nature and use of this invaluable art which God had communicated to him: and may we not naturally suppose, that he would have said, when he directed the workmen to engrave names and sentences on stones and gold, 'And in these engravings you shall use the alphabetic characters which God hath communicated to me, or which I have now invented, and taught you the use of?' But the truth is, he refers them to a model in familiar use, '*like the engravings of a signet*;' for the ancient people of the east engraved names and sentences on their seals in the same manner as is now practised by the great LAMA of Tartary, the princes in India, the emperor of Constantinople, and his subordinate rulers."

He then analyses the difference between picture characters and alphabetic characters; and thus describes the progress of substitution.

At present we shall pursue that part of our enquiry which relates to the formation of an alphabet.

"Let us then premise, that *arbitrary marks* are of different kinds. *First*, those used by the Chinese, many of which were originally picture-characters. *Secondly*, those used by the *notarii* among the antients, and by the present short-hand writers; and thirdly, MARKS for SOUNDS; such as elementary characters or letters, and musical notes.

"The marks of the *first* and *second* kind are very numerous, as will appear hereafter; those of the *third* are very few, as will presently be demonstrated.

"It seems obvious, that whilst the picture or hieroglyphic presented itself to the sight, the writer's idea was confined to the figure or object itself; but when the picture was contracted into a mark, the *sound* annexed to the thing signified by such mark, would become familiar; and when the writer reflected, how small a number of sounds he made use of in speech to express all his ideas, it would occur, that a much fewer number of *marks* than he had been accustomed to use, would be sufficient for the notation of all the *sounds* which he could articulate. These considerations would induce him to reflect on the nature and power of *sounds*; and it would occur, that *sounds* being the matter of audible language, marks for them must be the elements of words.

"Aristotle justly observes, 'that *words* are the marks of *thoughts*; and *letters*, of *words*.' Words are sounds significant, and letters are marks for such sounds.

"The learned author of Hermes informs us, 'That to about twenty plain elementary sounds, we owe that variety of articulate voices, which have been sufficient to explain the sentiments of so innumerable a multitude, as all the present and past generations of men.'

"As there are but a small number of

Digitized by Google

marks for sounds, called *notes in music*, so there are but a small number of distinct articulate sounds in every language. In different languages their number differs; and there are but few sounds in any two languages that are exactly the same; although by the great intercourse between the European nations, the sounds of different languages daily assimilate.

"Mr. Sheridan says, that the number of simple sounds in our tongue are twenty-eight. Doctor Kendrick says, we have only *eleven* distinct species of articulate sounds, which even by contraction, prolongation, and composition, are increased only to the number of *sixteen*; every syllable or articulate sound in our language being one of this number. Bishop Wilkins and Doctor William Holder, speak of about thirty-two or thirty three distinct sounds.

"It has been said that among the Greeks and Romans, their written alphabet exactly accorded to the several distinct *sounds* and modes of articulation in their languages; so that each sound had its distinct mark, by which it was uniformly and invariably represented. Ten simple marks or characters have been found sufficient for all the purposes of numerical calculations, which extend to infinity.

"Seven notes comprise the whole of music: these, by their different arrangements, produce that variety of harmony which we so justly admire. If we would ascend higher than eight notes, we only begin another series of the same distances. Again, the *scale* doth not admit of a division into equal parts: this must correspond with the laws of sound: as every piece of music is but these notes varied, it must come to a close in the lowest note or its octave.

"It is evident, that from the confined nature of the organs, the simple natural sounds to be distinct must be few; and though artifice or affectation may invent a greater variety, they must be deficient in precision as they increase in number. Indeed there are several sounds proceeding from inanimate objects; as, the murmuring of a stream, &c. that are not adapted to the human organs of utterance.

"It would be digressing too far from our subject, to enter into a discussion concerning the number of sounds that are known to exist, nor is this necessary: for as *sounds* are few, the marks for them need not be many, but the marks for *things* are very numerous.

"It is however requisite for our readers to distinguish between *visible* and *audible language*. This distinction is justly made by St. Augustine, in the following words, '*Signa sunt verba visibilia, verba signa audibilia.*'

"The articulate sounds of vocal or audible language are resolvable into sentences, words, and syllables; and the analysis of language into *elementary sounds*, seems first to have led to the invention of *symbols*, or marks, for mental conceptions. This invention must have taken place much about the time that men began to reform the barbarous jargon they first spoke, and form a language; for which purpose, the knowledge of elementary sounds and their powers, was absolutely necessary. The progress in this science, as has been already observed, must have been by degrees: men would begin no doubt, by distinguishing the *sound* of one word from that of another; this would not be difficult; then they would resolve words into syllables, which would not be so easy; but it is likely that they stopt there for a long time, perhaps for ages, before they came to the last resolution of syllables into the distinct *sounds* of which they are composed. This was a very extraordinary work of art, which could only be performed by those who had considered the laws of *sounds*; and could not be the result of *chance*, as some speculatists have imagined; for this was in fact the decomposition of a language into the *sounds* of which it was composed.

"The next step towards the notation of language, would be the delineation of a separate *mark* or *letter* to denote or stand for each sound; which *marks* though few in number, would admit of so great a variety of arrangements and combinations, as would be capable of producing an infinity of articulate sounds, sufficient for the composition of syllables, words, and sentences; and consequently for the notation of language."

There is in the outline of this system great probability; yet the individual steps of the progress might perhaps by more investigation have been entirely told.

A story occurs in the book *De vet. lit. Hun.* of an innkeeper in Hungary, who could neither read nor write. He kept however strict accounts with his several customers. The sawyer he described by a saw, the smith by a hammer, the soldier by a musket, and the carter by a whip. Opposite to these emblems were chalked marks, which tallied with the ale consumed. By degrees the saw had been simplified into a zigzag, the hammer into a cross, the musket into a line, and the whip into a loop. And thus to picture-writing had succeeded symbolic writing; to representative marks, arbitrary characters. This fact is an abridged history of the progress of writing.

It seems equally natural and probable that the original picture-writing should slide into the flourishes of the Chinese, as that it should separate into the syllabic writing of the Shanskreet priesthood (for their numerous alphabet is surely a list of the elementary syllables of the language); or that it should pass on to our still simpler subdivision into letters.

Digitized by Google

The Chinese seem to have migrated from the center of civilization, when writing had only reached the first state; the Hindoos when it had reached the second state, and the Babylonians when it had reached the third state.

For all our modern alphabets are derived from the Babylonian.

Mr. Astle indeed chooses the Phenician alphabet for his prototype; and has (at p. 50) a table, and (at p. 64) a plate, which fully establish the resemblance, the relationship, the mutual dependence, the common descent, the analogous filiation of the Syrian, the Grecian, the Latin, the Gothic, the Arabic, Coptic and Æthiopic alphabets. But it is highly probable that the Phenicians of Tyre went to school at Babylon: and it is absolutely certain that the first alphabet originated in a nation speaking the Hebrew tongue. The names of the letters are in that language all significant. Now it is notorious that scarcely any part of the Jewish scriptures is extant in the provincial vernacular dialect of Jerusalem, but only in the court-language of Babylon. The Hebrew was that language. It may amuse our readers, if we repeat after Gregory Sharpe (Origin of Languages, p. 60.) the original designations of the letters.

The sound of the first letter of the alphabet is the first sound of animals. The name of it *aleph* signifies the ox, and the form of the letter bears much resemblance to the head of an ox.

The second letter *beth* has the outlines of a house, or booth, which is the meaning of its name, *Baita* in Tyrian is a house, in old Greek it is *aita*, in Latin *ædes*, in Ægyptian *ath*. The word may be connected etymologically with *baites* a sheep-skin; because the first roofs were of hides.

The third letter has a bunch on its back, and is called *gimel*, or the camel. The sound bears perhaps some resemblance to the snort of that animal.

The fourth has the form and name of *daleth*, a door. The sound of a door, or leaf, in closing, is not unlike the sound of this letter.

The fifth letter *he* implies demonstration, and means *behold*. Boderian thinks the figure to have originated in a hand pointing. Baxter has a surprising conjecture about the first draught of this letter, which he supposes to have represented mother earth and her son the sun, or Isis and Orus. As it represented the goddess-mother, it came to be used, he thinks, for making female terminations. This last thought is putting the cart before the horse: feminine terminations must have been used in language long before alphabetic writing.

The sixth letter *vau* is a hook.

The seventh *zain*, instruments, or arms.

The eighth *beth*, a quadruped.

The ninth *teth*, a trumpet.

The tenth *yod*, a hand.

The eleventh *kaph*, a cup.

The twelfth *lamed*, a goad, or spit. Baxter says it is a ploughshare, and has thence its form.

The thirteenth *mem* is rendered spot, or contagion; but as this bears no resemblance to its form, which is complex, it has perhaps been shapen out of the figure which stood for the word *mother*, *mia* in Tyrian being mother. A cow is a more plausible form of origin.

The fourteenth *nun* is a fish; it is called *nachash*, serpent, in Æthiopic.

The fifteenth *sameeh* basis, pedestal; perhaps however from the root to destroy.

The sixteenth *ain* means eyes, which it seems to represent; and also, by a natural metaphor, fountains.

The seventeenth *pe* or *pa*, means the lip: it is made by a puff between the lips.

The eighteenth *tsaddi*, according to Caninius, signifies a huntsman's pole, or shepherd's hook; but Baxter says an eel-spear or trident, and would thence derive the city, or fishing town, Sidon. The word also signifies sides.

The nineteenth *gup*, or *koph*, is a monkey; hence the tail in the figure.

The twentieth *resh*, signifies head.

The twenty-first *sin* or *shin*, a tooth, from which it is plainly imitated.

And the twenty-second *tan*, is a *terminus*, or land mark, and therefore put last; but Baxter would have it mean a hammer.

Let us now turn from Babylon to the nursery; for nations, in the infancy of human society, had in the aggregate to take those very steps, which we now have learnt to compress within the limits of a childhood. How are our primers constructed? A for apple; B for bed; C for cow; D for dog; E for eel; and beside each letter stands the graven image of the most familiar object whose name it begins. In order to associate the sound, which is arbitrary, with the object, which is immutable, we depict them together. At first only the gays (as children call them) are attended to; and the letter

Digitized by Google

stands centinel in vain. By degrees the form of the letter is impressed no less distinctly than that of its emblematic companion. We then withdraw the gays, and expect that the D should suggest the first effort to pronounce dog; and the E eel. No doubt the Babylonians had their primers, which delineated distinctly the ox, the booth, the camel, and beside them the simplest outline, or mark, which would distinguish the aw, the be, the ka, abstracted from their original figures. The obelisks of Egypt are probably such primers. If the roof of the temple of Tentyra was a public almanac, why may not its pillars have been a public primer? The most familiar objects of primitive society came to stand for the incipient articulations which described them. Some of these articulations are not simple, as *tsaddi*; and thus double letters occur in the original alphabet, which could never have been the case, if, as our author imagines, the analysis of language into elementary sounds (p. 19.) had led to the invention of symbols. These symbols are mere abbreviations, not at all the result of philosophical analysis. It is high time that the European nations should begin to disuse their double, and their equivocal letters; and should apply the superfluous characters to the notation of other unrepresented simple sounds. An alphabet universally applicable is the first step to an universal language. Our alphabet is ill-named: the incipient and final sound of every letter ought to occur in its name. We should either call the *b* ebba or bab; the *d* edda or dad; the *f* effa or faf, and so forth. It is particularly worth the while of the English nation to perfect its alphabet; as it is likely to become the instructress of almost all the uncivilized portion of the globe; and as its language is alone fitted, by absence of inflection and simplicity of structure, to become the basis of a universal language. All anomalies should be laid aside: *mouses* not *mice*; *oxes* not *oxen*; *sheeps* not *sheep*; every departure from analogy is a needless task the more for every child, and for every foreigner, who is to partake the luxury and the advantage of knowing our literature.

The fifth chapter, which treats of writing in England, displays to advantage the peculiar and industrious examinations of our author. Concerning Phenicians and Chaldeans he leans on the inferences of others: concerning writing in England his researches are personal comprehensive, and skilful. He produces admirable fac similes of many of our most curious manuscripts, and indicates with instructive detail, the marks of earlier or later execution. Of this chapter to produce a specimen will much tend to invite the reader to consult the original work, which to the studiers and commentators of our manuscript literature is of essential value.

* "After the most diligent inquiry it doth not appear that the Britons had the use of letters before their intercourse with the Romans. Although alphabets have been produced, which are said to have been used by the ancient Britons, yet no one *MS.* ever appeared that was written in them. Cunobelin, king of Britain, who lived in the reigns of the emperors Tiberius and Caligula, erected different mints in this island, and coined money in gold, silver, and copper, inscribed with Roman characters. From the coming of Julius Cæsar, till the time the Romans left the island in the year 427, the Roman letters were as familiar to the eyes of the inhabitants, as their language to their ears, as the numberless inscriptions, coins, and other monuments of the Romans still remaining amongst us, sufficiently evince. However, we are of opinion that writing was very little practised by the Britons, till after the coming of St. Augustin, about the year 596.

"The Saxons who were invited hither by the Britons, and who arrived about the year 449, were unacquainted with letters. The characters which they afterwards used were adopted by them in the island, and though the writing in England from the fifth to the middle of the eleventh century is called *Saxon*, it will presently appear, that the letters used in this island were derived from the Romans, and were really Roman in their origin, and Italian in their structure at first, but were barbarized in their aspect by British Romans and Roman Britons. A great variety of capital letters were used by the Saxons in their MSS. of which many specimens are given in our plates.

"*Saxon capitals.* The capital letters in plates fourteen A and B, are taken from the *Textus Sancti Cuthberti*, written in the seventh century, formerly preserved in the cathedral of Durham, but now in the Cottonian library (Nero D. '4). In this fine MS. we find several of the capital letters which were used by the Greeks, the Etruscans, the Romans, the Visigoths, the Saxons, the French, and the Germans. The Φ, the parent of the Roman F, was not disused at the time this MS. was written. The Roman F, and also the F used by the northern nations, appear in the alphabet which we have engraven, as doth the M of the Pelasgians, of the Etruscans, of the Oscans, and of the Romans. The different forms of the letter O, in this

Digitized by Google

alphabet, were also common not only to the people last mentioned, but likewise to the Phenicians, and to the Greeks; the Y is not unlike the Greek ϒ. This alphabet alone bears strong testimony that the letters used by our Saxon ancestors are derived from the Phenician, the Etruscan, and the Greek letters, through the medium of those of the Roman. The capital letters in the fifteenth plate, No. 1, which are taken from a MS. written in the latter end of the sixth or the beginning of the seventh century, confirm this opinion. It is observable that the Pelasgian M, was used in MSS. so late as the eighth century. The third specimen in the eighteenth plate is taken from a copy of the four gospels in the royal library (1 B. 7). Our readers will observe both Roman and Saxon capital letters in this specimen, the former are used in the canons of St. Eusebius, which were probably written by some Roman ecclesiastic, the latter by one who had been educated in England.

"In the seventh and eighth centuries square capitals were occasionally used in England specimens of which are given in the fifteenth plate, No. 1, and in the title of No. 4, and an entire alphabet in the sixteenth plate. A great variety of capital letters used in England from the seventh to the tenth century inclusive, are exhibited in the eighteenth and nineteenth plates, which deserve the attention of those who desire to become acquainted with the manuscripts of our Saxon ancestors, and to judge of their age and anthenticity.

"The Saxon capitals which vary from those now used are C, E, G, H, M, and W. The small letters are, d, f, g, r, s, t, and w, which are all Roman except the s and some notes of abbreviations used by the Saxons: many other abbreviations used by the Saxons appear in the eighteenth plate, No. 4. These notes of abbreviation are *not* the original members of an alphabet; they were the result of later reflection, and were introduced for dispatch. By an attentive observation of the different specimens of writing in England, we perceive the several gradations by which one form of a Roman character has imperceptibly changed into another. The Saxon D, says Mr. Whitaker, seems to have been only the Roman V at first, and to have been lengthened into the Saxon character, and enlarged into the present Roman W, by bringing the principal stroke somewhat lower, and closing the top in the one, and by redoubling the whole in the other. The W is unknown both to the Latin and its daughter languages, the French, the Spanish, and the Italian: it is composed of two characters, namely, of the V or U doubled.

"The writing which prevailed in England, from the coming of St. Augustin in 596, to the middle of the eleventh century, is generally termed *Saxon*, and may be divided into five kinds; namely, the *Roman Saxon*, the *Set Saxon*, the *Running-Hand Saxon*, the *Mixed Saxon*, and the *Elegant Saxon*; which shall be considered in order.

"*Roman Saxon.* The Roman Saxon is that kind of writing which is very similar to the Roman, and prevailed in England, from the coming of St. Augustin till the eighth century. Specimens of this kind of writing are given in plate fifteen, No. 1. In this MS. the R and the E are more pure Roman than those which follow; this specimen is taken from the gospels of St. Matthew and St. Mark, formerly preserved in the Cottonian library (Otho, c. 5.) which is said to have been St. Augustin's book, but by the hand it seems to have been written in England, probably in his time. This fine book perished by the fire which happened in the Cottonian library in the year 1731.

"Another specimen in Roman Saxon characters, appears in the eighteenth plate, No. 5, which is taken from a MS of the four gospels, in the royal library at London (1 E. VI.) written in England in the seventh century. The second page of this MS. is of a violet colour, in which are several letters in gold and silver. Prefixed to the gospels, is St. Jerom's epistle to Pope Damasus.

"The alphabets are, first, of the capital letters, which were in gold and silver; secondly, of the letters in which the heads of the chapters are written; and thirdly, of the letters which compose the text.

"The sixteenth plate furnishes a third specimen of Roman Saxon writing, which is taken from a fair copy of the four gospels of St. Jerom's translation, written in England in the latter end of the seventh century, with an interlineary Saxon version, written in the tenth century by Farmennus and Osrunus, two priests.

"This MS. is called the *Codex Ruawerthianus*, because it belonged formerly to John Rushworth, of Lincoln's-Inn, Esq. It is now preserved in the Bodleian library at Oxford (D. 24. No. 8946.) Mr. Wansey says, it is little inferior in age to the Lichfield MS. or to St. Cuthbert's gospels, Nero, D. IV. At the end of this book, is the following passage, written in a hand similar to and coeval with the text. 'Macregiul depinxit hoc Evangelium. Quicumque legerit et intellegerit istam narrationem, orat pro *Macregiul Scriptori.*'

"The square or angular capital letters, are very similar to those which appear in the Lichfield MS. and to those in the fifteenth plate, No. 1.

"The second alphabet is of the initial or uncial letters, (as they are usually called) in which the titles of chapters are written; the third, is of the Latin text, and the fourth, of the Saxon version. Concerning this valuable MS. see Wanley's catal. page 81.

"The fifth specimen in the fifteenth plate is taken from a fine MS. preserved in the church of Lichfield, called *Textus Sci. Ceddæ*, or St. Chad's gospels. This MS. was many

years ago presented to the church of Llandaff, by Gelhi, who gave for the purchase of it one of his best horses; it was deposited in the cathedral church of Lichfield about the year 1020, which being dedicated to St. Chad, the fifth bishop of that see, it hath thence been called his book. This MS. was written in England about the time of St. Cuthbert's gospels in the seventh century; in the margin whereof are several annotations in Latin and Saxon, and some in the ancient British or Welch, which last, Mr. Edward Lhuyd supposes to be of about nine hundred years standing.

"The fourteenth plate contains the fifth and last specimen which we have given of the Roman Saxon writing, and is taken from the Textus Sancti Cuthberti formerly preserved in the cathedral of Lindisfarn or Durham, and is now in the Cottonian library (Nero D. IV). The time when this most noble monument of Anglo-Saxon calligraphy was written is nearly ascertained by a Saxon note at the end of St. John's Gospel, in the hand-writing of Aldred, who was bishop of Durham from the years 946 to 968, whereby it appears, that the Latin text was written by St. Eadfrith, a monk of Lindisfarn, in the time of St. Cuthbert, who died in the year 687; when he, the abovementioned St. Eadfrith, was elected bishop of that see, which he held till the time of his death, in 721; amd that the curious and elaborate ornaments which are in this MS. the pictures of the cross, and of the four evangelists, and the capital letters, were drawn by St. Ethelwald, who was a contemporary monk with Bishop Eadfrith, and who succeeded him in the bishoprick of Lindisfarn, wherein he continued till his decease in 737. Bishop Aldred adds, that Bilfrith, a monk of the same church, adorned the outside of the book, with a silver cover gilt, set with precious stones; and that Aldred, a priest, added the interlineary Saxon version, with some marginal notes."

How desirable it would be for the society of antiquaries to employ certain persons, at a regular expence, to edit annually, some of the unpublished manuscripts here described. A fac simile of the first page or two might accompany every book. The manuscripts, which deserve a preference of care, are not those transcripts of the vulgate, which our author seems to prefer; but those which throw light on the historical antiquities, or on the original and native literature of the country. The pedigree of estates, if not of families, can often be illustrated by means of them: and it is a species of *domestic* pride, may we call it in contradistinction to *family* pride, far more consonant with our mercantile habits, far more conducive to the value of our acres, and far more rational in the eye of philosophy, to be desirous of dwelling on sports consecrated by the germinations of religion or the victories of freedom, than to care for genealogies, which, in proportion as they are pure, exclude the supposition of that robust strength, that unsophisticated health, and that enduring vigour, which are only the recompense of early privation and occasional toil.

The ninth chapter discusses the origin and progress of printing: Mr. Astle's account of this art is very neatly given in the following words.

"As the invention, or rather the introduction of printing into Europe, has been attended with the most beneficial advantages to mankind, some account of the origin and progress of that art may be acceptable.

"It has not been pretended that the art of printing books was ever practised by the Romans, and yet the names they stamped on their earthen vessels were in effect nothing else but printing, and the letters on the matrices, or stamps used for making these impressions were necessarily reversed, as printing types; several of these matrices are extant in the British Museum, and in other places, which are cut out of, o re cast in one solid piece of metal.

"Many hundred pieces of the Roman pottery, impressed with these stamps, have been found in the sands near Reculver in Kent, and on the eastern side of the isle of Shepway, where they are frequently dragged up by the fishermen. The art of impressing legends upon coins is nothing more than printing on metals.

"It is generally allowed, that printing from wooden blocks has been practised in China for many centuries. According to the accounts of the Chinese, and of P. Jovius, Osorius, and several other Europeans, printing began there about the year of Christ 927, in the reign of Ming-Tcoung, the second emperor under the dynasty of Heou-Thong: several of these blocks, which are cut upon ebony, or on wood exceedingly hard, are now in England. The *Historia Sinensis* of Abdallah, written in Persic, in 1817, speaks of it as an art in very common use. Our countryman, Sir John Chardin, in his Travels, confirms these accounts.

"Printing, then, may be considered as an Asiatic, and not a European invention.

"The first printing in Europe was from wooden blocks, whereon a whole page was carved exactly in the same manner as is now practised by the Chinese, who print only on one side of their paper, because it is so exceedingly thin, that it will not bear the impression of their characters on both sides.

"The early printers in Europe printed only on one side of the paper for some time after

Digitized by Google

the introduction of the art; they pasted the blank sides together, which made them appear as one leaf.

"The European blocks were carved upon beech, pear tree, and other soft woods, which soon failed, and the letters frequently broke; this put them upon the method of repairing the block by carving new letters, and placing them in, which necessity seems to have suggested the hint of moveable types of metal; these were not so liable to break as the soft European woods, which had been before used. One great and obvious advantage of moveable types was, that by separating them they would serve for any other work; whereas the blocks of wood served only for one work; though the use of moveable metal types was a very fortunate discovery, yet they derived their origin rather to the imperfection or unfitness of our woods for printing blocks, than from any great ingenuity of those who first used them. In short necessity, the mother of all arts, introduced moveable types.

"It has been a matter of contest, who first practised the art of printing in Europe. Faust or Fust of Mentz, Gutenburg of Strasburg, and Coster of Haerlem, have each their advocates. The pretensions in favour of Fust seem to be the best supported; but we shall not trespass upon the patience of our readers by entering into a discussion of this matter, because such a discussion would, in our opinion, be of little importance, it having been generally agreed, that printing with moveable types was not practised till after the middle of the fifteenth century, although prints from blocks of wood are traced as far back as the year 1423.

"It seems probable, that the art of printing might have been introduced in Europe by some European who had travelled into China, and had seen some of their printing tablets, as it is known that several Europeans had been over-land into China before this time; and what strengthens this probability is, the Europeans first printed on one side of the paper only, in the same manner as the Chinese do at present, but, however this may be, the progress of the art was as follows:

"First, pictures from blocks of wood without text.

"Secondly, pictures with text

"Thirdly, whole pages of text cut on blocks of wood, sometimes for the explanation of prints which accompanied them. And,

"Fourthly, moveable types. Specimens of all which are given in the *Idée generalé des Estampes* just referred to."

An appendix concerning the radical letters of the Pelasgians closes the volume. The domestic erudition is the most valuable part of it. The printing is exquisitely beautiful. The illuminated engravings, the vellum paper, display to advantage the allied arts. The author will descend to posterity as an adept in diplomatic science, and a tasteful cultivator and patron of the connected branches of literature.

ART. II. *Anecdotes of the English Language, chiefly regarding the Local Dialect of London and its Environs, in a Letter from* SAMUEL PEGGE, *Esq. F. S. A.* 8vo. pp. 234.

THERE is some merit in the mere compilation of phænomena respecting the vernacular and idiomatic dialect of the multitude. They may serve, like insulated facts in chemistry, to prepare the generalizations of philosophy. The grammarian may deduce from them important contributions to the theory of language; the author may find among them expressions worthy of being ingrafted into the phraseology of composition.

The compilation of mere blunders is, however, the least useful department of philological industry. Mis-utterings and mis-spellings of words, whose derivation and orthography are notoriously settled, may, by being recorded, warn the careless and the ignorant against such intolerable repetition: but they can at most be employed to assist a farce writer in making his cockneys ridiculous. To enumerate them with apologetic complacence, is to endanger the purity of the received diction. Too much of this blunder-mustering occurs in these anecdotes: they consist chiefly of vitious expressions, enumerated without censure.

The form of reviewal most adapted to guard our speech against the intrusion of these metropolitan provincialisms, would be a perpetual commentary, a discussion, word by word, of the claims of each to retainal or dismissal. But this would be too voluminous for us, too tedious for our readers. We must restrict ourselves therefore to desultory annotations.

P. 22. The etymology of *cockney* is discussed. Junius had already settled the point: it is originally Welsh, connected with the root *coer*, indulgent, and means a spoilt child. In Brittany the woad, whence a sort of European indigo is made, is called *cocagne*, and, as it requires a loamy fertile soil, the name *pays de cocagne* is come to signify a plentiful country. This *cocagne* was used for ta-

Digitized by Google

tooing in early times. Probably, therefore, *to paint the person* is the species of indulgence whence *coereth*, effeminacy, has its name.

P. 25. Some nations have used the word *bull* as an augmentative: the English use the word *horse*, this being no doubt the largest animal of their acquaintance, before the southern breeds of oxen were introduced. Thus we have *horse-leech*, *horse-chesnut*, *horse-radish*, *horse-walnut*, *horse-emmet*, *horse-muscle*, *horse-crab*, *horse-godmother*, *horse-laugh*, *horse-face*, *horse-cucumber*, *horse-marten*, *horse-mint*, *horse-play*, &c. But our author seems incorrect in referring to this head the phrase *sick as a horse*: it is probably a corruption of *sick of his orts*, sick of the dainties he has eaten. *Orts*, though obsolete now, is to be found in Skinner and Junius: but a horse is not subject to vomiting.

P. 40. Some vague prate occurs about the abbreviation of those words ending in *our* and in *ck*. 1. The most desirable plan would be to spell the verbs *honour*, *favour*, and their derivatives *honourable*, *favourable*, with the *u*; and to spell the substantives *honor*, *favor*, without the *u*. Children and foreigners have often a difficulty in distinguishing our substantives from our verbs. 2. The substantives *publick*, *musick*, *frolick*, *traffick*, have nearly dropped the final *k*; but it would have been better to drop the intervening *c*, because the *c* is an equivocal letter, which stands for *s* in *mice*, *rice*, *chaise*, *witch*; for *ts* in *much*, *rich*, *chair*, *chop*; and for *k* in *coffin*, *care*, *ache*, *antic*, &c. so that the less this letter is used, the less the difficulty of learning to read.

P. 54. *Unpossible*, *unactive*, *unsufferable*, are unexceptionable words: the formative *un*, although Saxon, is so wholly English, that it cannot be annexed to words of Greek, Latin, and French origin, without exciting that feeling of displeasure which hybrid words usually produce. Besides, the syllable *in*, having a double or triple sense, is often equivocal, and should be used as rarely as possible. Scholars mostly prefer to inflect Greek roots with Greek formative syllables, Latin with Latin, and French with French; *atheous*, *indignant*, *indefeasible*; not *untheous*, *undignant*, *undefeasible*; but all Gothic roots, with the Gothic syllable, *unthrift*, *ungodly*, *unwalled*, *unawares*.

P. 55. *Shay* and *poshay* for *chaise* and *post chaise*. These are euphonious colloquial abbreviations, which perhaps merit adoption, because they rid the language of a gallicism, an anomaly, and an equivocation.

P. 58. It is said in the note that *quits* is bad English, and is a school-boy's adverb. A like reproach is made (p. 60) to *somewheres* and *oftens*. The regular mode of forming adverbs in all the Gothic dialects is to add *s*. Thus from the adjective *unaware* comes the adverb *unawares*; from the preposition *beside* the adverb *besides*; the adverbializing *s* also occurs in *backwards*, *forwards*, *upwards*, *downwards*, *homewards*, *darklings*, *straitways*, &c. In a note to the same page, the expression *for all that* or *afrall that*, as it is pronounced, comes in review: it signifies *notwithstanding that*. Perhaps it is a corruption of *after all that*, or *off all that*; or perhaps of *afar all that*, from the Anglo-Saxon verb *afaran*: the latter is most probable, and indicates the expedient form of writing the phrase.

P. 89. The comparatives *worser* and *lesser* are reviled: they are both Saxon, in which language *worse* means *bad*, and *less* means *small*. The corruption consists in joining *than* to the positive.

P. 92. *Ulpholsterer* is declared against as a corruption. Whence does it derive? surely not from to *uphold*; the *st* would in this case never have intruded. From the Anglo-Saxon *bolstre*, bolster, comes *bolsterer*, a maker of *bolsters*; the vowel prefixed is a mere coalescence of the article, as when we say *a newt*, *an apoticary*; or as when the French say *le L'antin* for the Antinous. But from *poult*, a chicken, should derive *poulter*, a dealer in chickens, and not *poulterer*.

P. 96. We are told that the ancient increment *alder* means *older*, whereas it means *of all*, and is a common prefix to superlatives in all the gothic dialects. Thus *aldirlevist lord* signifies *dearest of all masters*. To write,

> "And in her armes she bore her *alder youngest* child,"

would have been good English, while this prefix, which also occurs in the less equivocal form *aller* was in use.

P. 173. The regular and familiar adverbs *afoot*, *ahorseback*, are censured: they are regularly formed by prefixing the adverbializing *a*, like *aboard*, *adrift*, *aloof*, *adays*, *anights*, *abreast*, *ahead*, *aside*, and are equally entitled to reception. We might analogously say: What is *aclock*? This formative syllable is pro-

Digitized by Google

bably a contraction of the earlier form of the preposition now written *on*. It ought not to be confounded with the verbal augment *a*, which is of French origin, and which serves to transmute nouns into verbs, as from *base* to *abase*, from *certain* to *ascertain*, &c.; or with the participial augment *a*, which is of gothic origin, and which serves to form the participle present of the neuter, or middle voice. The hay is *amaking*.

"Thou, now *adying*, sayst thou flatt'rst me."

To go *abunting*. But the active participle will not receive this augment: they are *hunting* the hare.

P. 177. The participial augment *y* is called an excrescence, a redundance, in *ybuilt*, *ybrought*, *yloved*. Where the participle is not distinguished by its termination from the preterite, it is surely some object to distinguish it by a prefix. The most convenient form which our verbs can assume, is to form the preterite in *ed*, and the participle in *en*: *show*, *showed*, *shown*; *owe*, *owed*, *owen*; *cast*, *casted*, *casten*; wherever usage offers the choice, it is desirable to employ the mixture of both conjugations.

P. 181. *Self* is a substantive, signifying *soul*. It ought to be united with the possessive, not with the personal pronoun. *His self*, *her self*, *their selves*, (as Sir William Jones has observed), are purer expressions than the received ones. Our author, instead of attending to this fact, proposes to adopt the *hisself* of the Londoners in the nominative case only, and to continue employing in the accusative the barbarism *himself*.

P. 228. The participle *went* is from the verb *to wend*, which means *to turn*, and is scarcely obsolete. It is not a proper substitute for the past tense of *to go*, in such phrases as *I went strait forwards*. Why not resume *I goed*, or *I gang?*

P. 249. Mr. Pegge very properly censures Johnson's dictionary, of which only the preface is well executed; but his criticism is too vague to be instructive. The late Dr. Geddes had, it is said, an interleaved copy of Johnson's dictionary, in which he had inserted many words occurring in oriental books of travels, with proper definitions and vouchers. It is much to be wished that this, and all similar supplements to Johnson's dictionary, were published; the smaller collections of words in magazines, and the larger in distinct volumes. Without such contributions from different quarters, a complete English dictionary will hardly be achieved.

P. 259. The syllables *er*, *ist*, *ism*, and *ize* pass in review. Our author asks why we do not say *a bookist*, *a hattist*, *a stationist*, as well as *a druggist*, *a tobacconist*, *an organist?* The syllable *er* is originally Saxon, connected with the word *herr*, master, and with the pronoun *er*, he, and is used in all the gothic dialects to form personal substantives masculine from verbs. So *bake*, *baker*; *drum*, *drummer*; *fish*, *fisher*. This syllable, closely resembling the Latin *or* and the French *eur*, has been frequently substituted to those syllables in words of French and Latin origin. So *stationer*, *trumpeter*, *governer*, *translater*; although the two last words are sometimes written with *or*. The syllable *ist* is of Greek origin: it seems connected with the root *to stand*, and signifies *a stander*. It is fitly used to inflect words of Greek derivation: Κιθαρα, Κιθαριστης; *organ*, *organist*; *Plato*, *platonist*; *analyze*, *analist*; *sophist*, *theorist*, *methodist*, *monarchist*. From an affectation of learning, probably, some authors have called themselves *tourists*, some apoticaries *druggists*, and a subsequent subdivision of this trade, *tobacconists*: these are all hybrid words. The formative syllable *ism* being of Greek origin, is not frequently combined with words of any other derivation: *Platonism*, *sophism*, *methodism*, *catholicism*, *theism*; except that in the schools of philosophy all opinions are classed in *isms*, and all sectators in *ists*. Materialism, puritanism, libertinism, jesuitism, jacobinism, protestantism, republicanism; materialist, spiritualist, idealist, Calvinist, philosophist, dogmatist, revolutionist, &c. several of which words are hybrid, or made up of different languages. The syllable *ize* is originally Greek: to *theorize*, to *philosophize*, to *cauterize*; but it is used very familiarly both in the French and English writers of late date, to form adjectives into verbs. So *human*, *humanize*; *provincial*, *provincialize*; *volatile*, *volatilize*, (and not *volatize*, as Mr. Burke writes); *familiar*, *familiarize*. There is an unwillingness to annex this syllable to all words of northern derivation, and to those adjectives of southern derivation, which do not terminate in liquids.

P. 267. Minshew is probably right in the derivation of *haberdasher*; it was a nick-name given to the German jews, from their offering petty wares with the phrase *hab er dass, herr,—buy you this, Sir*. Mr. Pegge is probably right in deducing

poticary, the older form of spelling, from *boticario*; the derivation from the Greek αποθηκη is an after-refinement.

P. 275. Corn-chandler probably is corn-cantler, one who sells or buys corn by the sample; from the French *echantillon*, sample, is derived the English word *cantle*.

P. 302. "We ought to reform our cards of invitation and acceptance," says Mr. Pegge. His reasons will amuse.

"*Compliments*—seem to mean *complyments*, and therefore cannot be used in the first instance of an invitation, as it rather appears to be the language of the *invité* than of the *inviter*. A asks B to dine with him. B returns for answer, that he will *comply* with A's invitation. *Compliments*, therefore, ought to be the cardinal word of ceremony in the return, and not in the request. 'A good morrow morning to you*;' an evening compliment, which I have heard made use of, as well as a morning one.

"*Wait upon*.—The answer to an invitation from A to B is, that B will do himself the pleasure of *waiting* upon A. This is contrary to all the rules of etiquette; for A, at whose house the scene is to lie, is bound to *wait* upon B, his guest. I remember when the language was, that A should say to B, on inviting him to his house, 'that he would be very happy to *wait* upon him in St. James's square.' Every man is to *wait* upon his *guests*, by himself, or his sufficient deputy, and not *they* upon *him*. In the first instance to *wait* means to *attend upon*: just the reverse of the French *attendre*, which signifies to wait *for*, or expect.

"There are many words and expressions in use among our forefathers, which would make very strange havock with our present modes of writing and speaking.

"I have received the *unvalued* book you sent me: Milton's verses on Shakspeare.†

"Mr. A keeps a very *hospital* table.‡

"I have visited Mr. B. this summer, and feel great *resentment* of the treatment I received.§

"I have lately read Mr. ——'s history of ——. It is a most *pityful* performance. Sir Thomas More's Edward V. 1641, is called his 'Pityful Life of Edward V.'

"King Charles I. was very much reduced indeed; but the reduction of King Charles II. brought things right again.‖

"Mr. A is as *humoursome* a man as I ever met with; though at certain times he can be as *humourous* as any body.—Shakspeare.

"I never saw any man more *important* than he was, when he came to beg I would do him the greatest favour in the world: Comedy of Errors, act v. scene 1.—And I treated him *respectively*. Two Gentlemen of Verona, and Godwin's Henry VIII. p. 101.

"But I afterwards found that he was a man of the greatest *dissolution* in the world. Robertson's Charles V. vol. iv. p. 362.

"*Exceedingly* may be used independently as an adverb, but not as an augmenting adjective: as, 'I like it *exceedingly*;' but we cannot say 'exceedingly well,' and should say 'exceeding well,' *i. e.* more than well; as Shakspeare does the word *passing*.—'Tis strange, 'tis *passing* strange.'

"Where does he live? In a very *inhabitable* part of ——shire, where his father lived before him. Richard II. act i. sc. 1.

"To the affectation of new-fangled modes of spelling words, we may add what has of late years happened to names and titles, some of which have been expanded, or altered, in the position of letters, or in their terminations, and in other particulars, contrary to long-established practice, however they may be warranted by ancient usage, insomuch that one scarcely knows them again when seen in their old new clothes.

"If every name of a person or place were to be restored to original spellings, we should not discover who was meant; nay, the simplest names have been so mutilated, that the learned editor of the Northumberland Household Book assures us that he has seen the plain, dissyllabical name of *Percy*, in various documents which have come before him, written *fifteen* different ways.

"The family name of the Earl of *Dysart* has so long been spelt *Talmash*, that one stares at the first view of the present mode of writing it—*Tollemache*. The peerage of Scotland, Crawfurd, Douglas, &c. and the heraldic writers, Sir George Montague, and Mr. Nisbett, give it as *Tallmash*.

"The name of *Littleton* is now studiously to be written *Lyttleton*, under pain of displeasure. The great lawyer, the head of that name, wrote it *Littleton*; and no lawyer of the present age would scruple to do it; as does his commentator, Lord Chief Justice Coke. I fancy that our friend Adam Littleton, the dictionarian, would have whipped a boy for spelling it otherwise than as we find it at the end of his dedication, *Littleton*.

"Some words have got back again. *Fauconberg* was for a long time *Falconbridge*, and is now got back again to *Fauconberg*. Shakspeare has it both ways.

"I love to *learn*, sir, but I hate to *unlearn*. To you and I, sir, who have seen half a hundred years, it is re-funding.

"*Consequential*. 'Less consequential to the interests of life.' Mr. Steevens's note to

* "Good-morrow; for, as I take it, it is almost day." *Measure for Measure*, act iv. sc. 2.
† "See a note on Richard III, act i. scene 4. edit. 1778.
‡ "Fuller, Ch. Hist. b. v. p. 197.
§ "See Life of Dr. Radcliffe, p. 92, edit. 1736. N. B. It is in Johnson's Dictionary.
‖ "Life of Dr. Thomas Fuller, London 1661, 12mo. p. 104."

Digitized by Google

Twelfth Night, p. 189. Rather *consequentious*. *Godly*, adverbially, for *godlily*, Offertory.

"*Ungodly*, adverbially: 'vainly, detestably, and *ungodly* employed.' Appendix to Mr. Pennant's Journey from Chester to London, 1778, 4to. No. III. in the resignation of the prior and convent of St. Andrew's, Northampton *.

"*Married*. He married *her*—she married *him*.—Rev. Mr. A. married them. Il *maria avec*.

"*Gentleman-like*. 'He treated me in a gentleman-like manner.' It should rather be 'Gentleman*ly*;' otherwise it is a reflection, as if his gentlemanship was affected, or mine was doubtful. 'He treated me like a gentleman,' operates both ways. I have heard it pronounced gentlemany, without the second l.

"Dr. Robertson writes *brieves*, vol. ii, p. 133. So *beeves*, without a singular. The printers say *prooves*."

P. 310. This author enters upon rules for coining new words. Some of these rules are most ignorantly laid down. So in page 311 he says, that *dinnerism* and *supperism* could be used; but not *teaism* and *coffeeism*. Yes; if each of these meals were to become a subject of theoretical discussion, and were to divide the eating and drinking world into sects of opinion; if one half of the epicurean clients of fashion were enthusiasts for one meal, or one refreshment, and the other half for the others: then we might talk of dinnerists and coffeeists conspiring to gallicize the manners of the British; and of teaists and supperists, who persevere in the rustic greediness of swallowing two cookings in a day.

We are told again (p. 312) that *miserability* is as regular a word as *irritability*. We use the verb *to irritate*; we therefore know that *irritable* means able to be irritated, and *irritability* the capability of being irritated. We do not use the verb *to miserate*; we do not know that the adjective *miserable* means able to be commiserated, for we use it in a different sense, as if it meant *miserly*: we are consequently not tempted to form *miserability*. But the verb to *commiserate* being in use, the verbal adjective *commiserable* being therefore intelligible, we should not be offended at the coinage of *commiserability*, but should instantly understand it.

We are told that *scoundrality* is as regular a word as *scurrility*. No. *Scoundrel* not being a Latin word, will not so easily coalesce with the formative syllables of Latin origin, as *scurril*, which is a Latin word; nor can *scoundrel*, a substantive, be joined to the termination *ity*, without the intervening coinage of the appropriate adjective.

We are told (p. 313) that *starvation*, *botheration*, *routation*, and *talkation*, are as defensible as *scandalization*. No such thing. From verbs of southern origin, whose infinitives terminate in *are*, it is regular to form substantives in *ation*: *create*, *creation*; *civilize*, *civilization*; *scandalize*, *scandalization*; *salute*, *salutation*; *commiserate*, *commiseration*. From gothic roots no such substantives can be formed; *starvation*, however popular, is a barbarism; the other words have never been pronounced but by the miss Slipslops of modern affectation.

We are told (p. 322) that the word *hospitality* should rather be *hospitability*. Just the reverse. Verbs, which can have no passive voice, can form no adjectives passive; but adjectives in *able* are adjectives passive. *Hospitari* is a verb of this kind: were we in translating Pliny to say, The chesnut-tree, when transplanted, will not *hospitate*, the verb would be neuter, and therefore ought not to form an adjective in *able*. From the Latin *hospitalis* we ought to have formed the adjective *hospital*, the substantive *hospitality*; but *hospitium* should have been rendered *hospice* not *hospital*; the awkward cacophony has occasioned the impurity. Instead of the intolerable word *hospice*, another word *hospitary*, or *hospitory*, might have been hazarded.

On the whole, these anecdotes of our language may indeed serve to be the cause of grammar in others, but have very feeble claims themselves to the merit of being compiled by an assiduous grammarian, or commented by an able philologer.

ART. III. *Observations on the Drama, with a View to its more beneficial Effects on the Morals and Manners of Society. In Three Parts. By* EDWARD GREENE, *Corresponding Member of the Literary and Philosophical Society of Manchester.* 8vo. pp. 60.

WITHOUT conceding to the drama so powerful an influence on the morals and manners of society, as Mr. Greene, in common with many others, attributes

* "Of all their ungodly deeds which they have ungodly committed, Jude ver. 15."

to it; "an influence even more forcibly operative, perhaps, than the most perfectly written system of ethics;" we are nevertheless very attentive to any remarks, which have for their object to rescue it from the meanness and degradation into which it is avowedly sunk. It should be recollected, however, in defence of our modern play-wrights, that before they can lead the public taste, they must consult it.

"Ah! let not censure term our fate, our choice,
The stage but echoes back the public voice;
The drama's laws the drama's patrons give,
And we that live to please, must please, to live."

So that if the manager of Drury-lane or Covent-garden were to turn *censor morum*, and make the amusement of his audience secondary and subordinate to the moral of his drama, like the starved apothecary in Romeo and Juliet, he would soon have to reckon "a beggarly account of empty *boxes*."

Had Mr. Greene confined his observations to the moral influence of the drama, we should have said concerning them, that although they had no novelty to recommend them, and although they were not set forth in a very forcible or new light, still that they were generally sound and good, and did unquestionable credit to the chastity of his mind. But we are not disposed to pay so high a compliment to the correctness of his critical as to his moral taste, finding, as we do, many remarks from which we are obliged to dissent. In a feeble and spiritless estimate of Shakespeare's merits, it is objected against him, that his plots are in some cases void of probability, the subjects of many of his pieces visionary, and grounded on the extreme of fiction, and the grossest superstition.—Mr. Greene continues to observe, that had Shakespeare allowed his judgement and reason to have repressed the wildness of his fancy and genius, it would doubtless have led him to have exploded his fairies, his witches, and his magicians, as beings out of nature and offsprings unworthy a mind so exalted as his own. Ghosts are of course unmercifully abused, and so much a matter-of-fact man is Mr. Greene, that in the construction of a tragedy every fictitious circumstance is to be avoided (p. 47), blank verse is condemned as being little calculated to pourtray nature as we really find it, and the serious drama is considered as losing half its effects on the mind, when the dramatist quits the simple and intelligible language of nature, to soar into the regions of fancy." So a dramatic poet is to be confined to matters of fact, and his fabled pinions are to be clipt, lest he should soar into the regions of fancy!

Ghosts, indeed, have of late years been very fashionable, and at one time so essential were they considered to the success of a piece, that we remember a witty prologue to a new play, where the speaker, personating the author, begins by expressing his anxieties and fears for the success of his drama: he had submitted it to the revision of his critical friends; some had advised one alteration, some another.——Two or three—Mr. Greene might be one of the number perhaps—had objected against his ghost. "Absurd," says he, "you know very well in the present state of the times, it is the very life and soul of a performance;—give up the ghost!" So he concludes his prologue very emphatically by exclaiming in good earnest, "I shall die, if I *give up the ghost!*"

But to be serious: although we are disposed to reprobate as severely as Mr. Greene himself can do, the introduction of unsubstantial spirits on the stage, for the mere purposes of the nursery, for the amusement of grandams and the frightening of children; although we feel ashamed and disgusted at the "Castle Spectres" of the present day; at these figures

"Of ashy semblance, meagre, pale, and bloodless,"

which stalk with rustling armour, or with winding sheet, across the stage, coming in such "questionable shapes" that no one knows the object of their visit: yet must we condemn at once, as tasteless and inefficient, any attempt at the indiscriminate expulsion of these supernatural beings from the stage. Let them appear when the solemnity and high importance of the occasion require it; when some mystery is to be unfolded beyond the reach of human sagacity, or some powerful villain is to be appalled, whom no man dares resist. The Horatian precept is,

"Nec Deus intersit nisi dignus vindice nodus."

Mr. Greene affects to excuse Shake-

Digitized by Google

speare for the introduction of his preternatural beings, because a belief of their existence was general when he wrote: his ghosts and witches, &c. were brought forward in compliment to the opinions, and prejudices, and superstitions of the age. It is true, indeed, that we are too enlightened and humane at this time of day to burn an inoffensive decrepid old woman for witchcraft; but is Mr. Greene prepared to say that popular superstition, as to the existence of apparitions, is past away? On the contrary, the subject is shrouded in such impenetrable mystery, is wrapt in such awful indistinctness, as to be extremely impressive upon vulgar minds. Can any thing exceed the effect produced by the ghost of Hamlet's father? how admirably is the dialogue between Horatio and Bernardo calculated to throw a solemnity and fearfulness upon the story which is to be related, and how instrumental to the developement of the murder is the shadowy, but

" Fair and warlike form,
In which the majesty of bury'd Denmark
Did sometimes march!"

The witches in Macbeth announce with a prophetic tongue the future thane of Cawdor, and the future king. On the morning after Duncan's murder, and before it is announced, Lenox tells Macbeth,

" The night has been unruly: where we lay
Our chimneys were blown down; and as they say
Lamentings heard i'the air; strange screams of death;
Aud prophesying, with accents terrible,
Of dire combustion, and confused events
New hatch'd to the woeful time: The obscure bird
Clamour'd the live-long night: some say, the earth
Was feverous, and did shake."

The poet probably did not confine himself to matters of fact here; and if Mr. Greene cannot forgive his excursion into the regions of fancy, we can only lament his obduracy. Will not the fine effect produced by Banquo's ghost sitting in Macbeth's chair at the supper scene, pardon his intrusion?

" Avaunt! and quit my sight! let the earth hide thee!
Thy bones are marrowless, thy blood is cold;
Thou hast no speculation in those eyes
Which thou dost glare with!"

Well may Macbeth reply to the hardened taunts of his lady, who chides him that he had

" Displaced the mirth, broke the good meeting
With most admired disorder;"

well may he reply,

" Can such things be,
And overcome us like a summer's cloud,
Without our special wonder? You make me strange,
Even to the disposition that I owe,
When now I think you can behold such sights
And keep the natural ruby of your cheeks
When mine are blanch'd with fear."

Nothing can be more imbecile, and we shall take the liberty of adding, more presumptuous at the same time, than Mr. Greene's attack upon the use of verse in the serious drama. If Mr. Greene had recollected that all the great dramatic exemplars of ancient and of modern times, are written in measured language; that Greece, and Rome, and France, and England, have invariably adopted it on their stage, he would have been struck with the presumption of opposing his solitary voice to an usage which has been sanctioned by the most polished people of the most polished countries, in their most polished times. " Can it be imagined," says Mr. Greene, " that a man, whilst his mind is torn and agitated by a conflict of violent and opposing passions, or occupied in the contemplation of a great event, can so far lose sight of the more immediate subject, as to collect and arrange his thoughts in the studied measure of verse?"——Astonishing! Would Mr. Greene have a murder described upon the stage in the same mean language in which it would be delivered by an evidence before his lordship on the bench and " the court and jury sworn?" Poetry is the very language of passion, and it is the language too of nature. We certainly are not in the habit of conversing in numbers, and putting our familar discourse into rhyme; but let an orator—whether he is an Indian savage or a British senator, whether a Logan or a Burke, is perfectly immaterial—let him be warmed and elevated, and, as it were inspired, with his subject; let his mind be " occupied in the contemplation of some great event," or " torn and agitated by a conflict of violent and opposing passions;" this is precisely the occasion when he will spurn the low crawling language of com-

Digitized by Google

mon life, his emotions will give dignity to his utterance, and his language will be the genuine, the measured language of poetry. In our critique on Mr. Lewis's Alfonso, (see vol. I. p. 688) we have already given our sentiments as to the use of blank verse in the serious drama; we there stated it to be our opinion, and we state it to be our opinion now, that the diction of the tragic muse should ever be as lofty as her sentiments; to give them appropriate utterance they require the pomp and harmony of verse; poetry should bestow upon them all her grace and all her grandeur. There is a familiarity in the unmeasured dialogue, which although not unsuitable to the colloquial ease and carelessness of comedy, always derogates from the loftiness and dignity of tragedy.

One word more and we have done. Mr. Greene, as he is describing to us what tragedy and comedy ought to be, and what they ought not to be, says, (p. 57), that "the tragic muse should *confine* itself to the quiet haunts and to the natural scenes and circumstances of domestic life, in a forcible and affecting pourtray of individual suffering; *attaching itself solely to those instances which life is continually furnishing* of virtue struggling with, and rising superior to distress; and above all, in faithfully repeating the voice of nature herself."

If Shakespeare were to be tried by the canons of criticism, enacted by Mr. Greene, he would be found miserably wanting! We remember some veterinary anatomist who published a book, in which all the proportions which a horse *ought to have* were very peremptorily laid down: the standard distance from the head to the shoulder, from the shoulder to the first rib, from the rib to the hip, &c. &c. was firmly established; but when our anatomist came to measure the proportions of the celebrated Childers (or Eclipse; it was one of the two) he found that not one of them accorded with his standard of perfection! The inference was very obvious: the horse was ill-made, and had not a good point about him; to be sure he was the swiftest horse upon the turf, but put together in the clumsy manner he was, he had no right to be so, and there must be some trick in it. Shakespeare is something in the like predicament; although he excels all other dramatists more than Childers or Eclipse excelled any other horse at Newmarket, the fact, according to Mr. Greene, *ought* to be very unaccountable. For, in the first place, Shakespeare was a fellow of infinite jest and "most excellent *fancy*;" and often soared into those regions which dramatists are forbidden to see. In the next place, his tragedies are all in blank verse: this is not the language of nature. In the third place, the magic of his wand was continually employed in raising ghosts, witches, fairies, and "beings out of nature," and only fit for old women and children. In the last place, far from "confining" his tragic muse "to the quiet haunts, and to the natural scenes of domestic life;" far from "attaching her solely to those instances which life is continually furnishing," almost all Shakespeare's tragedies have some monarch for their hero, the incidents of whose reign have very little reference to "domestic life," bear very little resemblance to its "natural scenes," and very rarely occur within its "quiet haunts."

ART. IV. *Critical and Philosophical Essays. By the Author of the Adviser.* Vol. I. 12mo. pp. 336.

IN the preface to a work we generally find an author giving some explanation of his plan, and his reasons for pursuing it; he frequently tells us the motives which influenced him to publication, and usually endeavours to conciliate the good-will of his readers, by offering some claims on their indulgence, and expressing a becoming consciousness of his imperfections. The pert and flippant preface to these Critical and Philosophical Essays, as they are arrogantly called, is of a singular nature, for it doubly aggravates the disgrace and ignominy which it affects to wipe away. One half of this volume is devoted to considerations on Dr. Blair's Lectures on Rhetoric: without one atom of taste or genius, without one spark of learning or of science, this essayist has dared to ridicule the writings and insult the memory of a man, whose works have stood the test of liberal criticism, and are every day contributing to improve the morals, refine the manners, and chasten the taste of mankind.

The preface to this volume is as disgusting—and that is saying a great deal—as any part of its contents: the author tells us that he sent his essays down

Digitized by Google

to Oxford to be printed, and entrusted the correction of his proof sheets to a friend. When the work was printed and transmitted to London I looked over it, says he, and felt myself ashamed and disgusted at the manner in which much of it was written. All the copies were printed off, and *it was consequently* too late to cancel the work!

He acknowledges with a degree of *sang froid* which is very unusual, that his strictures on Dr. Blair are expressed "with a coarseness of brutality and an insolence of contempt that can possibly serve no other purpose than to defeat the end for which these essays were written."

Many similar expressions of contrition and repentance occur, but placed as they are here, serve less to soften than to aggravate the offence.

Because the copies were printed off it was too late to cancel the work! Can any thing be more gross and inexcusable than to publish a work deliberately, and with a full consciousness that it contains matter "coarse" and "cruel, insolent" and "brutal!" Is deliberate insolence and brutality to be compensated by an empty apology? The author of these essays will find that they are not; and although his preface is a sort of pillory in which he has voluntarily exposed himself as a punishment for his crime, he will experience more scorn than compassion. And deservedly so; for the culprit is no sooner descended from the scaffold than he shews a strong disposition to repeat the offence. In the preface itself he says—the passage is worth transcribing as it evinces the clearness of the author's conceptions and his ability to cope with the eloquent rhetorician—in the preface itself he says that "most of Blair's book is made up of mere assertions, unbacked by argument, or resting on the tottering basis of authority, which vacillates on the ground of hypothetical conjecture, and only delays its total ruin and entire annihilation, till the torch of reason and of truth approaches to discover its inanity and nothingness." What splendid imagery! how distinct and illustrative! The author proceeds to tell us that the only method by which men can be so formed as to fulfil the great end for which they were created, is, by being taught how to expand, to strengthen, and to refine all their intellectual faculties; but this cannot be done till those faculties are pointed out, and the means by which they may be cultivated explained. This most important of all undertakings—*has been attempted in the Anthropaideia or Tractate on General Education*, &c. In this Tractate on general education, too, "the means are laid down, by which the imagination may be invigorated and expanded, so as to exalt man in the dignity of thinking beings, and to render him more capable of fulfilling the high and mighty functions attached to his station in the economy of nature." A great many other important subjects, gentle reader! are discussed in that admirable work, which great care is taken to inform you is "printed for Wallis, Bookseller, Paternoster Row;" where also, in all probability, may be had *The Adviser, or Moral and Literary Tribunal*, a work which the author acknowledges in another transient visitation of conscience, that "it breathes nearly throughout the whole of its course, more of the vindictive and merciless spirit of Paganism, than the mild forbearance of Christianity, *ardet instat, jugulat*; it rages, it rushes forward to the onset, it murders." Mercy on us, what a confession!

We have employed more words on the preface than we shall have occasion to do on the body of the work. The subject of the first essay is the stage, which I hold to be an object of great importance, says the author, because it might be made the instrument of directing the manners of a people to what is right, and of teaching them to acquire a taste for virtue.

"In order to relieve the dryness and *tædium* of general reasonings and remarks, I have chosen to give a particular critique on the method in which Hamlet was performed at Drury lane last winter, by which means the general observations appear to slide in, as it were, incidentally, and the reader is surprized into a truth before he is well aware of it, and while his interest is raised by attending to the merits of an individual performer; for whatever relates to *man*, and depicts any of his characteristic *traits* and features, always touches us more nearly than any mere moral and abstract reasoning and reflection."

After this pompous exordium, we expected a dissertation on the moral effects of the drama, some specific censures to have been cast on its impurities, and some valuable hints to have been given for its improvement; we expected the state of dramatic composition to

Digitized by Google

have been enlarged upon, and a comparison to have been made between its merits in this and other countries. But alas! alas! five and thirty stupid pages are employed in telling us that Mr. F— who performed Hamlet at Drury-lane on the 30th November, 1802, being his second appearance on the stage, is a young gentleman who stands about five feet six inches high, that he went to school at ——, lived with a printer, &c. &c. that his gait is awkward, that he ranted here, and whined there, and bellowed somewhere else! that Polonius was not done well, the Ghost execrably, Mr. Suet's grave-digger pretty well, and that Mrs. Jordan's Ophelia was far beyond all praise. Thus endeth the first essay "on the stage!" In the second we have a long-winded translation of Miss Baillie's Count Basil into prose: this lady, who has the misfortune to be a great favourite of our author, is threatened with a renewal of his addresses on some future occasion. Count Basil is the unhappy subject of the present *critique*; act after act, scene after scene, sentence after sentence are paraphrased, and just such remarks introduced as might have been expected from any menial belonging to the theatre. Take an example: *ex uno disce omnes.* The following is our author's *criticism* on the character of Basil, the hero of the piece; "Basil is a soldier all over; military glory is his god; and he had always been a wonderful hero till this unfortunate love turned his head the wrong way, and he thought to set all right by shooting himself. I beg that I may not be imagined to offer the least disrespect to the author, by the apparently slighting manner in which I mention this pistol affair; but I have always considered suicide as so very vile and cowardly an act, that it never fails to raise my most sovereign contempt for the character that can have recourse to such a pitiful expedient, in order to sneak off from the stage of existence."

This will at once serve as a specimen of the style and of the criticism.

The next essay is on marriage, and we were vastly consoled by the information conveyed in the first sentence, where it is wittily observed, that as marriage is in itself a subject of a very prolific nature, the author does not intend to discourse on it much at large: he wishes that every female should have in her power, if she chose it, to unite herself in the bands of wedlock at the age of sixteen, and every male at that of eighteen.

Religion is the subject of the third essay. One short extract shall suffice; our readers will not fail to mark how logically the inferences are deduced.

"It is natural for a mind which looks forward to a future existence, to anticipate with anxiety his condition beyond the grave. Those whom we love and esteem are placed in a state of happiness and enjoyment, while those who have incurred our displeasure are condemned to misery: hence the idea of futurity becomes accompanied with the hope of happiness and the fear of torment; but those ideas of happiness and torment are associated with persons from whom we are conscious of having received such sentiments. The lover connects the idea of happiness with that of his mistress, the miserable with those who have relieved their wants, and the criminal associates torment with those by whom he has been punished; hence futurity involves the idea of a superior being or beings, capable of imparting pleasure or inflicting punishment. To such being, or beings, the human passions which prevail in that barbarous state of society in which such phantoms are raised, are attributed. The Divinity becomes capable of anger, pleasure, and all the variety of passions which afflict the human breast: hence a natural propensity arises to appease and propitiate that being to whom our future existence is committed. Religion has thus its origin."

Was such wretched stuff ever before committed to paper! The essayist proceeds to trace the progress of natural religion from its source in the same style; and having traced it to his own satisfaction, he begins an attack upon the clergy, whose profession he *clearly proves*, ought in this enlightened age, when reason is become adult, and the phantoms of imagination are no longer mistaken for realities, to be entirely abolished! Public worship, as it has hitherto been carried on, is considered as altogether incompatible with true religion; to the ignorant and superstitious it must be detrimental, and to the enlightened and liberal, absurd and ridiculous. Music is the only rational plan of public worship which, as appears to him, can ever be adopted: "music conveys no definite ideas to the mind; it imparts a highly pleasurable sensation to the ear, and excites the imagination to call up correspondent images. Those ideas," our author continues in the same unintelligible jargon, "which in each individual are imputed to the Deity and his dispensations, would by attendance on such public worship be called up

Digitized by Google

in the mind, and associated with pleasurable sensations, and flights of imagination. Each individual would thus be allowed to enjoy his *own* peculiar opinion without being shackled and restrained by definite language."

The fourth and succeeding essays are solely occupied with abusing Dr. Blair. We have not often so painful a task imposed upon us as we found here, that of reading a series of the most contemptuous and insulting observations that were ever penned. We have already enabled our readers to appreciate the talents of this "Critic" and "Philosopher:" and we should feel degraded in our own estimation, to enter upon a defence of the professor against so puny and malevolent an assailant.

ART. V. *Commentaries on Classical Learning. By the Rev.* D. H. URQUHART, *M. A. Prebendary of Lincoln, &c. &c.* 8vo. pp. 540.

IN reading the title of this work, we were induced to expect, what we have often wished to see ably executed, a treatise designed to vindicate, on rational and philosophical grounds, the present importance of classical literature, to delineate its branches, subjects, and extent, to open and clear its sources, to develope some of the more important canons of criticism, and by these means to lay a solid foundation for the ultimate improvement of the young and ardent disciple of literature, who is making his entrance upon these interesting fields of study. In such a work, to the bibliotheca of ancient writers, which would necessarily compose a part of it, we should expect to see joined a second bibliotheca of those grammarians and critics, to whose acuteness and labour the classic writers owe the principal part of their elucidation, and their restitution to a state of considerable purity, from the numerous stains and debasements which they had contracted in their passage through ignorant and barbarous ages.

Perhaps the word "Commentaries," adopted in the title-page, with which the idea of something profound and recondite is, in popular use associated, led us to expect, in the treatise of Mr. Urquhart, a work of the nature which we have described. The author, however, in the commencement of his enquiry, cautions his readers to expect no laborious investigations, or acute observations of criticism, since his only purpose was to enforce an important truth, the utility of a liberal education to individuals and society. In his first chapter, he forms an estimate of the utility of classical literature to the various professions and orders of society, after which introduction the remainder of his work is occupied by an arranged description of the principal writers of Greece and Rome, including slight notices of their biography, and some general criticism on the various characters of their composition. The arrangement and many of the observations are taken, we are told, from Laharpe; and in fact, though the passages thus borrowed are not distinguished, the style of a French critic is often discernible.

Though Mr. Urquhart has employed sixty-five pages in arguing the importance of ancient learning, we are of opinion, that comparatively little of this matter is strictly applicable to his purpose. He seems to consider, with a few exceptions, arts and sciences, politics and morality, as included in the discoveries and incorporated with the writings of the ancients. Hence we are to learn, that "the claims which our kindred have upon our affections are subordinate to the claims of our country." Hence the student of medicine is to derive his precepts, and here the painter to seize the ideal perfection of his art.

We are as little disposed as Mr. Urquhart to depreciate the genuine value of classical literature: we gratefully acknowledge that the improvement of the moderns results from the energies and exertions of the ancients; the day is, however, now past, when the ancients were our legitimate instructors in science. Still the enlightened study of their writings is highly delightful and ornamental, their languages remain exquisite specimens of skill, accuracy, and beauty, the acquisition of which is a most valuable discipline to the mind, their works are monuments of inestimable importance in the history of mankind, and those persons, if any such there are, who would wish to consign them to oblivion, would be a second race of Goths and Vandals.

Mr. Urquhart speaks of these "precious relics as at first casually found, and now happily secured from farther ruin." This however, except in a few

Digitized by Google

instances, is an incorrect statement of the fact. The chain of learning, though much attenuated, was never broken. We know that a very few centuries previous to the invention of printing, works of the greatest value were in being, of which scarcely a vestige can now be found.

The subject of the second section is the epic poetry of Greece, the writings of Homer, Hesiod, and Apollonius Rhodius. There certainly is a sense in which Hesiod may be styled an epic poet, as the readers of Dr. Bentley's remarks on Phalaris well know; in the modern use of the terms, he would, however, be classed with didactic writers. From this section, we select part of the criticism on the Iliad, as a specimen of the work.

"No subject could have been found to operate so forcibly on the feelings of the Grecians, as that of the siege and destruction of Troy. The recital of the interesting story must at once have gratified their vanity, excited their military ardour, and warmed their patriotism. That the choice of his subject was not more happy than the execution of his plan, is a commendation bestowed on Homer by the best critics of every age. Horace places him above the chiefs of the academy and the Portico; and though Plato would banish him, together with all other poets, from his republic, yet he confesses that his early respect and love for his writings, ought to chain his tongue; that he is the creator of all the poets who have followed him.

"The fable of the Iliad, divested of its episodes, is remarkably simple and concise. 'One of the Grecian generals, discontented with the commander in chief, retires from the camp, deaf to the call of duty, of reason, and of his friends; he scruples not to abandon the public weal to his private resentment; and his enemies, profiting by his misconduct, obtain great advantages over his party, and kill his bosom-friend. Vengeance and friendship induce him to re-assume his arms, and he overcomes the chief of the enemy.'

"Whoever carefully peruses the Iliad, will find the execution of the work to be not less judicious than the plan, which was to demonstrate the evils arising from discord amongst rulers.

"The description that Homer gives of characters is throughout consistent, and his manner, though simple, is sublime. His images are finished pictures, his reflections are moral axioms. His imagination is rich in a superlative degree; and his knowledge is universal. He is of all professions, poet, orator, mathematician, philosopher, geographer, and artisan. In the order of his story there is a variety, and in the relation of it an energy, which are produced by elevation of genius; and his verses, which delight the ear by their rythm and their cadence, denominate him the true poet of nature.

"In reading the twelve first books of Homer, we are struck with the simple yet noble progress of the work. We admire the artifice of the poet, who suffers the intervention of the gods to terminate a battle between Menelaus and Paris, which must otherwise have terminated the war. Our attention is summoned to that part where Helen passes before the old Trojans, who regard her with admiration, and are no longer astonished at seeing Europe and Asia bleeding on her account. Her conversation with the aged Priam, when she makes known to him the principal chiefs of Greece, is particularly interesting. The scene between Hector and Andromache when the hero returns to order a sacrifice, and then departs from Troy never to re-enter it, has not been celebrated too often or too much.

"These are delightful episodes, which agreeably vary the uniformity of the principal action."

From the epic poets, Mr. Urquhart proceeds to the lyric, tragic, comic, and pastoral poets of Greece; and to its orators and historians. Plutarch claims a separate section, and a concluding section is allotted to the Grecian satire, that is, to the works of Lucian. A similar plan, with some variations of order and circumstances, is pursued in the enumeration of the Roman writers. But why, among the Greeks, is Callimachus forgotten? Why are the didactic poets omitted, Aratus, Nicander, and Oppian? How is the glory of Plato and Aristotle so obscured that their names are not mentioned? Did the work of Athenæus deserve to be unnoticed? Could no proper place among the Roman writings be discovered for the great work of the elder Pliny? By a strange anachronism, Bacchylides, the contemporary of Pindar, is made to flourish thirteen centuries before the christian æra. What is meant by the episode of Cacus, apparently ascribed (p. 363) to Lucretius?

The style is often inaccurate. We are told that it was the *plan* of the Iliad to demonstrate the evils arising from discord among rulers; rather the object; the plan is the disposition which is used for the accomplishment of the object.

Speaking of Herodian, it is remarked that the imitation of his style is more desirable than difficult: we suppose, more desirable than easy. In comparisons of this kind, a little care is requisite to

Digitized by Google

avoid blunders. A similar error we have heard noticed in Sir Richard Steele's dedication of the first volume of the Spectator to Lord Somers: "the surprizing influence which is peculiar to you, in making every one who converses with your lordship, prefer you to himself, without thinking the *less meanly* of his own talents."

ART. VI. *A Treatise on ancient and modern Literature, illustrated by striking References to the principal Events and Characters that have distinguished the French Revolution. From the French of the Baroness* STAEL DE HOLSTEIN. 8vo. 2 vols.

WE must let the baroness herself say what she has designed to perform in the work.

"The first part of this work will contain a moral and philosophical analysis of Grecian and Latin literature; some reflections on the effects produced upon the human mind by the invasions of the northern nations, by the revival of letters, and by the establishment of the christian religion: a rapid delineation of the discriminative traits of modern literature, with somewhat more detailed observations on the master-pieces in the Italian, English, German and French languages, considered agreeably to the general scope of the work, that is to say, with a view to the relations that subsist between the political state of a country, and the predominant spirit of its literature. I will endeavour to shew the particular character which eloquence assumes from this or that form of government; the moral ideas which this or that religious creed is calculated to beget in the human mind; and the effects of imagination that are produced by the credulity of certain nations; the poetical beauties that belong to the influence of climate; the degree of civilization that best promotes the strength and perfection of literature; the various changes that have been introduced into the art of composition, as well as into manners, by the different modes of existence of women, before and after the establishment of the christian religion; and, finally, the universal progress of knowledge, resulting from the mere succession of ages. These will constitute the materials of the first part.

"In the second, I will examine into the state of lights and of literature in France since the revolution; and I will hazard a few conjectures respecting what ought and will be their future state, if we are one day to enjoy the possession of republican freedom and morality. The analogy of the past will lead me to a knowledge of what is yet unknown; and by re-stating the observations I will have made in the first part of this work, respecting the influence of a particular religion, a particular form of government, or particular manners and customs, I shall be enabled to draw some inferences relative to my supposed future state of things. In this second part will be seen, at once, both our present degradation and our future possible perfection. This subject must sometimes lead me to observations on the political situation of France for these ten years back; but I shall touch on it only as far as it is connected with literature and philosophy, without diverging into any digression foreign to my general purpose.

"As I survey the revolutions of the globe, and the succession of ages, one great idea is ever uppermost in my mind, from which I never allow my attention to be diverted, I mean that of the perfectibility of the human race. I cannot bring myself to think, that this grand work of moral nature has ever been abandoned; in the ages of light, as well as in those of darkness, the gradual advancement of the human species has never been interrupted.

* * *

"To this philosophical creed do I cling with all the faculties of my mind. I see, among its chief advantages, that it inspires an high sense of self-esteem, a lofty elevation of soul; and I appeal to every mind of a certain cast, if there be in this nether world a purer enjoyment, than that bestowed by this conscious elevation? To it is it owing, that there are still moments, in which all these mean grovelling beings, with all their sordid calculations of self-interestedness, fade away and sink before our eyes. We raise and reinvigorate our faculties, by contemplating the future state of knowledge, of virtue and of glory: certain vague impressions crowd in upon us, and sentiments which we cannot well define, that alleviate the load of life, while the whole moral man swells with the pride of virtue, and swims in the overflowings of happiness. If all our efforts were to be strained in vain, if our intellectual labours were to be exerted to no purpose, but irrevocably swallowed up in the oblivious gulph of time, where is the object which a virtuous man could propose to himself in his solitary meditations? For my part I have, throughout this work, incessantly reverted to every circumstance that tends to evince the perfectibility of the human species. Nor is this to be confounded with visionary theories: it is the result of observation, and stands on the evidence of facts. It is wise, indeed, to guard against that sort of metaphysics that derives no support from experience; but neither should it be forgotten that, in times of degeneracy and corruption, the name of metaphysics is given to every thing that is not circumscribed within the narrowness of self-love, or that does not coincide with the calculations of self-interest."

The first thought that will occur to

Digitized by Google

every *man's* mind in perusing the title-page to these volumes, will be the prodigious confidence of the writer, not merely in her own talents, (of those Madame Stael has a right to be confident) but in her own extensive and omnifarious erudition. A Treatise on Ancient and Modern Literature! setting Englishwomen aside, we believe, in our conscience, that there is not a man in England who would be impudent enough to affix such a title to his book. But impudence is a word, whose meaning is subject to geographical modifications, and with little danger to morals, we may allow it to be under the influence of climate and situation; what would be immodest in England, is not even indecorous in France. The baroness writes as volubly as she converses; this is often the case with our own countrywomen, but happily they do not think themselves at all times privileged to talk and to publish.

It cannot be supposed, that Madame Stael is acquainted with the subject upon which she writes; she can, however, reason upon it, as if, and probably as well as if she was. This trick of pretending to look for the philosophy of things, without understanding the things themselves, is one of the characteristics of the age. Young men catch a few metaphysical phrases and technical terms, and set up forthwith for philosophers; just as many a rascal, who can prepare a mercurial pill, advertises himself as a physician. This it is that has rendered metaphysics so common and so perfectly worthless: no preparatory study, no previous knowledge is required; as in the Cabala, a few words are sufficient to open the storehouses of science and nature!

Not having the original work before us, we cannot always tell whom we are to accuse of ignorance, the authoress or the translator. It is probably Madame Stael who tells us, that "the monotony of the Pindaric hymns, which is so irksome and fatiguing to us, was esteemed quite the reverse at the Grecian festivals:" of course, this lady must be a judge of Greek metres and Greek music! "We are told that *Euripides*, a tragedy of Æschylus, had such an astonishing effect on the spectators, that pregnant women were fearful of the consequences that might attend their being present at its representation, but its terrors were those resembling the infernal regions." This complication of inaccuracies must exist in the original. "Death held forth a much less gloomy aspect to the ancients than to the moderns; their belief in paganism calmed their fears, by representing a future state in the most brilliant and pleasing colours." This also is Madame Stael's mistake; she has read Homer, and forgotten the ghost of Achilles. But when we see that Alcestis is, in one sentence, made of both genders, and in another find Æschylus mentioned as living after Sophocles and Euripides, we perceive that the translator is even more ignorant than the writer. This last passage is a complete specimen of mistranslation.

"There is a very visible improvement in the three great tragedians, Æschylus, Sophocles, and Euripides; there is even too much distance between Æschylus and the two latter, to be able to account for his superiority by the natural progress of the human mind, in so short a space of time; but Æschylus had seen nothing but the prosperity of Athens, Sophocles and Euripides beheld their reverse, their dramatic genius was brought forward and ripened, calamity has its fecundity; no moral conclusion can be drawn from the works of Æschylus, he scarcely ever unites the sufferings of the body with those of the mind by any reflections."

It must be the translator also who says, that the comedy of *Nurees* prepared the minds of the populace for the accusation of Socrates. We know not which of the two has been erudite enough to rank Tacitus among the Greek historians. Such blunders as *Regner*, *Lodbroy*, and *Soper* de Vega are probably English. These volumes have no errata, and we are left to guess at the meaning of such inexplicable riddles as the following: "Persecutions, calumnies, sufferings of every hue, would become the lamentable lot of those who boldly think and soundly *torealize*."

The praise of style is also to be divided between the French and English writer. "The whole moral man swells with the pride of virtue, and swims in the overflowings of happiness." This Persian flower has been reared in a French hot-house. "With what fine bursts of indignation has not the aspect of Crime filled the mouth of Eloquence!" This too is exotic eloquence; but when we read of "mistress cities," of "the sound writings of accomplished wits," and find *esprit* every where rendered *wit*, the vile and vulgar phrase must not be imputed to Madame Stael,

Digitized by Google

The chapter upon the philosophy of the Greeks, is a most astonishing specimen of female effrontery.

"The minds of the Greeks were entirely engrossed by the study of the different systems of the world; the smaller the progress they had made in science, the less they were acquainted with the extent of the human understanding; that of the philosophers must be pronounced very confined in what was considered deep, and at all inexplicable. Pythagoras declared, "*that there was nothing real but what was spiritual, and that the material had no existence.*" Plato, whose imagination was so brilliant, ever returns to whimsical metaphysics, relative to men and to love, where the physical laws of the universe, and the verification of sentiments are never observed. There is nothing more irksome and fatiguing than the study of that species of metaphysics, which has neither facts for its foundation, nor method for its guide; and it is surely impossible not to be convinced of this truth, in reading the philosophical writings of the Greeks, notwithstanding we fully admit the beauty of their language."

* * * *

"The Greek philosophers were very limited in numbers, and being unable to obtain any assistance from the light of former ages, they were compelled to make their studies universal; it was therefore impossible for them to proceed to a great length in any one of them, and they wanted that method which can only be acquired by an accurate knowledge of the sciences.

"Plato could not have arranged in his memory, that which the aid of method enables the young men of modern times to do with the greatest facility."

Reader! it is a Frenchwoman who tells us this of the Greek philosophers, who assures us that Aristotle was truly great, *considering the age in which he lived*; i. e. considering that he had the misfortune to be born an Athenian, not a Frenchman! and who informs us that the Greek historians never connected their ideas with causes. "You are a very simplicity 'oman! 'Oman art thou lunatics? For shame 'oman."

Of the dark ages, Madame Stael of course knows nothing; of Italian literature she knows little; of Spanish less. Concerning the literature of the North, she shall deliver her own hypothesis.

"There appears to be two distinct kinds of literature still extant, one derived from the east, the other from the north; the origin of the first may be traced to Homer, that of the last to Ossian.* The Greeks, the Latins, the Italians, the Spanish, and the French of the century of Louis XIV. belong to that style of literature which I shall call the eastern. The works of the English and German, with some of the Danish and Swedish writings, may be classed as the literature of the north. But before I attempt to characterise the English and German writers, I think it necessary, in a general manner, to consider the principal difference of the two hemispheres of their literature.

"The English, as well as the Germans, have, without doubt, often imitated the ancients, and drawn very useful lessons from that fruitful study, but their original beauties, carrying the stamp of northern mythology, have a certain resemblance to that poetic grandeur, of which Ossian is the most splendid example.

"It may, perhaps, be remarked, that the English poets are celebrated for the spirit of philosophy which appears in all their works, and that the ideas of Ossian are not the ideas of reflection, but a series of events and impressions. I answer to this objection, that the most habitual images and ideas of Ossian are those which recall the shortness of life, the respect for the dead, the superstition connected with their memory, and the duty that remains towards those who are no more. If the poet has not united to those sentiments, morals, maxims, or philosophical reflections, it was because the human understanding at that period was not yet capable of the abstraction necessary to draw philosophical inferences; but the emotion caused by the songs of Ossian, disposed the mind to the most profound meditations.

"Melancholy poetry is that which accords

* "I here repeat what I have before said in the preface to the second edition. The songs of Ossian (a bard who lived in the fourth century) were known to the Scots, and even to some Englishmen, before they were formed into a collection by Macpherson. In tracing the origin of the northern literature to Ossian, I have only intended, as will be seen by the sequel of this chapter, to point him out as the first poet to whom we can ascribe the peculiar character of the northern poetry. The fables of the islanders, the Scandinavian poetry of the ninth century, the common origin of the English and German literature, bear the strongest resemblance to the striking characteristics of the Erse, and of the poem of Fingal. Many learned men have written upon the Rhunic literature, and the poetry and antiquities of the north. These researches are resumed by Mallet, and nothing more is necessary than to read the translation of some of the odes of the ninth century which he has given, such as Regner Lodbrog, Harold the Valiant, and others, to convince ourselves that these Scandinavian poets had the same religious ideas, the same warlike images, and paid the same respect to women that we find in Ossian, who lived nearly five centuries before them."

Digitized by Google

best with philosophy; depression of spirits leads us to penetrate deeper into the character and destiny of man, than any other disposition of the mind. The English poets which succeeded the Scots bards, added to their descriptions those very ideas and reflections, which those descriptions ought to have given birth to; but they have preserved from the fine imagination of the north, that gloom which is soothed with the roaring of the sea, and the hollow blast that rages on the barren heath, and, in short, every thing dark and dismal, which can force a mind dissatisfied with its existence here, to look forward to another state. The vivid imagination of the people of the north, darting beyond the boundaries of a world whose confines they inhabited, penetrated through the black cloud that obscured their horizon, and seemed to represent the dark passage to eternity.

"We cannot decide, in a general manner, between the two different styles of poetry, of which we may fairly say Homer and Ossian were the first models."

That any person, who can read, should have been so ignorant and so foolish as to set up such an hypothesis as this, is perfectly wonderful: "The English poets who succeeded the Scotch bards!" Will Madame Stael have the goodness in her next edition to inform us who are they? "The same religious ideas in the Runic poems and in Ossian!" Will Madame Stael have the goodness to point out the resemblance? "Ossian is reproached with his monotony: this fault exists much less in the different English and German poems which have imitated his style." Here again we must confess our ignorance of English literature, and request the baroness to tell who these English poets are. The trifling questions, whether the Ossian of Macpherson ever existed, and whether, if he did exist, he were not an Irishman, and not a Scotchman, a fact as destructive as his non-existence to the authenticity of these poems, are overlooked by Madame Stael; and if their authenticity be admitted, she has forgotten that they appeared not in a language intelligible to any civilized nation, till about the time of her own birth; and that Chaucer, and Spenser, and Shakespere, and Milton, whom we Englishmen consider as the great founders and masters of English poetry, lived some time before Madame Stael was born, and will continue to live some time after Madame Stael is forgotten.

Among her remarks on Shakespere, the baroness tells us, that "when a man is represented of a weak mind, and an inglorious destiny, such as Henry VI. Richard II. and King Lear, condemned to perish; the great debates of nature, between existence and non-existence, absorb the whole attention of the spectators." We neither understand the meaning of this passage, nor the similarity of character and situation in the three kings. The three parts of Henry VI. she says, have an unlimited success in England, whereas not one of them has ever been acted within the memory of man. "Otway, Rowe, and some other English poets, Addison excepted, all wrote their tragedies in the style of Shakespere." More information this for illiterate Englishmen!

"The English language, although not so harmonious or pleasing to the ear as the language of the east, has, nevertheless, by the energy of its sound, a very great advantage in poetry; every word that is strongly accented, has an effect upon the mind, because it seems to come from a lively impression. The French language excludes from poetry a number of words as being too simple, which are really noble in English, from the manner in which they are articulated. I shall offer one example: When Macbeth, at the moment he is going to seat himself at the festive table, sees the place that was destined for him filled by the shade of Banquo, whom he has just assassinated, he calls out with terror, '*The table is full!*' and all the spectators tremble. If these same words were to be repeated in French, "*La table est remplie*," the greatest actor in the world could not make the audience forget their common acceptation. The French pronunciation does not admit of that accent, which ennobles every word by giving it animation."

This attention to words, instead of the meaning and passion which they convey, is one of the characteristics of French taste. We once heard a Frenchman, a man of talents and letters, descant upon the inimitable and untranslatable beauties of Racine; and the example he adduced was "*Roi de rois!*" These words, he said, excited a sublime elevation of mind, by affecting the ears of the auditors, and the mouth and larynx of the speaker, which could not have been produced by the same expression in any other language, ancient or modern.

"The English are great writers in verse, and carry eloquence of mind to the highest degree; but their works in prose scarcely partake of that life and energy which is found in their poetry. The English reserve for their poetry all which belongs to the imagination—they consider prose but as the language of logic: the only object of their style is to make their arguments understood, and not to create an interest by their expressions. The

English language has not yet acquired that degree of perfection of which it is susceptible, as it has been employed oftener in commercial affairs than in literature, as much more correctness and refinement is required in a language to write good prose, than to write good verse.

"Some English writers, notwithstanding, such as Bolingbroke, Shaftesbury, and Addison, have the reputation of good writers in prose; nevertheless, their images are deficient in energy, and their style in originality. The character of the writer is not imprinted in his style, nor his internal emotions felt by his readers. It seems as if the English feared to give way to inspiration, except in their poetry; when they write in prose, a sort of modesty or bashfulness seems to keep their sentiments in captivity.

"The English transport themselves into the ideal world of poetry, but we seldom or ever find any animation in their writings upon existing subjects. The French authors are justly reproached with their egotism, their vanity, and the importance which each one attaches to his own person, in a country where the public interest had no place. But it is nevertheless certain, that an author, in order to acquire eloquence, must express his own sentiments; it is not his interest but his emotion, it is not his self-love, but his character, that must animate his writings.

"In England the spirit of business is applied to the principles of literature, and all appeal to the feelings and every thing that can in the least influence the judgment, is interdicted in those works of reason. Mr. Burke, a most violent enemy to France, has, in his work against it, some resemblance to the eloquence of that nation; and although he had many admirers in England, there are some who are tempted to accuse his *style* of bombast as much as his *opinions*, and to find his manner of writing incompatible with justice."

On this last paragraph we shall only remark, that if Madame Stael will examine the writings of Mirabeau, the most eloquent assuredly of modern Frenchmen, she will find in them *some resemblance to the eloquence of Mr. Burke.*

"*Why are the French possessed of more grace, taste and gaiety, than any other Europe n nation?*" This is the title of the seventeenth chapter. Here again we must revert to the geographical modifications of modesty. In her answer to this question, Madame Stael has well and ably traced the source of those false and fawning manners, which are called grace and gaiety in France, and of that total want of all manly sense and all manly feeling, which in the same language is denominated taste.

"France then was the only country where (the authority of the king being consolidated by the tacit consent of the nobility) the monarch possessed an absolute power, in fact, the right of which, notwithstanding, was undetermined; this situation compelled him to study even his courtiers, as constituting a part of that body of victors, which granted and secured to him France, their conquest.

"The delicacy of the point of honour, one of the delusions of the privileged order, compelled the nobility to decorate the most abject submission with the forms of liberty. It was necessary that they should preserve in their connection with their master a spirit of chivalry, that they should engrave upon their shield "For my mistress and king," that they might be thought voluntarily to choose the yoke which they wore, and thus blending honour with slavery, they endeavoured to bow without debasement; grace was, if I may be allowed the expression, in their situation a necessary policy, as that only could give the appearance of choice to obedience.

"The king, on his part, duly considering himself in some instances as the dispenser of glory, the representative of public opinion, could recompence only by applause, and punish only by degradation; he was obliged to support his power by a kind of public assent, which his will, without doubt, principally directed, but which shewed itself frequently independent of all that will. Ties of the most delicate nature, and prejudices artfully conducted, formed the connection of the first subjects with their governor Those connections required great art and quickness of mind; grace was requisite in the monarch, or at least in the dispensers of his power; taste and delicacy were necessary in the choice of favours and favourites, in order that neither the commencement nor the limits of the royal authority might be perceived. Some of its rights must be exercised without being acknowledged, some acknowledged without being exercised, and moral considerations were embraced by opinion, with such subtlety, that one bad stroke of politics was universally felt, and might be the ruin of a minister, notwithstanding any support that government should be inclined to give him.

"The king, of course, must call himself the first gentleman of his kingdom, that he might the more readily exercise a boundless authority over gentlemen; and to strengthen that authority over the nobility, a certain portion of flattery was necessarily directed to them. Arbitrary power not even then allowing a freedom of opinion, both parties perceived the necessity of pleasing each other, and the means of succeeding therein were multiplied.

"Grace, and elegance of manners, gradually passed from the customs of the court into the writings of the literary. The most elevated station, the source of all favour, is the object of general attention; and, as in all free countries, the government gives the impulse to public virtue; so, in monarchies, the

Digitized by Google

court influences the mental genius of the nation, because an universal wish is excited to imitate that which distinguishes the most elevated rank.

"When the government is so moderate, that no cruelty is apprehended from it, and so arbitrary, that all the enjoyments of power and fortune depend only on its favour, all those who aspire to that favour ought to possess a sufficient degree of mental tranquillity to render themselves amiable, and sufficient dexterity to make that frivolous accomplishment conducive to material success. Men of the first class of society in France, often aspired to power, but they ran no dangerous hazards in that career; they gamed without risking the loss of a large stake, uncertainty turned only upon the extent of their advantage; hope alone then animated their exertions; great perils give additional energy to the soul and to the reflecting powers, but security gives to the mind all the charms of ease and readiness.

"The animation of gaiety, still more than the polish of grace, banished the remembrance of all distinctions of rank, without, in reality, destroying any; by means of this, grandees dreamed of equality with kings, and poets with nobles, and inspired even the higher ranks with a more refined idea of their own advantages, which after a short forgetfulness were remembered again with renewed pleasure; and the highest perfection of taste and gaiety was the result of this universal desire to please."

* * *

"The influence of women is necessarily very great, when all events take place in the drawing-room, and when all characters are judged by their conversation, in such a case women become a supreme power, and whatever pleases them is assiduously cultivated. The leisure which monarchy left to the generality of distinguished men in every department, conduced very much to bring the pleasures of the understanding and of conversation to perfection.

"Power was attained in France neither by labour nor by study; a *bon mot*, some peculiar gracefulness, was frequently the occasion of the most rapid promotions; and these frequent examples inspired a sort of careless philosophy, a confidence in fortune, and a contempt for studious exertions, which led every mind to be agreeable and accommodating. When diversion is not only permitted, but often useful, a nation ought to attain the utmost point of perfection to which it can be carried.

"Nothing similar to this will ever be witnessed in France, whilst under a government of a different nature, however it may be constituted, which will be a convincing proof that what was called French genius and French grace, were only the result of monarchical institutions and manners, such as they have for many past ages existed in France."

Whatever be the truth of the prediction, there is good sense in these remarks. We are far from designing to pass any general and indiscriminate censure upon Madame Stael; we blame her for affecting to discourse *de omni scibile*, for talking of the Greek philosophers as familiarly as Thomas Taylor, and of the English poets as boldly as if she were competent to be their judge. We would hint to her, that it is not every *English*woman, nor Englishman either, who can understand Shakespere and Milton. It is a pleasanter task to listen to her when she is speaking upon subjects within the sphere of her own knowledge and observation.

"A bold and very difficult stratagem, allowed under the ancient government, was the art of offending against the manners without wounding taste, and to make a mockery of morality, by proportioning delicacy of expressions to indecency of principles. Happily, however, this talent is as ill adapted to the virtue as to the genius of a republic; as soon as one barrier was overthrown, the rest would be disregarded, the relations of society would no longer have the power to curb those whom sacred ties could not restrain.

"Moreover, extraordinary quickness of genius is requisite, in order to succeed in this dangerous style, which unites grace of expression to depravity of sentiments; and by the strong exercise of our faculties, to which we are called in a republic, we lose that ingenuity. The most delicate touches are necessary to give to immorality that grace, without which even the most abandoned of mankind would repulse with disgust the pictures and principles of vice."

That this talent is as ill adapted to the virtue as to the genius of a republic, no one will be disposed to deny; but we must doubt whether there be not such a disposition in Frenchmen to this talent, as would unfit them for a republican government, even if they possessed courage enough to establish one. "The morality of the French," says Madame Stael herself, "is perverted by the ardent desire they feel to distinguish themselves in any way, but most by the brilliancy of their wit. When the qualities they already possess are insufficient for this purpose, they have recourse to vice, in order to render themselves conspicuous."—Something of this will exist among individuals in all countries; but woe to the country whereof this can be the national characteristic. Because this is the national characteristic of France, we do not expect that mental and moral conva-

Digitized by Google

lescence there, to which Madame Stael, with patriotic and praise-worthy hope, looks forward.

On the prevailing faults of French literature, we find the following remarks:

"Since the revolution, the French have launched into a fault that is particularly destructive to the beauties of style; they wished, by employing new verbs, to abridge all their phrases, and render all their expressions abstruse; but nothing can be more contrary to the talent of a great writer. Concision does not consist in the art of diminishing the number of words, and it consists much less in the privation of images; what we should be ambitious of attaining, is a concision like that of Tacitus, which is at once both eloquent and energetic: energy so far from being prejudicial to that brevity of style we so justly admire, that figurative expressions are those by which the greater number of ideas are retraced in the smallest compass; neither can the invention of new words contribute towards perfection of style. Masters of the art may secure the reception of a few, when they are involuntarily created by a sudden impulse of thought; but, in general, the invention of words is a sure symptom of a sterility of ideas. When an author permits himself to make use of a new word, the reader, who is not accustomed to it, stops to judge it, and thus breaking in upon the attention, hurts the general and continued effect of the style.

"All that has been said of bad taste, may be applied to the faults of the language which has been employed by many writers, for these ten years past. Nevertheless, there are some of those faults which more particularly belong to the influence of political events, which I propose to discuss in speaking of eloquence.

"When philosophy makes a new progress, style must necessarily proceed on to perfection; the literary principles that may be applied to the art of writing have been almost all developed, but the knowledge and study of the human heart, ought each day to add to the sure and rapid means which have effect upon the mind. Every time that an impartial public are not moved and persuaded by a discourse, or a work, the fault must lie in the author; but it is almost always to what is deficient as a moralist, that his fault, as a writer, must be attributed."

This last sentence, though in the main true, is contradicted by one of the best observations which occur in these volumes "Among the Greeks," says the baroness, "envy sometimes existed between rival candidates for fame; but in these days it has passed from them to the spectators, and by one of the most unaccountable caprices that ever affected the mind of man; they are jealous of the efforts made with an intention of adding to their pleasures, and to secure their approbation." For this jealousy, Madame Stael has elsewhere assigned a reason true, but not exclusively true. "When a nation is daily acquiring new lights, it looks with fondness on great men, as its precursors in the career which it has to run; but when a nation is conscious that it retrogrades, the small number of superior minds that escape from the general degeneracy, appear, as it were, enriched with its spoils. It no longer takes a common interest in their successes, and the only emotions it feels are those that are prompted by envy." It cannot be said, that either England or France are conscious that they are going back in knowledge and power; yet that this envy of talents exists in France, Madame Stael has herself informed us, and we have no hesitation in believing her, knowing it to be true in England. The causes are many and various; that craving after distinction is one which, as it leads to vice, is always accompanied with envy. Another cause is, that literature is become fashionable. Literature in fashion, is like flowers that pine at a parlour window; that knowledge which is only acquired as an accomplishment, is little better than ignorance; emulation has been the motive, and envy will be the result, if indeed there be a metaphysician subtle enough to say where we shall place the hairs-breadth line of demarcation between the two. Whether or no men have dwindled, it is certain that books have, they have shrunk from folios to duodecimos, and it would be easy to prove, that as they have dwindled they have degenerated, and that their effect has lessened with their value. There are more authors in England now than there were in the days of Elizabeth, and more readers; but, excepting in experimental science, there is certainly less knowledge. This subject, were we to investigate it, would lead us too far astray: suffice it to observe, that novels, metaphysics, periodical criticism, and conversational criticism, which is its legitimate ape, have all contributed to the degeneracy. Abstracts of knowledge are sought, as travellers buy portable soup, and the one is as poor nourishment for the mind as the other for the body. Opinions upon all literary subjects are bought ready made, or pass from one to another, as Goldsmith tells us the koumiss is transmitted from chief to slave at a Tartar feast.

Such works as this before us have their share in the evil, they are like those un-

wholesome liquors which fill the stomach with flatulence instead of food. *Non ò é peggior ladro d'un cattivo libro*, say the Italians. We have a vulgar proverb, which says "all that does not poison fattens;" but it is false, physically and metaphorically; the stomach may be filled, and yet defrauded of its nutriment; and, in like manner, will the mind be debilitated, if words, and only words, be presented to it. What there is good in these volumes, would have been better, if brought together in an essay, and that essay a very few pages in length. As it is, we cannot but feel that it is wearying and unprofitable work to sift a bushell of chaff for the sake of half a dozen grains of wheat.

Madame Stael is a clever woman and an accomplished woman; but something more than cleverness and accomplishments are required for the composition of a Treatise on Ancient and Modern Literature. She possesses more talents than either of her parents, who were both extraordinary persons. Some such progressive amelioration as our feeders aim at in wool and mutton, is carried on by nature with the human mind. If the Neckar family be continued for a few generations, it will probably produce genius.

ART. VII. *Letters to a Young Lady, on a Course of English Poetry. By* J. AIKIN, *M. D.* 12mo. pp. 297.

WHOEVER casts his eye on the ponderous size and formidable numbers of the volumes which form a complete collection of English poetry, will be immediately sensible of the great utility of a work like that before us.

The neglect with which the classics of the last age are treated by the young persons of the present, a frequent topic of complaint with more experienced readers, is surely matter for regret rather than surprise. Should a novice in literature, particularly if a youthful female, summon up resolution to attempt a thorough methodical perusal of these mouldy archives of the muses, what will be the probable consequence? Puzzled by the obsolete phraseology of some parts, bewildered by the pompous rant of others, disgusted by the grossness of this writer, insulted by the puerilities of that, and wearied by the prolixity of the whole, she will hastily turn aside from the fatiguing task of winnowing the unsorted heap, tamely to receive from the hand of fashion the grotesque fancies of the day for the venerable costume of our ancestors, works unmeritedly extolled for those undeservedly forgotten, the feeble imitation for the nervous original, the flowery for the pithy, the new for the excellent. A kinder task could not therefore have been undertaken for the benefit of the rising generation, than that of pointing out those portions of English poetry most deserving the attention of a young lady, the characteristic excellencies and defects of each writer, and the order of reading best adapted to form a correct and unbiassed taste. The reputation of Dr. Aikin, as a judicious and impartial critic, is such as will inspire his fair pupils with respect and confidence, and the public voice will probably echo our assurance, that they could not have found a safer or more pleasing guide through the flowery paths of poesy.

Our author has not thought it requisite to open his series of letters with "any preliminary discussions of the theoretical kind, concerning the abstract nature of poetry in general, and its several species," considering the practical mode of acquiring a taste by the perusal of the best models as the most eligible. "To assist his pupil in forming an ear for the melody of verse" was his first object, and with this a chronological order was evidently incompatible, as it was desirable immediately to bring forward "those perfect examples of the art, which necessarily imply many previous attempts." Accordingly, Pope's Pastorals come first under inspection; Windsor Forest, and several more of that author's smaller pieces, are then pointed out; after which Dryden, Waller, Prior, and some others, are introduced to the notice of the scholar, before her preceptor permits her return to the works of Pope; fearful, he says, "lest fascinated by his beauties, she should fix her taste so exclusively upon him, as to regard every deviation from his manner as a defect." Its comprehensiveness is in fact the grand characteristic of Dr. Aikin's poetical system; to every branch of the art, to every species of merit, he labours to give a fair and equal chance of obtaining the applause of his young reader, and to this principle of impartiality is to be ascribed the seeming neglect of order in which his

Digitized by Google

train of poets succeed each other. We say the *seeming* neglect, for Dr. Aikin assures his correspondent, that he has in fact proceeded by a "method, perhaps scarcely perceptible to her, but never absent from his own mind." The leading principle of this method appears to be, after forming the ear to a nice feeling of the harmony of verse, to lead on the expanding mind from the simplest to the most complex and recondite forms of the poetic art. Thus, from shorter essays in the heroic measure, he goes on to the epic translations of Pope—to his satires and those of Young. To rhyme succeeds blank verse and its great master, and after the standard of excellence in this style has been fixed, the immortal Milton, his imitator Philips, some other didactic poets, Akenside, Thomson, and Young's Night Thoughts, follow. The masters of the lyric strain succeed. From personification to allegory the step is easy, and the venerable Spenser arises attended by his circle of satellites. The deepest mazes of the Parnassian Grove are now unthreaded, and disclose to view "the Witty Poets." Some minor bards then approach in a mingled throng, and Goldsmith, Johnson, and Cowper, the glory of modern times, conclude with dignity the long procession, and rest their immortal works on the altar of the muses.

Such is the plan of the volume before us. With regard to execution, its style is marked with the clearness, nervous conciseness, and easy elegance of the writer. Some, perhaps, will wish that the remarks had been multiplied and farther extended, and that a larger number of quotations had been interwoven; but it appears to have been our author's aim rather to point out the sources whence rational entertainment might be derived, and a correct taste acquired, than authoritatively to lay down a poetical creed, and require an uniformity of sentiment from his young pupils on points which may well be left to the different decisions of different minds.

It must not, however, be imagined, that the candour of our author has prevented him from expressing in strong terms his admiration and his dislike, or that his remarks are wanting in originality, because usually in conformity with the public taste, and the judgment of enlightened critics. But the following examples will better explain his views, and exemplify his manner, than any remarks of ours.

"I now, my dear Mary, mean to treat you with a rarity—a writer *perfect* in his kind. It may be a doubt whether perfection in an inferior branch of art indicates higher talents than something short of perfection in a superior; but it cannot be questioned that, by way of a study, and for the cultivation of a correct taste, a perfect work in any department is a most valuable object.

"Dean Swift is in our language the master in *familiar poetry*. Without the perusal of his works no adequate conception can be formed of wit and humour moving under the shackles of measure and rhyme with as much ease as if totally unfettered; and even borrowing grace and vigour from the constraint. In your progress hitherto, although it has been through some of our most eminent poets, you cannot but have observed, that the necessity of finding a termination to a line of the same sound with that of the preceding, has frequently occasioned the employment of an improper word, such as without this necessity would never have suggested itself in that connexion. Indeed, it is not uncommon in ordinary versifiers to find a whole line thrown in for no other purpose than to introduce a rhyming word. How far rhyme is a requisite decoration of English verse, you will judge from your own perceptions, after perusing the best specimens of blank verse. It is manifest, however, that when employed, its value must be in proportion to its exactness, and to its coincidence with the sense. In these respects, Swift is without exception the most perfect rhymer in the language; and you will admire how the very word which by its meaning seems most fit for the occasion, slides in without effort as the echo in sound to the terminating word of the preceding line. Even double and triple rhymes are ready at his call, and, though suggesting the most heterogeneous ideas, are happily coupled by some of those whimsical combinations in which comic wit consists.

"The diction of Swift is the most complete example of colloquial ease that verse affords. In aiming at this manner, other writers are apt to run into quaintness and oddity; but in Swift not a word or phrase occurs which does not belong to the natural style of free conversation. It is true, this freedom is often indecorous, and would at the present day be scarcely hazarded by any one who kept good company, still less by a clergyman. Yet he has known how to make distinctions; and while many of his satirical and humorous pieces are grossly tainted with indelicacies, some of his best and longest compositions are void of any thing that can justly offend. It is evident, indeed, that Swift, though destitute of genius for the sublimer parts of poetry, was

Digitized by Google

sufficiently capable of elegance, had he not preferred indulging his vein for sarcastic wit. No one could compliment more delicately when he chose it, as no one was a better judge of proprieties of behaviour, and the graces of the female character.

"From the preceding representation, you will conclude that I cannot set you to read Swift's works straight forwards. In fact, your way through them must be picked very nicely, and a large portion of them must be left unvisited. It should be observed, however, to do him justice, that their impurities are not of the moral kind, but are chiefly such as it is the scavenger's office to remove."

After recommending the perusal of Pope's translations of the Iliad and Odyssey, he thus proceeds.

"If the task which I have enjoined you should prove tiresome before it is finished, you may interpose between the two translations the perusal of the remaining original works of the same poet; such, I mean, as I can properly recommend to a lady's view.

"Whether the 'Epistle of Eloisa to Abelard' be among this number, is a point which I feel a difficulty in determining; yet its celebrity will scarcely suffer it to be passed over in silence. They who are afraid of the inflammatory effect of high colouring applied to the tender passion, will object to a performance which, as the most exquisitely finished of all the author's productions, is, from its subject, rendered the more dangerous on that account. And true it is, that if the picture of violent desires, unchecked by virtue and wisdom, is to be regarded as too seductive, notwithstanding any annexed representation of the sufferings to which they give rise, not only this poem, but much of the real history of human life, should be concealed from the youthful sight. But surely such a distrust of good sense and principle is unworthy of an age which encourages a liberal plan of mental cultivation. To be consistent it ought to bring back that state of ignorance, which was formerly reckoned the best guard of innocence. The piece in question, it must be confessed, is faulty in giving too forcible an expression to sentiments inconsistent with female purity; but its leading purpose is to paint the struggles of one, who, after the indulgence of a guilty passion, flew to a penitential retreat without a due preparation for the change; of a

'—wretch believ'd the spouse of God in vain,
Confess'd within the slave of love and man.'

Such a condition is certainly no object of emulation; and the poet has painted its miseries with no less force than the inconsiderate raptures which led to it. The impression supposed to be left by the story upon better regulated minds, is that which prompts the prayer,

'O may we never love as these have lov'd!'

"The 'Rape of the Lock,' styled by the writer an heroi-comical poem, though one of his early productions, stands the first among similar compositions in our language, perhaps in any other. Besides possessing the author's characteristic elegance and brilliancy of expression in a supreme degree, it exhibits a greater share of the inventive faculty than any other of his works. The humour of a piece of this kind consists in the mock dignity by which a trifling subject is elevated into importance. When such a design is executed with judgment, all the parts should correspond; the moral, therefore, should be ironical, and the praise satirical. For attaining consistency in these points, the spirit of the age and the character of the poet were well suited.

"I must here let you into a secret, which, while it may justly excite your indignation, may preserve you from deception. That extravagant devotion to your sex which, perhaps, was a serious passion in the age of chivalry, came in process of time, and especially as modified by the licentiousness and levity of the French nation, to be a mere affair of compliment. The free admixture of women, which gave so much splendour and amenity to the French court, soon vitiated their manners; and even while they enjoyed the greatest influence, they ceased to be respectable. Wholly occupied with the care of rendering themselves desirable to the men, they neglected the culture of their minds and the duties of their sex. They who possessed beauty, relied upon that solely for their power of attraction; while those less favoured by nature sought a compensation in the graces. Although thus really debased, they did not exert a less absolute dominion over courtiers and men of pleasure as frivolous and vitiated as themselves; but in the mean time they lost the attachment of the sober and rational, and became objects of contempt to men of wit. In this state of things, the high-flown language of adoration was intermixed with sly strokes of satire; and at length, so much irony was joined with the praise, that a woman of sense would have regarded it as an insult.

"Pope had been educated in the French school of literature. His earliest ambition was to be reckoned a man of wit and gallantry in the modish sense; and having naturally a cold and artificial character, he was well fitted to assume the part most conducive to the interests of his reputation. The personal disadvantages, too, under which he laboured, and which precluded his success as a real lover, accustomed him to fiction in his addresses to the sex, and probably infused a secret exasperation into his feelings when they were concerned.

Digitized by Google

"These observations are meant to be introductory, not only to the burlesque poem before us, but to other pieces, in which the female sex is mentioned in a more serious manner."

Every mother will feel her obligations to Dr. Aikin for the care with which he has excluded every thing absolutely unfit for the eye of her daughters, and the skill he has here employed in extracting an excellent moral from a piece of a dubious kind, which its celebrity did not allow him to omit. Every woman ought to express her thanks for the merited stigma which he has affixed on the contemptuous insulters of her sex.

With his observations on the first volume of Cowper's poems, which may serve to shew our author's power feelingly to appreciate, and accurately to discriminate the peculiar beauties and characteristic features of a real poet, we conclude our extracts and our article.

"The great popularity which the name of Cowper has obtained is a sufficient testimony to the merit of his productions, which were so far from appearing with any peculiar advantages, that his first publication had nearly sunk under the dislike attached to a narrow and gloomy system of religion. The lamented author passed his life in an obscure retreat from the world, doubly darkened by the shades of a morbid melancholy; and nothing could have forced him upon the public view but a blaze of genius not to be repressed by unfortunate circumstances. His works are now become an inseparable part of the mass of approved English poetry, and they could not fail to engage your notice without any care of mine to point them out. I cannot hesitate, therefore, to include among the subjects of my observations, an author who sooner or later must come into your hands, and has so good a claim to the reputation he has acquired.

"The pieces principally composing the first volume of Cowper's poems are arranged under the heads of Error, Truth, Expostulation, Hope, Charity, Conversation, and Retirement. These topics are treated in a familiar and desultory manner, with a continual reference to those religious principles which are commonly termed methodistical; and a vein of severe rebuke runs through them, which the author himself afterwards admitted to be too acrimonious. Yet in the midst of his doctrinal austerity, a truly benevolent heart is perpetually displaying itself, joined with a noble spirit of freedom and independence. Keen and sagacious reflections upon life and manners, and frequent sallies of genuine humour, are interspersed, which must be relished by readers who are no friends to his system of divinity: yet even the latter in many instances stands apart from peculiar doctrines, and presents only sentiments of pure and exalted piety.

"The verse is heroic couplet, generally of a loose and careless structure, and the diction is for the most part simple and prosaic. There are, however, strains of poetry wrought with care, and glowing with the fervour of genius. An air of originality pervades the whole; and though well acquainted with classical literature, no writer is less of a borrower. All the pieces under the enumerated heads will amply repay the perusal: but you will perhaps find most to please you in those of Charity, Conversation, and Retirement. In the first of these are some admirably energetic lines against the slave trade, which was an object of his rooted abhorrence. The 'Altar of Liberty' is a fine fancy-piece; and the idea of venerating the Power by what may be called the anti-sacrifice of letting fly 'A captive bird into the boundless sky,' is a most happy conception.

"'Conversation' abounds with excellent sense and humour. You will be diverted with the picture of the formal visiting party, where,

'The circle formed, we sit in silent state,
Like figures drawn upon a dial-plate;'

and from which,

'The visit paid, with ecstasy we come,
As from a seven years' transportation, home.'

"Of the serious parts, you will, doubtless, distinguish the Disciples at Emmaus, as a story told with the grace of true simplicity.

"The exquisite representations of the Melancholy Man, in 'Retirement,' were too faithful copies of what the writer saw and felt in himself. How poetical, and how touching, are the following lines!

'Then, neither heathy wilds, nor scenes as fair
As ever recompensed the peasant's care,
Nor soft declivities with tufted hills,
Nor view of waters turning busy mills;
Parks in which art preceptress nature weds,
Nor gardens interspers'd with flow'ry beds,
Nor gales that catch the scent of blooming groves,
And waft it to the mourner as he roves,
Can call up life into his faded eye,
That passes all he sees unheeded by:
No wound like those a wounded spirit feels,
No cure for such, till God who makes them, heals."

Digitized by Google

CHAPTER XIV.

MISCELLANIES.

THE most important article in this department of our work, is the series of British Essayists from the Tatler to the Mirror, edited by Mr. Chalmers. The periodical essays, which under various names, and with various degrees of merit, have issued from the British press during the last century, form too striking a feature in our national literature to be ever forgotten or neglected; and the public, we doubt not, will be sensible of its obligations to Mr. C. for his convenient and correct edition of these esteemed writings, which though it cannot be considered as perfect, is unquestionably the best that has hitherto been published. The Prize Essays of the College of Calcutta will excite an interest, exclusive of their intrinsic merit, as the first fruits of an institution most truly honourable to its noble founder, and more indicative of a great mind than the most splendid conquests. The only remaining works that require to be noticed are those under the name of Selections, Beauties, or Anas; the compilers of which contrive to gain a dishonourable livelihood, by basely stealing the most attractive passages from our standard authors, in order to pamper the idleness and imbecility of those to whom the labour of thinking for themselves is an intolerable burthen.

ART. I. *An Accurate Historical Account of all the Orders of Knighthood, at present existing in Europe. To which are prefixed a Critical Dissertation upon the Ancient and Present State of those Equestrian Institutions, and a Prefatory Discourse on the Origin of Knighthood in general; the whole interspersed with Illustrations and Explanatory Notes. By an Officer of the Chancery of the Equestrian, Secular, and Chapteral Order of Saint Joachim.* 8vo. 2 vols. pp. 555.

MR. BURKE was in an error when he stated the age of chivalry as gone! Upwards of twenty orders of knighthood have been created within the last century; two of them owe their origin to the gallant achievements of the British arms within the last four years. The Sicilian Order of St. Ferdinand and of Merit was instituted in the year 1800, in honour of Lord Nelson, who safely conducted the royal family of Naples from a merciless enemy to the shores of Sicily. The other to which we allude was also created in honour of the same hero: this is the Imperial Order of the Turkish Crescent, instituted in the year 1799 by Sultan Selim III. It is a remark which could not escape the compiler of these volumes, that this event forms a memorable æra in the annals of the eighteenth century; for it is singular enough that the Ottomans, against whom the first order of knighthood, that of Malta, was professedly established, should have instituted a military one to recompense the bravery of a christian and a hero, and expressly to commemorate a victory gained on their own coasts, and upon which depended their existence as a nation.

If the age of chivalry had really expired, such a work as the present would have been interesting to the historian, as concentrating in a small compass many authentic documents respecting the origin and constitution of those establishments, which have produced so sensible an effect on the state of society in Europe; if on the contrary the age of chivalry is actually reviving, a double interest must be excited: institutions of this sort, indeed, are not likely to

Digitized by Google

moulder away so long as the profession of arms is honourable, and military enterprize held high in admiration.

Orders of chivalry existed in very remote antiquity, and to trace the origin of them would be an enquiry rather curious than useful. Romulus established an order of Equites consisting of three hundred noble youths; the members of this order had a horse and ring presented to them at the public expence, on condition that they appeared on horseback whenever the state required their services; and Dionysius in describing the *transvectio*, which was a solemn procession, instituted in honour of Castor and Pollux, says that every man bore the ornaments which had been presented to him by the general as a reward of his valour. Plutarch also tells us, that when the Equites had served out their legal time, it was customary for their horse to be led to the seat of the two censors in the forum, where each gave an account of his services, and after an examination into his merits, was discharged accordingly with glory or disgrace. The investiture of the sword and shield among the Germans, as mentioned by Tacitus, was obviously an order of merit, at once the reward of valorous atchievements, and an incentive to the performance of them.

The spirit of chivalry which took its rise in times of turbulence and barbarism will not be suffered to languish even in periods of peace and civilization: among barbarous nations, arms, as it is the most useful, so it is the only honourable profession: it is well known that during several centuries, in those ages when science was uncultivated, and the arts of peace were considered as ignoble, every high-born gentleman in Europe was a soldier; his body was trained to feats of hardihood and prowess, and his whole mind was given to the acquirement of military skill. His sports were military: tournaments and jousts were at once an exercise and an amusement to him. In the feudal ages the weak were exposed to the insolence and rapacity of the strong; all was anarchy and violence, till the sallies of an oppressor upon the innocent and defenceless were repulsed by some more generous and more powerful individual. For the purpose of protecting the oppressed, and of securing their own possessions from rapine and plunder, individuals of rank associated, and strengthened their association by a religious ceremony; admission into these associations was deemed the highest honour, the qualifications required of the candidate were not of vulgar attainment, and the ceremonies of his admission were solemn and impressive.

That these chivalrous institutions should be preserved in periods of peace and civilization will not surprise us, if we consider that the virtues of knighthood have led to that civilization which we now enjoy, and must ever be essential to its existence. Humanity, generosity, courtesy, and fidelity, were no less knightly virtues than valour and prowess: to the genius of chivalry we are indebted for the high sense of honour which peculiarly distinguishes military men, and for that humanity with which the operations of war itself are carried on, and which strips it of half its horrors. Orders of knighthood however were not always instituted for military purposes, the support of the christian religion being generally a partial object at least: the most noble Order of the Garter had its origin in the gallantry of Edward the third, a virtue for the refinements of which we are also indebted to chivalry, and the order of St. Lazarus of Jerusalem was instituted upon a principle of benevolence. The particular duty of the last fraternity "was to superintend and heal those who were labouring under the ravages of the leprosy; and to that end a celebrated hospital at Jerusalem, of which St. Lazarus was the patron, was especially consigned to the patron, as a receptacle for lepers." That other than military objects were in view, and the extermination of the enemies of christianity by the sword is indisputable, since the order of knighthood is yet conferred on females, and there are in existence at this day four orders solely instituted for the ladies.

These were doubtless deviations from the original institution, in whatever age or in whatever country that institution sprung. In the feudal times men of opulence, in addition to the superiority of their armour and their weapons over the common people, had also the advantage of fighting on horseback. This was so striking a distinction that an *equestrian* order would obviously arise from it. Mr. Gibbon says, that between the age of Charlemagne and that of the Crusades, a revolution had taken place among the Spaniards, the Normans, and the French, which was gradually ex-

Digitized by Google

tended to the rest of Europe. The service of the infantry was degraded to the plebeians, the cavalry formed the strength of the armies, and the honourable name of *miles* or soldier was confined to the gentlemen who served on horseback and were invested with the character of knighthood.

In perusing the very brief—too brief dissertation which is prefixed to these volumes upon the existing state of knighthood in Europe, we find that chivalry is considered as the offspring of the Crusades. It is true, indeed, that after the final reduction of the Holy Land the spirit of chivalry burned with the highest ardour among adventurers at home, but it was because they could not indulge their enterprising genius abroad. The spirit of chivalry sprung from the manners of the age, and notwithstanding the temporal honours and the advantages which the crusader enjoyed in this world, and the hopes of happiness which were held out to them as a remuneration of their pious toils in the next, so many thousand—so many million persons would not have assumed the cross had they not been already animated with that enthusiastic spirit of chivalry which in later times became more refined and more manageable. Perhaps the institutions of chivalry, though certainly not the spirit of it, originated in the customs of duelling, and judicial combat, which prevailed over Europe for so long a time. During the private wars which afflicted Europe for so many centuries, a considerable degree of personal emulation as well as resentment would arise in the bosom of those leaders, who had perhaps frequently struggled with each other in the field of battle. And as assassination died away from the cowardly spirit which it indicated, the challenge to single combat succeeded, where the skill and prowess of the contending parties had ample room to display themselves. The hero of these ages disdained to take his enemy by surprise: he fought for victory, but he also fought for glory, and this could not be attained unless his adversary commenced the combat upon equal terms. Each party vindicated his honour, and professed to be the champion of truth, virtue, and religion. These single combats were rather encouraged than restrained by the civil power, and indeed the more from those defects in judicial proceedings, those uncertainties of proof arising from the want of written documents, which prevail among a rude unlettered people. As these combats were appeals to heaven they were regulated with all the formalities of a solemn judicial process, and would naturally keep alive that jealousy of honour which became a fundamental principle of knighthood, and which every member of the order swore to maintain with his sword, when at his investment he received a slight touch on the cheek or shoulder, as the last blow he could suffer to be inflicted on him with impunity. It is needless to remark that the custom of duelling and the trial by judicial combat prevailed a considerable time in Europe, though not in England, before the Crusades.

Selden does not allow of judicial combat *in England* before the Norman conquest: the old Saxon laws of Alfred, Edward, Athelstane, Edmund, Edgar, are silent on the subject; nor says he, as I remember, have the monkish stories of that age any authority for the proof of it. But in the laws of William the first it is decreed, that if a Frenchman appeal an Englishman of perjury, murther, theft, manslaughter, or robbery, Anglus se defendat per quod melius voluerit, aut judicio ferri aut duello. (Selden. Duello, chap. vi.) He considers the custom as having been derived from the Lombards, and quotes an old Italian historian (Carol. Sigon. de regno Italiæ, lib. ii.) to prove the prevalence of the custom: Longobardorum *antiqua est consuetudo*, ut crimina vel maxima singulari prælio purgarentur, quæ postea per leges translata per multa tempora observata est.

Now if there was any thing chivalrous in these decisions as well as superstitious, although orders of knighthood might not be instituted till the period of the wars for the recovery of the Holy Land, yet, it is evident, that the spirit which gave birth to these institutions, the high spirit of chivalry prevailed long before, and arose out of the turbulent and ferocious manners of more early times.

The oldest order of knighthood is that of St. John of Jerusalem, instituted in the year 1048; but we read of the creation of individual knights in much earlier periods of history. The dignity of Knights of the Spur, or Bachelors, is often mentioned in the Saxon times: in a charter of Kenulph, king of Merceland, of the year 806, to the Abbey of Crowland, he confirms to the Abbey, Eleemosynam quam Algarus *miles* etiam

Digitized by Google

dudum meus dedit illis in Baston et in Repingale. The same knight is mentioned in a confirmation of Witlaf to the same monastery: item donum Algari *militis*, silicet, Northland in Baston. Item donum ejusdem Algari *militis* in Repingale; and there is added in this of Witlaf, item donum Oswini *militis* in Draytona. [Vide Selden. Titles of Honor, Part II. Sect. XXXIII.]

The ceremonies and circumstances, says Selden (ut sup. Sect. XXXIV.) at the giving this dignity in the elder times were of two kinds especially, which we may call *courtly* and *sacred*. The courtly were the feasts held at the creation, giving of robes, arms, spurs, and the like; whence as in the stories of other nations, so in those of ours, *armis militaribus donare*, or *cingulo militari*, and such more phrases are the same as *militem facere*. The sacred are the holy devotions, and what else was used in the church at or before the receiving of the dignity, whence also *consecrare militem*, was to make a knight. Those of the first kind are various in the memories that preserve them, and yet they are rarely or never without the girding with a sword, *until in later ages*, wherein only the stroke on the neck or shoulder, according to the use at this day, hath most commonly supplied it. The ancientest mention of any courtly ceremonies used at the creation of a knight with us is in that of King Alfred, his knighting his grandchild Athelstan, that was afterwards king. Nam et avus (saith William of Malmesbury, de gest. reg. lib. 2. cap. 6.) prosperum ei regnum olim imprecatus fuerat, videns et gratiose complexus speciei spectatæ puerum et gestium elegantiam; quem etiam et præmature militem fecerat, donatum chlamyde coccinea, gemmato baltheo, ense Saxonico cum vagina aurea.

These instances, to which others might be added, are sufficient to shew that the chivalrous ceremony of knighthood long preceded the times of the Crusades, although incorporated fraternities of knights were not known till about that period.

As a specimen of the manner in which the work which has called forth these observations is executed, we shall extract the account which is given of the Knights of the Holy Cross, or the Teutonic Order.

"The commencement of its establishment, is to be ascribed to a devout German, who, with the permission of the then existing patriarchs, built and endowed an hospital for the sick pilgrims, who were his countrymen; and likewise a chapel to the honour of the mother of our Saviour. In a short time many pious Germans were disposed to maintain so excellent an institution; the men of Bremen and Lubeck, in particular, distinguished themselves to a most eminent degree, and exhibited the utmost zeal for the good of this foundation. They not only courageously protected the pilgrims, during the siege of Acre, (the Ptolomaeus of the ancients,) but many of them became hospitalers, and took care of the wounded and sick.

"Many persons of high rank likewise attended on the hospital; and Pope Caelestin the III. formerly instituted this society into a order, under the title of the Brothers of the German House, and of the Hospital of our blessed Lady of Jerusalem.

"His Holiness permitted them to elect a chief from amongst their own members; and thereupon, they unanimously nominated Henry de Wallpott, a person descended from a very ancient and noble family, and who in the year 1191, had become a professed monk of the Order of St. Augustin.

"The ensign of the order, is a black cross with a border of silver; and it is worn upon a white mantle, on the left side. The knights also bear this cross with their arms, upon a white field, in the same manner as was granted to Henry de Wallpott, in 1198, by the Pope abovementioned. They have likewise the same cross upon the left breast of their daily outward apparel; and round the neck, they usually wear a gold black enamelled cross, surmounted with a knightly helmet of massy gold, covered with a coating of dark blue enamel. This cross is somewhat of an oblong form; and it is worn suspended from a rich watered black ribbon of the breadth of three fingers. But this cross has been frequently altered and augmented; and John de Brienne, king of Jerusalem, in 1206, adorned the same with a cross of gold.

"Herman de Salza, the fourth grand master of this order, having by his consummate prudence and superior abilities, found means to terminate the unhappy dissentions existing between Pope Honorius the III. and the Emperor Frederick the II. that prince being desirous of conferring upon the grand master a signal mark of his gratitude, he to that end, not only granted the dignity of Prince of the Empire, to him and his successors; but likewise gave him his especial permission, to charge the arms of the order with the Imperial Eagle. His holiness, as a proof of his esteem, presented him with a ring of great value; enjoining him to wear the same constantly. Since that epoch it has ever been customary, so soon as a new grand master is elected, to invest him with this ring, in memory of a transaction equally meritorious and remarkable.

Digitized by Google

"Finally; in 1250, during the administration of Conrad, Landgrave of Thuringia, the fifth grand master, Louis the IX. King of France, embellished the four points of the cross, with four fleurs-de-lis of gold, as a remembrance of the sense he entertained of the services rendered to him by the order.

"The knights acquired so much reputation, and such great esteem, by their valour, as induced Conrad, Duke of Massovia and Cujavia, to send an ambassador in 1229, to their grand master, Herman de Salza, demanding his friendship, and requesting that general, in case of need, to assist him with his forces against the Prussians.

"Wishing to attract the order into his states, the duke granted to the knights, the countries of Culm and Loban; and whatever they might conquer from the Prussians; to the end that the latter might be deprived of all their possessions, in his dominions.

"This donation he sent to the grand master; and it was afterwards confirmed by Pope Gregory the IX.

"During the regency of Herman de Salza, the order of the knights of Porte-Glaives, existing in Livonia, under their General Volquin Schenk, was, by the command of the Pope abovementioned, united with this order.

"This union was effectuated at Rome in the year 1233, according to some opinions; or in 1234, according to others. The knights were then become so powerful, that they were nearly masters of all Livonia and Prussia; insomuch that they erected nine bishoprics, viz. four in Prussia, and five in Livonia. They likewise founded Elbing, Marienburg, Thorn, Dantzig, and Königsberg in Prussia, and several other cities of less importance, in the same country.

"In 1295 they completely subdued all Prussia, and reduced it entirely under their domination; although it had five times revolted against them.

"The order made no small progress likewise in Livonia, where it became master of Courland and Semigallia; and in 1288, it brought the whole province under its absolute dominion.

"This illustrious order being so powerful, the principal cares of the knights were turned towards the maintaining themselves in the possession of their conquests; and to repel the attacks of their hostile and formidable neighbours.

"Their territories were frequently invaded by them, and on that account they were compelled to wage heavy wars against the natives of Lithuania and Russia. Although they gained considerable advantages over these people; nevertheless, such successes were more than counterbalanced by the loss of their principal establishment, at Acre in Syria. This disaster happened during the administration of Conrad de Feuchtwangen, the XI. grand master. In 1291, Melech Seraph, Sultan of Egypt, made himself master of that city, and the remainder of the knights were obliged to quit that country.

"Expelled from Syria, they formed a momentary establishment at Venice. Soon after they chose Marburg in the country of Hesse, as the chief residence of their order; and even now a magnificent palace belonging thereto, still subsists in that city. Powerful considerations however, in 1306, induced Godfrey de Hohenlohe, the grand master, to transfer the seat of the order to Marienburg in Prussia; and since then no provincial grand master has existed in that country.

"The order not only suffered on account of the burthensome wars in which it was engaged; it was convulsed and torn by intestine divisions, during a long series of years. Under the administration of the grand master Conrad de Jungingen, Uladislaus Jagellon, the then reigning king of Poland, endeavoured to profit by these internal feuds. With the assistance of Withold, Duke of Lithuania, he attacked Prussia; but the general of Livonia coming opportunely to the aid of the grand master, in the year 1403, peace was concluded between Poland and the order. This peace was of no long duration; it was broke by Ulrich de Jungingen. Such an infraction of treaties made it necessary for Uladislaus Jagellon to combine his whole forces with those of his father Withold. By these means, the king assembled an army of 150,000 men, with which he attacked the army of the grand master, amounting only to 83,000. The battle began near the village of Tonnenberg, on the 15th of July 1410, O. S. and the slaughter was prodigious on both sides. The most authentic accounts of those times, maintain that the Poles lost 60,000 men, and the knights 40,000 men, in this memorable and well fought engagement.

"The government of the order becoming extremely oppressive, several countries and cities formed an alliance against the knights. It was concluded at Marienwender; and in 1458 the greatest part of Prussia had detached itself from the order, and put itself under the protection of the king of Poland.

"This transaction gave rise to a war equally violent and bloody. In 1566 peace was concluded by the interposition of the Pope; and at Thorn the following treaty was made and ratified by the Polish monarch, Casimir the IV. and the grand master of the order: viz. that Pomerelia and the territories of Culm and Michelan, and likewise the cities of Ermland, Marienburg, and Elbing, should be ceded to the crown of Poland: and, that the remainder of Prussia should appertain to the order; the grand master receiving the investiture thereof; it being considered as a fief belonging to the kingdom of Poland, and held by military tenure.

"At length, in the XV century, the knights were totally dispossessed of Prussia: Albert de Brandenburg, then grand master, having embraced the Lutheran religion,

Sigismund, king of Poland, his cousin, solemnly invested him with the sovereignty of that country. This event took place at Cracow, on the 5th of April 1525; and thus Prussia became a possession of the house of Brandenburg. From that period it has been denominated Ducal Prussia: and Frederic the III. margrave of Brandenburg, and elector of the Holy Roman Empire, in 1701 procured the same to be erected into a kingdom, the Emperor Leopold the first, having granted an Imperial concession to that effect.

"In the mean time, Walter de Kronberg, the new elected grand master, retired to Mergentheim in Franconia, and stiled himself administrator of the grand mastership in Prussia, and master of the Teutonic Equestrian order, in the countries of Germany, Italy, and their dependencies. As such he was recognised as a sovereign prince of the empire; was likewise received as a member of the circle of Franconia; and the order has enjoyed these dignities to this day.

"In 1790 the possessions of this order were divided into 11 bailiwicks: viz. 1 Alsace; 2 Austria; 3 Tyrol; 4 Coblentz; 5 Franconia; 6 Biesen; 7 Westphalia; and 8 Lorraine; which are of the roman catholic communion: and 9 Hesse; 10 Thuringia; and 11 Saxony; which three last are of the Lutheran faith. But such protestants as are admitted, must in all other respects conform to the statutes of the order; and attend the chapter at Mergentheim, whensoever it is held.

"The Emperor Joseph II. diminished very considerably the possessions of the order, situated in his states: and the late treaty of Luneville must have deprived it of two principal bailiwicks; those of Alsace and Lorraine.

"The present grand master, is his Royal Highness the Archduke Charles Louis, second brother of the reigning emperor of Germany, born September the 5th, 1771. He succeeded to that dignity upon the death of his uncle the late elector of Cologne."

It appears from the extract which we have just made, that the compiler of these volumes gives an account of the insignia of the different orders of knighthood now existing in Europe, and the origin of them; the ceremonies of investiture are generally added, their constitution, and present state of decadence or splendour, &c. &c. &c. The number of orders now existing is *sixty-six*: three of them are chapteral, which elect their own grand masters; one papal; eight imperial; thirty-two royal; five electoral and archiepiscopal; thirteen ducal or princely; and four destined particularly for the fair sex. "It is worthy of notice," says the editor, that "England is the only country wherein there is no established military order, as in the Hereditary Imperial States, in Russia, in France, Spain, Portugal, Sweden, Naples, Savoy, Prussia, Florence, the Duchy of Wirtemburg, Hesse Cassel, and several other states of the Empire: nor any for artists, as at Rome, in France, and in Sweden, where sciences and the liberal arts have not been overlooked." This is an unaccountable mistake to have made, since the Order of the Bath was instituted by Richard the second, as a military order, and the author himself says, in another part of the work, that "it is almost equally distributed amongst, or conferred upon, the most deserving members of the diplomatic corps: general officers who have served with reputation, and naval commanders, whose valour and achievements, independent of court intrigue, ministerial favour, or parliamentary preponderance, have obtained for them this mark of sovereign beneficence." In the united empire, no one who is an officer in the army or navy, or who enjoys any post under the crown, or in virtue of the king's commission under the sign manual, can accept any foreign order, without a royal warrant or permission being first obtained, and duly registered in his majesty's College of Arms. At present this favour is never refused, but in former times a more jealous conduct was pursued: our editor has related an anecdote of Elizabeth from the account of M. de Wicquefort. "Henry the fourth of France having given the Order of St. Michael to Nicholas Clifford and Anthony Shirley, as a reward for the services they had done him during the war; these two gentlemen returning to England, the queen ordered them to be put in prison, and commanded them to send back the order, and to take proper steps that their names should be erased from the register." She said, "that as a chaste spouse should look only on her husband, so ought a subject to look up to that sovereign whom God has established to reign over him. I will not allow," said the queen, "that my sheep be marked with a stranger's mark, nor that they follow the whistle of a foreign shepherd!" See "L'Ambassadeur et ses fonctions par M. de Wicquefort, p. 99. Sec. ix. Liv. 2. de l'edition de Cologne 1689.

Digitized by Google

In an advertisement prefixed to this work, it is stated to be compiled from various authentic pieces of manuscript:

— "from the historical collections of Eichler, and M. Archenholtz, (late librarian to his Serene Highness Frederic II. Landgrave of Hesse-Cassel,) and particularly from original documents, deposited in the archives of several modern orders, which by commands of the sovereigns, have, by the secretaries of those orders, been especially communicated to the editor. To which are added copious explanatory notes, and illustrations drawn from Collins's Peerage; Clark's concise History of Knighthood; and many eminent authors who have wrote upon the subject.

"In the body of this compendium will be found the names of those British noblemen and gentlemen, who are, or have been invested with foreign orders, during the reign of his present majesty; and in most instances, the causes, for which they have received those distinctions, are impartially demonstrated. This work is calculated for the information of those who study modern history, or who travel on the Continent."

These volumes are dedicated to Lord Nelson, who is the patron of the work, and whose name, wherever it occurs, is mentioned in terms of the most odious, contemptible, and disgusting adulation. We understand that the author of this work, which is printed at Hamburg, is a German, M. Ruhl: to an anonymous editor we are indebted for the notes, many of which are very curious and amusing. In a note to the account of the order of the Bath, the editor says, that "this name was conferred upon it, and the knights were obliged to bathe themselves before they could receive the golden spurs." The editor cannot mean to imply, surely, that the ceremony of bathing was introduced by Henry the Fourth, when he created the forty-six knights on his coronation. The ceremony is much more ancient, but, perhaps, had been interrupted, and the Knights of the Bath might have been so denominated from the revival of it on this occasion. They certainly did bathe themselves on this occasion. Selden, whom we must refer to again, as we have not Froissart before us, thus gives the historian's words: "Celle nuict," says he, speaking of the Saturday before his coronation, "y veillerent tous les escuyers, qui devoient estre faitz chevaliers le lendemain, que fuerent le nombre de XLVI. et eurent tous ses escuyers, chacun sa chambre, *et chacun sa baign, ou ils se baignerent celle nuict*; et lend main le duc de Lancastre, les fit chevaliers a sa messe, et leur donne longues cottes verdes a estreits manches, fourres de menuver en guise de prelats, et avoint les dits chevaliers sur la senestre espaule, un double cordeau de soye blanche a blanches houpells pendans." The ancient Franks are supposed to have practised bathing before they conferred knighthood. "The custom of bathing, vigils, and such like," says Selden, "were in some use in the elder times in France, at the giving this order of knighthood" (Knights Bachelors). And in an old book of chess-play, written by a Frenchman, and translated by P. Caxton into English, it is said "when the knights been made, they been bayned or bathed. That is the sign they should lead a new life and new manners. Also they wake all the night in prayers and orisons unto God, that he would give them grace that they may get that thing that they may not get by nature. The king or prince girdeth about them a sword in sign that they should abide and keepen him of whom they have taken their despences and dignity."

But the custom of bathing on receiving knighthood, prevailed in England long before the Order of the Bath was instituted. Henry the First, purposing the marriage of his daughter Maud, the empress, to Geoffry of Anjou, to knight him at Roan, in the year 1127, on Whitsunday following desires the earl his father, ut filium suum nudum militem ad ipsam Pentecostem, rotomagum honorifice mitteret, ut ibidem cum coequævis suis arma suscepturus regalibus gaudiis interesset. This young gentleman, with five more of like quality, attended by twenty-five squires, were *bathed* (according, saith du Favin, *to the custom of France*; but I cannot doubt, is the remark which Selden makes, but that Henry the First used the customs that were agreeable to his own country also, though he gave the order in his duchy of Normandy) and then coming in robes proper for the ceremony, received the dignity by having horse and arms given them. Illuscente die altera, *balneorum usus, uti tyrocinii suscipiendi consuetudo expostulat* (saith John the monk of Maire-monstier, as du Favin cites him) paratus est. Comperto rege a cubiculariis quod Andegavensis, et qui cum eo venerant, *ascendissent de lavacro* jussit eos ad se vocari. *Post corporis ablutionem, ascendens de balneorum lavacro* comitis Andegavorum generosa proles

Digitized by Google

Goffredus, bysso retorta ad carnem induitur, &c. &c. Vide Seld. Tit. of Hon. Part II. chap. iii. sect. 24. and chap. v. sects. 33 and 45.

Mr. Gibbon, describing the rise of chivalry, which he considers as having taken place between the age of Charlemagne and that of the crusades, remarks that superstition mingled at this period in every public and private action of life; "in the holy wars," says he, "it sanctified the profession of arms, and the order of chivalry was assimilated in its rights and privileges to the sacred orders of priesthood. The *bath* and white garment of the novice, were an indecent copy of the regeneration of baptism: his sword, which he offered on the altar, was blessed by the minister of religion; his solemn reception was preceded by fasts and vigils; and he was created a knight in the name of God, of St. George and of St. Michael the archangel." Chap. lviii.

We have dwelt so long on these volumes, that we must now take our leave of them, regretting that a more detailed account of the installation of the Knights of the Bath, of its rules and orders, &c. should not have been given, whilst many continental orders are enlarged on which are in comparison perfectly insignificant.

ART. II. *The principal historical and allusive Arms borne by Families of the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Ireland, with their Authorities, collected by an Antiquary; with a Representation of the Arms on Copper Plates.* 4to. pp. 552.

THE jewel of this book is the dedication.

"*To the Ladies of the United Kingdom.*

"In contemplating the diversified ornaments of the creation, there are none which impress the mind with so much delight as the beautiful forms of our fair countrywomen. The most perfect symmetry, grace, and elegance, are comprised in their construction—the delicately blended tints of their complexions, the animated and interesting expression of their features, the general combined effect of their persons, arrest our admiration and regard.

"But when to these personal attractions are added soft and ingratiating manners, that flexibility of disposition, which at once soothes and corrects the rugged and boisterous nature of man, that attendant sympathy which mitigates his sorrows, or heightens his enjoyments; and, above all, that seemingly innate tendency to piety, compassion and benevolence, so conspicuous in the far greater proportion of them; can they be considered otherwise than as the greatest boon of Providence?

"It is natural therefore, that men should be candidates for the estimation and approval of those whom they so much venerate; and certain it is, that the applause and partiality shewn by the more amiable sex to the adventurous and intrepid, has been, if not a leading inducement, yet a concurrent one, to daring and heroic actions; and, as the following sheets chiefly consist of a detail of such actions, to whom can they be so aptly inscribed, as to those who have a powerful secret influence in producing them,

By their devoted humble servant,

THE EDITOR."

We consider this as perfectly original, believing that no antiquary, however much he may have been the devoted humble servant of the ladies, ever addressed them so tenderly before, or presented so appropriate an offering to them as a quarto volume of heraldry.

The design of the author is to collect the histories of all allusive arms. This he has executed with sufficient diligence, and sometimes with more than sufficient credulity, as when, upon the authority of family tradition, he believes that a Saxon landholder defeated a thousand Norman soldiers by mounting his men on bulls. The following verses, which are the tenure of the lands of Rawdon, he believes to have been written in William the Conqueror's reign.

"I William, King, the thurd yese of my roigne,
Give to thee, Paulyn, Raydon, Hope, and Hopetowne,
Wyth all the bounds both up and downe,
From Heaven to yerthe, from yerthe to hel,
For the and thyn, ther to dwel,
As truly as this kyng-ryke is myn;
For a cross bowe and an arrow,
When I sal come to hunt on Yarrow;
And in token that this thing is sooth,
I bit the whyt wax with my tooth."

This savours as little of the "antiquary" as his dedication.

The engravings in this volume are the very worst that ever were published. The elephants trunks are shaped like trumpets. The lions look like lawyers; the eagles like owls, and the owls like antiquaries. The common birds are not like any in heaven above; the common

Digitized by Google

beasts not like any in earth below, and the common fish not like any in the waters under the earth. The griffins and spread eagles are like devils, and the hippopotamus resembles a Frenchman taking snuff.

ART. III. *The Decameron, or ten Days' Entertainment of Boccaccio, translated from the Italian. Second edition, corrected and improved. To which are prefixed, Remarks on the Life and Writings of Boccaccio, and an Advertisement. By the Author of Old Nick, &c.* 8vo. 2 vols.

LITTLE need be said upon an old translation of a well-known work. The editor has corrected a few inaccuracies, and has chastised the manners, if not the morals of Boccaccio. The life of the author is very ably drawn up, and the remarks which he has prefixed, have been selected with sufficient care. It would have added considerable value to these volumes, if each tale had been prefaced with a reference to the original story, where it was known, and to those which have grown out of it, where it had been imitated. This would have given it an historical utility.

Why is not the *Teseide* of Boccaccio reprinted? A sufficient sale would surely be found in England, for we have a national interest in the story, which has been made our own by Chaucer and Dryden, and by that play wherein Fletcher is said to have been assisted by Shakespeare.

ART. IV. *Women: their Condition and Influence in Society. By* JOS. ALEX. SEGUR. *Translated from the French.* 12mo. 3 vols. pp. 1012.

THE design of this amusing work, the author tells us in his preface, is

"To demonstrate the equality of the two sexes, different as they may be; and to prove that every thing is compensated between them;—that if the one seems to be endowed with peculiar qualities, not possessed by the other, we cannot deny the other advantages equally to be valued;—that where corporeal strength is wanting, strength of soul supplies the deficiency;—that our domination over the female sex is but a continued usurpation;—that they have dexterously availed themselves of every opportunity of re-establishing, at least for a time, the balance between us;—that in these moments of transient equality, they have evinced an ability for every thing, equal to ours; and that, with the exception of inventive genius, their intellectual faculties are not inferior to our own."

With this view M. Segur has ransacked the historic annals of almost every age and country, and collected a large and curious body of facts, exhibiting the situation of women in different stages of society, their employments, their rank, &c. &c. We feel, however, that all the use is not made of these facts to which they might have been applied, and after having perused the pages before us, when we turned to those of professor Millar, where he treats on the same subject,* we were sensibly impressed with the superiority of our countryman, who traces in a more brief and philosophic manner, the general effect which different degrees of civilization in society produce on the condition of females, and the reaction, as it were, of female influence upon the state of society.

Throughout the animal creation nature has made a distinction, obvious and unquestionable, between the physical powers of the male and the female. The human race forms no exception: man excels woman in strength, activity, patience of fatigue, and courage—if that can be called courage which arises from a consciousness of greater muscularity and superior force. What then has she given to woman? BEAUTY.

— Κάλλος,
Ἀντ' ἀσπίδων ἀπασέων
Ἀντ' ἐγχέων ἁπάντων·
Νικᾷ δε, καί σίδηρον,
Καί πῦρ, καλη τις ἐσσα.

This beauty, however, which the elegant and refined voluptuary of Teos celebrated as so triumphant and resistless in the person of woman, may be ascribed without flattery to her mind; and although the soul, indeed, is destitute of sex, the distinction is scarcely less obvious and unquestionable between the mental, than the corporeal qualities of man and woman.

Much has been said of late years by Mrs. Wolstonecraft, and her disciples, concerning the state of humiliation and bondage in which the female sex has been confined by us *lords of the creation*,

* "Observations concerning the Distinction of Ranks in Society." Chap. i.

Digitized by Google

who, in all ages, and all countries, are accused of having kept them in subjection, by keeping them in ignorance. However we may ridicule certain absurdities in the schemes and suggestions of these visionary reformers, some of their hints are worthy of attention, and have been attended to. Whether the female mind is capable of those eagle flights into the regions of philosophy and science, which a Bacon and a Newton took, is a question scarcely worth the trouble of debating; a thousand instances have already been adduced by various writers, to disprove the mental inferiority of females, and it is universally acknowledged, that their minds are capable of infinitely higher cultivation than it has usually been their lot to receive.

The affections of the female are far stronger and more lively than those of our sex; the thousand instances of their heroic conduct during the French revolution, have settled this fact for ever. No personal fatigue could overcome them, no personal danger could for one instant deter them from seeking in the foulest dungeons, the father or the child, the husband, or the lover. Months after months have they been known to secrete from revolutionary vengeance, some object of their affection, when the discovery of the concealment would have been inevitable and immediate death. Were a friend arrested, their ingenuity never relaxed a moment in contrivances for his escape: were he naked, they clothed him; were he hungry, they fed him; were he sick, they visited him; and, when all efforts were unavailing for his deliverance, often did they infuse into his sinking soul, their own courage to meet death with fortitude, and even with cheerfulness. In infancy they nourish us, in old age they cherish and console us; and on the bed of sickness, the exquisite delicacy of their attentions, the watchings they will undergo without a murmur, the fretting querulousness they will bear with complacency, the offensive, the nauseous offices which they are at all times ready to perform, demand from us more than every return of attachment, kindness, and gratitude, which it is in our power to confer.

These qualities are not the offspring of civilization; they are characteristic of the sex, and proudly distinguish it in every quarter of the globe. This is that excelling beauty which nature gives to woman, in ample recompense for inferior deprivations; this is that beauty which indeed turns the edge of the sword, and makes the spear fall pointless. Every traveller through inhospitable wilds and pathless deserts, confirms the grateful testimony of Ledyard to the compassion, and sympathy, and tenderness of woman, and authorises us to estimate the degree of civilization in any country, by the degree of respect and kindness which the female sex receives.

M. Segur begins his work by considering the state of women in the age of the patriarchs, and illustrates the customs of these ancient shepherds, by the marriages of Jacob with the daughters of Laban. He then proceeds to their situation among the Ægyptians and Chinese, the most early civilized people in the world: among the former, notwithstanding the climate, females were extricated from their bondage sooner than in the neighbouring countries; the customs of the Chinese are as immutable as the laws of the Medes and the Persians, and they are scarcely less jealous of their females at the present day than they were in the remotest antiquity. "The Egyptians used great care in forming the minds of their daughters; the Chinese, on the contrary, have always left them in a state of ignorance, well adapted for that obscurity to which their excessive jealousy would confine them.—Idolaters of beauty, the Chinese are for ever at the feet of the beings whom they persecute." Authors, however, differ so much in their accounts, as to the situation of women in ancient Egypt, that it is not safe to draw any positive conclusions concerning them.

Greece was broken into small republics, and the state of the women varied according to the precepts of moralists and the decrees of legislators: in Athens, while matrons were confined to domestic offices, and were guarded from the eyes of men, moralists, legislators, and orators, alike bowed to the graces and accomplishments of an Aspasia. The severe laws of Lycurgus inured women to athletic exercises, and by exposing their beauties without the disguise of dress, he flattered himself that young men would resist the fascination to which they yielded, where concealment gave an edge to desire.

Women obtained considerable deference in Rome, during the early ages of the republic; a Roman matron gives us, to this day, an idea of every thing

Digitized by Google

that is chaste, dignified, and noble. Under the reign of the emperors they partook of the general corruption, and were involved in, if they did not absolutely contribute to, the dissoluteness of the age and the consequent fall of the empire. At length Christianity arose, and into whatever country its precepts have penetrated, women, by becoming more intrinsically respectable, have been more respected: the disorders of the passions have been corrected, and latent unsuspected virtues have been elicited.

M. de Segur is of opinion that the barbarians of the north, who overran the Roman empire, brought with them the first germ of that gallantry which so long remained in Europe.

"If, in the south, Asiatic manners rendered the women wretched; if these people, by turns slaves and tyrants, had for them a sensual love, but little esteem; if they passed all at once from worshipping to despise them, from an idolatrous regard, to the excess of an inhuman jealousy; in the north, on the contrary, the Scandinavians and the Celts regarded the women as their equals and their companions, and even sought to merit their approbation by efforts of courage and generous atchievements. These are the nations who contributed most to spread throughout Europe that spirit of equity, of moderation, and of politeness, which forms the distinctive character of our manners. We may, perhaps, assign one cause for this. Among the Scandinavians their fortunes were limited, and nearly equal; their manners were simple, and the passions only unfolded themselves late, and in unison with their reason. They were more restrained under a severe climate: and if we revert to the religion of the Celts, we shall find that one of its most revered tenets was, that the Deity interfered even in the smallest things; and that every phenomenon which appeared was only a method whereby the divine spirit manifested his will. Thus visions, involuntary motions, sudden and unexpected desires, became the admonitions of heaven, and merited the respect of those who felt them, and served as the organ of the Deity.

"The women, who, for the greater part, seem less influenced by reflection than by the instinct of nature, appeared to this people, as I have observed, to be better adapted than the men for filling this honourable ministry; and on this idea rested the principal base of their influence. They carried them along with them in their expeditions, followed their counsels, and sought in their esteem motives to brave every danger; and, in their ill-success, they feared more their reproaches than the sword of the enemy.

"We may perceive with the most superficial glance, in this simple and hasty sketch of the esteem in which women were held by the men of these barbarous countries, all the first ideas of chivalry, which the nations of the north diffused, when they inundated Europe. A taste for heroic adventures, and a desire of glory, had for a long while carried many Scandinavian warriors, to penetrate into countries the most remote, in order to render their names illustrious. A constant habit of rapine continually exposed the weak to sudden attack; and superinduced the necessity of defenders. Every young warrior, eager of renown, took upon himself the noble charge of protecting the fair sex, and followed his taste in pursuing an adventurous career.

"The multitudes of Scandinavians, which established themselves in France, Spain, England, and Italy, carried with them the taste of chivalry; and this passion, since restrained within very just limits, produced the refined politeness which has for so long a time formed a part of our manners.

"This first impulse of chivalrous gallantry among the nations of the north, was far from possessing all that delicacy and fascination which it afterwards acquired in Europe, by the admixture of the tenderness of the Spaniards, the elegance of the French, and the splendid romanticity of the Moors.—All the first notions were conceived without being developed: respect for the sex, love, devotion, the enthusiasm of glory, and a constancy which yielded every thing to one single object. These foundations were laid; but they were yet covered by a shade of coarseness and simplicity, which, even in the means of pleasing, announced a rude tenderness, and left more to be seen of the warrior than the lover."

We next come to the condition of women in Asia. Wherever the religion of Mahomet prevails, there the domestic slavery of the female sex is confirmed. Mahomet, says our author, wishing to stifle all those passions which he thought sufficiently strong to counterbalance his own influence on the minds of his followers, felt that though he could restrain men from intoxication by prohibiting the use of wine, it would be in vain to attempt to triumph over love. M. de Segur does not seem to have dived into the policy of Mahomet; many texts of the Koran are calculated to check the uncontrouled indulgence of sexual gratification. Mahomet is the only lawgiver who enforced a positive and general interdiction of the use of wine; the climate of Arabia, it is probable, he thought would sufficiently inflame the blood, and required rather a moderating than a stimulating beverage. Mahomet certainly did not wish to "triumph over love:" no one was a more ardent votary of the sex than himself, and this

Digitized by Google

very prohibition, perhaps, was intended to preserve his disciples, not merely from impairing the faculties of their minds, but the vigour of their bodies. The prophet, however, was jealous of their power, and succeeded in undermining that empire which beauty in a warm climate is so calculated to enjoy.

It is curious enough that M. Segur, after having argued against the efficacy of seclusion and confinement in preserving the chastity of women, should, in the next page, regret the destruction of convents in France! those sacred retreats, as he calls them, where virtue rested in peace, where young females were preserved from snares, and where their education was promoted!

The devotion of one sex to the charms of the other was never so reverential and profound as during the age of chivalry: in this gallant period of history, the ladies took an ample vengeance. The prostrate knight was proudly recompensed for his most perilous atchievements at the joust, the tournament, and the battle, by a smile from his fair one. As commerce extended, the arts and occupations of peace succeeded to these military amusements, and as chivalry declined, gallantry declined with it.—M. Segur is disposed to believe that the women, alarmed at the feebleness of their sway, by a sort of tacit agreement and co-operation, produced by a sense of their interests, betook themselves to letters, as the means of resuming a firmer and more permanent influence.

"The sciences were cultivated, but more especially literature. A general impulse directed the mind of all to the study of languages: it was not possible to pass suddenly from an ignorant and military life to scientific meditation; men wished to know how the ancients thought, before they reflected themselves. This was the natural course of ideas. The knowledge of languages being diffused, the philosophy of the ancients came into vogue; but according to the character and temper of the minds: Aristotle and Plato produced several prophets; the Aristotelian philosophy occupied the universities and the cloisters; the Platonic enchanted the poets, the lovers, the sentimental philosophers, and the women. These had emulated the men in courage, during the flourishing æra of chivalry; they were now unwilling to yield to them with respect to the sciences, and they every where instructed themselves. One saw, says M. Thomas, religious poets, women of high rank taking part in controversies, haranguing the popes in latin, exhorting them, as well as kings, to declare war against the Turks. The Greek language, so magnificent in the poems of Homer, dazzled with renewed lustre. At that period, the verses of this sublime bard, pronounced by the mouth of a beautiful woman, excited enthusiasm in every soul, and kindled in every heart all the ardours of love.

"The women, however, did not confine themselves to the dry study of languages and abstract theology, less satisfactory to their imaginations than poetry, which is subservient and consequent to it, occupying the mind with images and the soul with sentiments. They succeeded in it; and what at first was resorted to merely for amusement, became to them a source of glory and success.

"But their self-love demanded still greater triumphs. In their eyes, talents are valuable only by the homage which they procure to them. Formerly the knights fought and died for them. This tender frenzy having subsided, they wished to be celebrated by the poet's song; they wished that he should neglect his own glory to exalt theirs; that all literary works should have women for their theme, and that, in verse and prose, all Europe should resound with the praises of a sex that feeds upon incense. Their will was a command, and gallantry soon diffused itself throughout literature, as it had participated in the lustre of military achievements.

"Boccaccio was the first, who, in a Latin work concerning illustrious women, set the example of this tender adulation. Whilst the men still devoted themselves to intrigue and war, the women shone in the exercises of intellect. The courts of Naples, Florence, Mantua, Milan, were schools of grace, instruction, and taste. To please, to love, to write, to expect, and to receive homage, these were the employments of women's lives."

Notwithstanding that in his preface M. de Segur had stated that the object of his book was to demonstrate the equality of the sexes, there are many opinions delivered in it which convey but a very questionable compliment to the ladies. M. de Segur contends that that pure and steady friendship which is so often displayed in the other sex is little known among females: if a woman be the friend of another woman, says he, self-love, rivalship interpose between them, change their sentiments, or secretly apprise them that they are liable to change. Elsewhere he asserts that "every thing which is moderate is a torment to women; great movements and repose alternately please them, and without the powerful attraction of self-love, which induces them to endure every thing in order to obtain homage, and which causes them to submit to chains in the hope of one day imposing

Digitized by Google

them, they would not voluntarily have suffered any superior sway. Force alone could have brought them under subjection. When the passions are kindled they are capable of rising to the most heroic actions, or of falling into the most odious excesses." If they are less susceptible of friendship, however, he acknowledges that in them the torch of love burns with a brighter and more ardent flame than in the bosom of the other sex; "love," says he, "is made for them, and they for love."

As to the intellectual faculties of the sex, M. Segur considers their genius "as creative only in modifications." We are at a loss to comprehend the meaning of this delicate distinction; their understanding, he continues, more subtle than profound, defines with more grace than accuracy, with more elegance than logic. All energetic ideas, he contends, are denied to women; they think, but they can rarely meditate; they bring to perfection, they seize with greater vivacity than we do all the *superficial* relations, which they present with a grace which is peculiar to them. Examples to the contrary are of no avail: these he chooses to consider as exceptions, and although M. de Segur has employed at least one half of his three volumes in sketching the characters of illustrious women, and although this one half is a refutation to the reasoning contained in the other, he is not to be convinced.

Among the numerous examples of female superiority, that afforded by Catherine the first of Russia is conspicuous. M. de Segur has given us the history of this very extraordinary woman, but the narrative is full of anachronisms from an original blunder as to the date of her birth. She is stated to have been born in 1702; it was in the year 1711 that she extricated the Czar from his perilous situation before the Grand Vizier on the bank of the Pruth! Catherine was born in 1687; Peter espoused her in 1711; and crowned her with his own hand at Moscow in 1724.

In no country, perhaps, has the influence of women been more decided than in France, and M. de Segur did right to select his own country, as affording a history of the reign of beauty. He goes back to the gallant period of Francis I. and marks the oscillations of their empire during the successive reigns, interspersing the narrative with several amusing anecdotes. It may be observed, however, that this is rather a history of gallantry than of any thing else; it is a history of the influence of courtezans upon the monarch; and this influence, it is obvious, depended very much upon his character and temperament. At last we come to the stormy period of the revolution, which, as we have already remarked, gave occasion to a thousand godlike instances of heroism, and affection, and fidelity.

ART. V. *Gleanings in England, descriptive of the Countenance, Mind, and Character, of the Country, with new Views of Peace and War. By Mr.* PRATT. Vol. III. 8vo. pp. 680.

THREE thousand one hundred and fifty pages *and upwards* of these Gleanings has Mr. Pratt, by his own account, "laid at the feet" of the public, and his pages have been successful.

Lottery tickets are scarcely more at the disposal of blind chance, than are the literary productions of this generation. Three years ago a translation was published of the True History of Mexico, by Bernal Diaz, himself one of the conquerors. This accurate and most interesting detail of one of the most splendid events which has ever been recorded in history now lies upon the publisher's shelves, or is to be found at the bookstalls, priced at half its value: for the public are contented with Dr. Robertson, a writer who either did not read what he ought to have read, or suppressed the facts he found which contradicted his own theories. Dr. Percy, to whom for his exquisite taste the people of England are more indebted than to any other living author, has published two works, both of exceeding importance, which have been equally unsuccessful. The "Northern Antiquities" are often quoted, yet never reached a second edition. The Chinese Novel, the most indisputably Chinese, has scarcely been heard of. We have particularized these three works of many, because they who read merely for amusement, can scarcely find more amusing than these. Yet these works have obtained no sale in an age when Mr. Pratt finds purchasers for three thousand one hundred and fifty pages and upwards of his Gleanings!

It is not our intention to exercise any

Digitized by Google

critical severity upon the Gleanings of this gentleman. Some talents, *sui generis*, he does indeed possess; and in an age when the indulgence of private malignity, whether in prose or verse, never fails to obtain public approbation, Mr. Pratt has some claim to indulgence for the indiscriminating good will with which he flatters all his contemporaries. They who will read his volumes would probably not have employed their hours better, and they will not rise the worse from the perusal of sentiments uniformly friendly to good morals and kindly feelings. Of the summer insects who come within our reach we destroy without compunction such as are noxious, but it were cruel to shorten the life of the golden-chafer or the butterfly; let them enjoy the summer while it lasts.

With these feelings we proceed to give that attention to this volume which is due to the popularity of the author.

The first letter is chiefly designed as introductory to what Mr. Pratt calls Native Sonnets. Of these we extract two, which are characterised by an individual feeling, and have therefore an interest superior to what is commonly found in such compositions.

"*Sacred to a first Impression.*

" Primæval object of my spotless heart,
In life's fresh morn, ev'n in my tend'rest youth,
When it was pure as thine, and not an art,
The world calls wise, had warp'd fair nature's truth.

" O, by what various fate and fortune hurl'd,
What giddy turns of human weal and woe,
Since those blest times, my wand'ring steps have hurl'd,
Thro' all the strange diversities below!

" Yet, tho' ten years have thrice been told, sweet maid!
Since last we met—ev'n in thy dying hour—
To the chill grave where I beheld thee laid,
How oft has mem'ry flown and own'd thy pow'r?

" Paid thee the tribute of a heart-sprung tear
In climes remote, yet hop'd thy *spirit* near!"

* * * *

"*To the River Ouze.*

" What tho' fair stream, from prouder deeps I come—
The wealthy Maeze, and the Imperial Rhine!
On thy green banks I find myself at home;
My wonder theirs, but my affection thine.

" Amidst the oziers that enrich thy side,
In times long past, my earliest lyre I strung;
At the rude numbers felt a poet's pride,
And thy still wave listen'd to my song;

" And fancy smil'd, alas! and I was blest;
But, ah! how soon thy ready aid I sought,
Wild with the anguish throbbing in my breast,
O God! forgive the still repented thought!

" Grief's madd'ning thought, in passion's phrenzied hour,
Ere sorrow own'd the sway of reason's god-like power."

Mr. Pratt dates at the commencement of his volume from the fens of Huntingdonshire, where he leads us to the cottage of his father's old huntsman, now a mole-catcher, at the age of ninety-three!

" And, lo! seated on a brown bench, cut in the wall within the chimney place, in a corner of yon rude cottage, he presents himself to your view. Behold his still ruddy cheeks, his milk-white locks, partly curled and partly strait—see how correctly they are separated in the middle, almost to the equal division of a hair—a short pipe in his mouth—his dame's hand folded in his own—a jug of smiling beer warming in the wood ashes—a cheerful blaze shining upon two happy old countenances, in which, though you behold the indent of many furrows, they have been made by age, not sorrow—the good sound age of health, without the usual infirmities of long life—exhibiting precisely the unperceived decay so devoutly to be wished. On the matron's knee sits a purring cat; at the veteran's foot, on the same hearth, sleeps an aged hound, of my father's breed, in the direct line of unpolluted descent; or a 'true chip of the old block,' as John phrased it; and who, by its frequent and quick-repeated whaffle, or demi-bark, seems to be dreaming of the chace—an antique gun is pendent over the chimney—a spinning-wheel occupies the vacant corner by the second brown bench, and a magpie, with closed eyes and his bill nestled under his wing, is at profound rest in his wicker cage. To close the picture, the mole-bag, half filled with captives of the day, thrown into a chair, on which observe a kitten has clambered, and is in the act of playing with one of the soft victims which it has contrived to purloin from the bag for its pastime, while the frugal but sprightly light from the well-stirred faggot, displays on the mud, but clean walls, many a time-embrowned ditty, as well moral as professional; such as 'God rest you, Merry Gentlemen'—'The Morning is up, and the cry of the Hounds'—'The Sportsman's Delight'—'Chevy Chace'—and 'The Jolly Huntsmen.'"

Omit the sentence 'his dame's hand folded in his own,' which savours more of the sentimental than the natural, and this description would appear well if tranferred by Barker to the canvass.*

* We had written this as a deserved compliment to the author and the artist before we knew that Mr. Barker actually designed to make the portrait.

Digitized by Google

As the huntsman lives at Warboys, Mr. Pratt extracts an account of the famous witches of that village. If his other extracts had been made from books equally rare, or equally interesting, we should set a higher value upon his volume than it at present deserves. Some good observations upon this superstition are annexed. A very excellent passage upon the same subject might have been appended as a note from Cato's letters, a work written upon temporary politics, but containing much matter of sterling and permanent value. The names of Gordon and Trenchard should be dear to all lovers of civil and ecclesiastical freedom. Here we will quote a good anecdote from Mr. Pratt.

"It is not many years since an inhabitant of Boston, in New England, took a fancy to accuse his neighbour of witchcraft, and the crime being clearly proved, the poor culprit suffered according to law. The contagion spread, and their Sessions-house was crowded with witches, as much as our Old Bailey with pick-pockets. To the tribe it brought fees, and so far was well. But a man having been cheated by his lawyer, made oath that said lawyer was a wizard. This was too much, the clan was in danger. The Court had a special meeting, and unanimously determined, that they would not receive any more information against wizards. The bye-law had the effect of a charm, and sorcery was no more."

A similar circumstance occurred within our own knowledge. In some extensive mines in Wales the men frequently saw the devil, and when once he had been seen the men would never work any more during that day. This evil became serious, for old Beelzebub repeated his visits as often as if he had a design to injure the proprietor. That gentleman at last called his men together, told them that it was very certain that the devil never appeared to any body who had not deserved to be so terrified, and that as he would keep no rogues about him, he was resolved to discharge the first man that saw the devil again. The remedy was as efficient as if he had turned a stream of holy water into the mine.

This subject leads Mr. Pratt to an enumeration of our popular superstitions, which is well terminated by the following.

"But the grand soothsayers of the present day amongst us are the Almanack-makers, and of these the immortal Moore is lord of the ascendant. This sublime personage enjoys, in one respect, a prerogative said to be attached only to our Sovereigns. The King of England, and Moore, the almanack-maker, never die; nay, the latter has in one point the advantage: the successors of royal personages, though represented generally by the word king, have their Christian appellations of John, Henry, William, and George, but this immutable conjuror in chief is always one and the same, Francis Moore, Physician! He is the creed of the common people of England in all matters that relate either to time or occurrence, peace or war, fair weather or foul. He can count the rain and snow that have fallen upon the face of our island, in the course of our winter's solstice, to a single fleat or drop; and he knows as intimately what is doing in the sun, moon, and planets, as what is transacting in this nether sphere. He is, likewise, in the secret of first and second causes, and is as familiar with the planets and conjunctions as he is with the man in the moon. But notwithstanding this universal knowledge, terrestrial and celestial, you will be charmed with his modesty—considering how dogmatic and dictatorial most great men are—when I tell you, that although he knows to the nicety of a fraction how many potentates will be hurled from their thrones, and how many usurpers will seize the sceptre—for he is to the full as great a politician as he is an astrologer—he offers every thing with the diffidence that characterizes a truly great mind. In a word, he is our only vox stellarum, hieroglyphical, chronological, meteorological, and ecliptical philosopher, since his first rising amongst us to this present almanack for the year of human redemption. Of course the dispersion of his predictions exceeds that of any other conjuror of the empire, in the ratio of at least a hundred to one. How, indeed, should it be otherwise, since he is looked upon as oracular in all things; and I could not but smile the other day, when, on going into the shop of one of my principal booksellers to enquire after a work which has of late much attracted public notice, I was informed that the success of the *book* I asked for would, in point of sale, yield but to one author alive or dead; and that one, said the bookseller gravely, is the celebrated and everlasting Francis Moore, philosopher, physician, astronomer, and almanack-maker!"

This amusing paragraph is an admirable specimen of the puff by induction. The appendix contains a very curious addition to this part in these items.

"1. Three hundred and fifty thousand of Moore's Almanack are sold yearly!

"2. In order to prepare so large an edition, it is necessary to be four months working at press!

Digitized by Google

"3. And each sheet is obliged to be *set up* at two or three different printing-offices, or it would be impossible to prepare so enormous an edition within the time!

"4. What is to be published the next year begins printing in May!!

"5. A single bookseller, in his first order, takes fifty thousand!!!

"6. A man, high in office in the city of London, exclaimed confidentially to a friend of the Gleaner's, 'By G—d, Sir, there will be no war! *Moore's Almanack* predicts a year of prosperity! and at *this time* speaks only of *peace*; and I would sooner believe in *Moore* than in Bonaparte or Mr. Addington!!!"

Some letters follow upon the misfortunes of men of letters, and this leads to an account of the Literary fund. We gladly take the opportunity of stating the real merits of this celebrated institution, differing indeed from this benevolent writer in the view which we take; for we see with our naked eye, and he looks through Claude spectacles that cast a sunshine upon every thing.

Beyond all doubt, a society for the advancement of literature is wanting in England. Booksellers must regard their own interest; and if occasionally, as in the instance of Ritson's Ancient Romances, they incur a certain loss because the thing itself is honourable, such instances occur so rarely that they are indeed honourable where they do occur. We have no academy, and the indolence of our universities is proverbial abroad, even to infamy. A literary fund is therefore wanting, which should be at the expence of publishing such works of acknowledged utility as no bookseller would undertake, because of their uncertain or slow returns. Such a society, employing able men upon worthy pursuits, would be a national benefit, and would actually prevent the want which these associated gentlemen profess to relieve. An individual is now, at his own single expence, publishing the remains of Cimbric Literature. The name of Owen Jones, this munificent benefactor of letters, should be mentioned with that honour which will always accompany it hereafter. The funds of such an establishment would be well employed in publishing a translation of these remains, and in collecting, after his example, the genuine poems, tales, or chronicles, existing in the Erse or the Gaelic. In like manner should they preserve the early monuments of our Anglo-Saxon and Anglo-Norman ancestors. They should republish those valuable specimens of our old language, which are become so scarce as to be well nigh useless. They should publish the inedited works of those great men upon whom England prides herself, and who are indeed the glory of England, but whose manuscripts will be left to moulder as long as our universities remain what they are. We speak of the works of Roger Bacon, of Cudworth, and of Jeremy Taylor. They should have recompensed poor Richardson, the compiler of the Persian and Arabic Dictionary, who destroyed himself, because he found no reward for that mighty labour. They should still recompense the patient and modest man who has devoted eighteen years to the compilation of a Welsh dictionary without the hope of reward. We could easily extend this summary of what such a society ought to do; let us now examine what these gentlemen have done, and what they profess to do.

Mr. Pratt is the encomiast of the society, and he says, "from a statement of the sums paid by the committee of the fund, since its first establishment, it does not appear that any one applicant can have received, on an average, more than fifteen pounds." We will correct his calculation by saying, that the liberality of the general committee has extended to a donation of twenty pounds. And this is all that they have done, this is all that they purpose to do; no hope is held out for the future, no employment afforded. The poor author who applies in his distress to these literary churchwardens receives little more than the parish would have allowed him in the course of twelve months for the support of himself and family as paupers.

Mr. Pratt now opens upon a new subject; his correspondent having been gratified by his verses to "Poor Toby," he is led to comment upon dogs in general, and the virtues of those "*inestimable appendages to human society.*" A long story is related, upon Dr. Duncan's authority, of a dog who preserved his master, and was the means of discovering a murder. The story itself is curious and interesting, but is sadly diluted with that sentimental water gruel washy stile which is the abomination of this book. The next theme is cruelty to animals; and here the author, with a proper and English feeling, reprobates the conduct of those statesmen who deduce English courage from the practice of bull-baiting; pre-

Digitized by Google

cious logicians! they did indeed prove that they themselves were "*redeemed by no virtue*;" that their private feelings were as detestable as their political conduct; that they are as hardened to all humanity as they are to all shame; and that they would as wantonly abuse their power to increase the sufferings of the brute creation, as they have abused it to the increase of human misery. It was their system to brutalize the people whom they oppressed, and they acted consistently.

This subject of cruelty to animals introduces quotations from Cowper, and from the life of Cowper, for Mr. Pratt is in truth a Gleaner. He then travels to London, and here a new world of subjects is opened to him. The female fashions are thus well ridiculed.

"I have it, therefore, in contemplation to propose a duty upon the legs, arms, shoulders, and bosoms of those ladies who undress in the highest style of fashionable nakedness. In our tax on window-lights only such a portion of distance is allowed betwixt one pane of glass and another, and the tax operates on its passing the given bound. This might be a good precedent for regulating what I have thoughts of calling the *nudity-tax*. The point of decency would very easily be settled, and to that point every lady might go; but the exposure of every inch beyond, whether above or below, would be subject to the tax.

"Besides the usual rewards to informers, there might be a certain number of persons licensed by government. These might go their rounds to espie the nakedness of the land; a kind of inspectors, in the way of excise officers, invested with authority to measure limbs exposed, guage bosoms displayed, &c. whenever it is obvious the degree of nakedness allowed by law is exceeded. At the same time to avoid all this danger of the fair sex being annoyed in public by these examiners, the legislature would do well to establish a proper number of nudity-offices, where ladies, on entering their names, and going prepared with the precise point of denudation they determined upon, might obtain certificates, and pay the price of every joint, from the taxation part of the ancle upwards to the knee, and from the limited point of the arm to the unlawful part of the shoulder, and so downwards again. Only it might be advisable to increase the weight of the tax according to the nature of the parts to be exposed. A lady, for instance, should not have the privilege of wholly uncovering her bosom, nor of entirely baring her shoulders, without reference being had to both the personal and political mischief that may be done to civil society in an exhibition, and should be taxed accordingly.

"It might save trouble, also, if such ladies as are legally entitled to go great lengths, and take all liberties with the public, should exhibit their right so to do. This might easily be managed by forming the certificate itself into an ornament, on the cap, wig, train, apron, or any other part of the body, before or behind, that happens to be shaded, with the word *permit* in legible characters, either stampt or wrought, no matter how simply or splendidly, either in beads, spangles, foil, or jewels. The *permit* will, indeed, not only prevent the importunity of the nudity surveyors, but will be hung out as a signal to the spectators who have a taste for naked figures."

The markets, the shops, the theatres, are all visited by this Gleaner. He describes the prisons, and the misery of their tenants, with some feeling; but this feeling, with all the theatrical sentimentalism which accompanies it, terminates in some wretched common-place reasons, to make his readers feel satisfied that all things are as they should be. The prisons of London, he says, are more splendid in their external appearance than either Buckingham House, or St. James's Palace! Doubtless this must be a consolation to the debtors who are living upon bread and water within! Who can doubt that the splendour of the prison must alleviate the sufferings of the prisoner? that a culprit at the bar must be flattered to see counsellors and judge dressed out in robes and wigs purely on his account? and that hanging is a cheerful operation to the party concerned, because the people make a holiday on the occasion, and call it hang fair?

"We must not take our ideas," says Mr. Pratt, "from any thing which our moralists or malcontents say of the general hardship of our places of confinement." Moralists or malcontents!—we recommend this synonim to Mrs. Piozzi's notice for the next edition of her liberal and accurate work. This morsel has been sugared for those readers who take up the book at the tea table, and love to be told that they live in the best of all possible times, and in the happiest of all possible societies. Mr. Pratt has too good a heart to keep on in this story; upon enquiry, he says, it appears, that more than twenty thousand persons are at this time prisoners for debt;

"—let us therefore coolly enquire what is the sum of evil which the imprisonment of debtors brings upon our country.

"It seems to be the opinion of the late

Digitized by Google

computists, that the inhabitants of England do not exceed six millions, of which twenty thousand is the three hundredth part. What shall we say of the humanity or the wisdom of a nation that voluntarily sacrifices one in every three hundred to lingering destruction!

"The misfortunes of an individual do not extend their influence to many; yet if we consider the effects of consanguinity and friendship, and the general reciprocation of wants and benefits, which make one man more dear or necessary to another, it may reasonably be supposed, that every man languishing in prison gives trouble of some kind to two others who love or need him. By this multiplication of misery we see distress extended to the hundredth part of the whole society.

"If we estimate at a shilling a day what is lost by the inaction, and consumed in the support, of each man thus chained down to involuntary idleness, the public loss will rise in one year to one hundred thousand pounds; in ten years to more than a sixth part of our circulating coin.

"I am afraid that those who are best acquainted with the state of our prisons will confess that my conjecture is too near the truth, when I suppose that the corrosion of resentment, the heaviness of sorrow, the corruption of confined air, the want of exercise, and sometimes of food, the contagion of diseases, from which there is no retreat, and the severity of tyrants, against whom there can be no resistance, and all the complicated horrors of a prison, put an end every year to the life of one in four of those that are shut up from the common comforts of human life.

"Thus perish yearly five thousand men, overborne with sorrow, consumed by famine, or putrified by filth; many of them in the most vigorous and useful part of life; for the thoughtless and imprudent are commonly young, and the active and busy are seldom old.

"According to the rule generally received, which supposes that one in thirty dies yearly, the race of man may be said to be renewed at the end of thirty years. Who would have believed till now, that of every English generation, an hundred and fifty thousand perish in our gaols? that in every century, a nation, eminent for science, studious of commerce, ambitious of empire, should willingly lose, in noisome dungeons, five hundred thousand of its inhabitants; a number greater than has ever been destroyed in the same time by the pestilence and sword!"

Without calling Mr. Pratt a moralist or a malcontent, we will forgive him his synonims for the humanity of this passage.

In his advertisement the author expresses an earnest wish that the ten concluding sheets might be first perused, as they are devoted to a heart-felt consideration of the important circumstances of the country at the present moment. Gentle reader, what were we to expect when thus requested to begin the book at the end on account of its immediate importance? We looked for a scheme to pay off the national debt, or a method of securing our fleet against a submarine attack, or a plan of fortification for London, or directions how to march to Paris, or something equally important and equally practicable. No, gentle reader, we have first, a picture of the gaieties of London taken from the newspapers, paragraphs respecting routs, and balls, and grand dinners, and the fashionable arrangements of the week from the Morning Post; and this is called a grand metropolitan moving picture! It is indeed an important picture: the country must indeed be miserably degraded in morals and intellect when the public papers are filled with such trash; when the "fashionables," as they are called, can take a pride in having their follies and prodigalities advertised, and when they are not punished for the publication, with general contempt. Next comes a sketch of the debates upon the war, remarks upon the speed of the mail coaches, an account of the arrival of the definitive treaty, a list of public charities, and an extract from Langhorne's Hymn to Humanity. In truth, after having perused these ten sheets we cannot conceive how the country is to be benefited by them at the present moment, unless they be served out to the volunteers as cartridge paper.

We have now finished the Gleanings; if Mr. Pratt will give us for the future pictures with less varnish, we shall be glad to take up his volumes. The present work has too many extracts, and too much *prittle prattle*; but Mr. Pratt has taken measure of the public taste, and knows how to fit it. That his works should last is a secondary consideration.

Digitized by Google

ART. VI. *Essays by the Students of the College of Fort William in Bengal: To which are added, the Theses pronounced at the Public Disputations in the Oriental Languages, on the 6th of February*, 1802. 8vo. pp. 228. Calcutta printed.

THESE essays, as the *frugum primitiæ* of an institution established on the soundest principles of justice and of wisdom, and which bids fair to revive the drooping learning of the east, will be welcomed by every lover of science, and every friend to humanity. It is well known, that the Marquis of Wellesley, among other important services which he has rendered to the East India company, founded a college at Fort William for the instruction of the junior civil servants of the company, in all those branches of literature and science, which may be deemed necessary to qualify them for discharging the duties of different offices, constituted for the administration of the government of the British possessions in the East Indies. It is not so generally known, perhaps, what those branches are, and on how very extensive a basis this establishment is founded. Presuming that most of our readers will feel the same gratification that we did on being made acquainted with the collegiate studies, we make no apology for transcribing, from the second volume of the Asiatic Annual Register, the following concise account of them: It is enacted, that "professorships shall be established as soon as may be practicable, and regular courses of lectures commenced in the following branches of literature, science, and knowledge: Arabic, Persian, Sanscreet, Hindustanee, Bengal, Telinga, Mahratta, Tamula, Canara languages; Mahommedan law, Hindoo law; ethics, civil jurisprudence, and the law of nations; English law: the regulations and laws enacted by the governor-general in council, or by the governors in council at Fort St. George and Bombay respectively, for the civil government of the British territories in India; political economy, and particularly the commercial institution and interests of the East India company; geography and mathematics; modern language of Europe; Greek, Latin, and English classics; general history, ancient and modern; the history and antiquities of Hindustan and the Deccan; natural history; botany, chemistry, and astronomy."

"The essays and theses here published, were composed by the students, under the following statutes enacted by his excellency the most noble the governor-general, patron and visitor of the college of Fort William.

"Statute VI. Of public disputations in the oriental languages.

'Whereas it is necessary, that the students destined to exercise high and important functions in India, should be able to speak the oriental languages with fluency and propriety; it is therefore declared, that public disputations and declamations shall be holden in the oriental languages, at stated times, to be prescribed by the council of the college.'

"Statute VII. Of exercises in English composition.

'Every student shall compose one essay or declamation in the English language, during the course of each term.

'The subject of these essays or declamations shall be proposed by the council of the college."

The disputations in oriental languages were held at the college hall on the sixth of February, 1802, being the anniversary of the commencement of the *first* term of the college. After the distribution of the prizes and honorary rewards, the honorable the acting visitor, George Hilaro Barlow, Esq. in absence of the noble patron and founder, who was called to a distant quarter of the empire, addressed the students in a short appropriate speech, expressive of his satisfaction at their general good conduct and proficiency.

This volume contains nine essays; three "on the advantages of an academical institution in India, considered in a moral, literary, and political point of view," respectively by Mr. Martin, Mr. Elliot, and Mr. Bayley; three "on the best means of acquiring a knowledge of the manners and customs of the natives of India," by Mr. Hamilton, Mr. Martin, and Mr. Metcalf; three "on the character and capacity of the Asiatics, and particularly of the natives of Hindoostan," by Mr. Wood, Mr. Martin, and Mr. Newenham.

Here it is impossible not to be struck with the wisdom and judgment which dictated the choice of these subjects. The object of the *first* is clearly to direct the attention of the students to the nature and views of the institution of which they are members, to impress them with a just sense of its importance, and of the value of those advantages which are now within their reach, and which, if they suffer to pass away without profiting by them, must be dishonourable to their character, and detrimental to their interests. The *second*, by enquiring the best means of

obtaining a knowledge of the manners and customs of the natives of India, takes for granted the necessity of such knowledge; and in plain language tells the students, that whatever situation they occupy, whether they are employed in the legislative, judicial, or commercial line, an acquaintance with the hereditary usages and opinions of those for whom they legislate, and with whom they have any dealings, must be the foundation of every liberal, and politic, and just principle of conduct. In the *third* essay, a still more enlarged and comprehensive view of the subject of the second, seems to be recommended. The question, as it is stated for discussion, seems to say to the students, "a knowledge of the manners and customs of the Asiatics is necessary, but it is not all that is necessary; you must mark the operation of these manners and customs, and observe what effect they produce upon their *character* and *capacities*; you must apply your knowledge. In order to conciliate the affections of those under your sway, and secure their fidelity, make yourself acquainted with their character, that you may not unintentionally, and through ignorance do violence to their prejudices, and shock their feelings."

Before we read a line of any one of these essays, such were the reflections which came across our minds on looking over the contents of the volume, where the subjects of them are stated. It is time to notice the essays themselves, which do credit to the good sense, and what is more, to the good feelings of their respective authors.

The more important and immediate advantages of an academical institution in India are so obvious, that it can excite no surprise if the three gentlemen who employed their pens in the enumeration of them, should coincide in their opinions, and cast their eyes on the same objects. So striking indeed is this coincidence, that there is scarcely a sentiment in any one of the first three essays, which is not to be found in one of the other two.

Mr. Martin, after anticipating the discovery of many treasures of literature, which an intimate acquaintance with oriental languages alone can bring to light, proceeds thus:

"But these studies, though valuable in themselves at all times, derive additional importance when considered in a political point of view. 'Justice is the pillar which supports the fabric of human society.' Its strict and impartial administration has, almost in every age and country, been esteemed the firmest bond for conciliating the affections, and securing the obedience of its subjects. If, therefore, any specks may have arisen, to dim the lustre and stain the purity of a system, so essential to the happiness of millions, and in which their interests are so deeply involved; whatever tends to dissipate and erase them, excites our gratitude, and engrosses our attention. The clouds which have obscured its path will now retire and disperse; while the success which must inevitably crown the steps of industry, will enable us to introduce the solid advantages of European literature; will promote the cultivation of wealth, by giving vigour and dispatch to business; and will be the means of accelerating the progress of civil society, by enlarging the channels of intercourse. Our credit too, as a nation, is interested in marking the progress of our conquests, not by the vain effusion of innocent blood, or the destruction of millions of the human race; but by a generous and liberal communication of the arts and sciences; while policy requires, that the people, whom our arms have rescued from the galling bonds of Asiatic slavery, should, while they acknowledge the necessity, experience the benefits of their submission.

"If then it be of acknowledged moment to acquire the principles of general knowledge, and to render ourselves acquainted with the languages of those countries which we may hereafter govern, it is of proportional importance to consult the experience of history; as a field, exhibiting the varied operations of the human understanding, and a theatre, representing the various changes and passions of the human heart. Unfurnished with any ideas on general policy, and unaccustomed to contemplate the objects which wise and salutary laws ever have in view, we should be totally unable to form any just estimate of the systems of ancient legislators, or of their influence on the general happiness of the people. History, by pointing out the objects of true worth and value, teaches us to despise the brilliancy of those martial exploits, which, though they may have procured the temporary applause and admiration of mankind, have ever been condemned by the calm and dispassionate suffrage of posterity. It will encourage us, by the numerous examples which it displays of a noble disregard to private interest, when opposed to the great claims of society, to love, and imitate those qualities which we admire and extol in others; and will prompt us to resist the progress of that degenerate spirit, which sacrifices, without a blush, the considerations of duty and interest to the base indulgence of sloth and appetite.

"But there is no feature in the institution that shines with brighter or more distinguished lustre, or that more demands our gratitude and esteem, than the asylum it affords against

Digitized by Google

that ridicule and contempt, which moral excellence too often meets with in society.—However great our qualifications, or brilliant our endowments, unless supported on the firm basis of religion and morality, they can sparkle only with a tinsel brilliancy. If in delineating the character of one who claimed the admiration of mankind, after having ascribed to him eloquence, valour, and every accomplishment that is most shining and captivating, it were to be said, that he indulged in every vicious inclination, was unaccompanied by truth, and uninfluenced by virtue; by that one stroke alone the whole character would be sunk and degraded.

" 'Tis the last key-stone
That makes the arch; the rest that there were put
Are nothing, 'till that comes to bind and shut:
Then stands it a triumphal mark! then men
Observe the strength, the height, the why, and when
It was erected."

How honorable are such sentiments as these; what a pledge do they afford, that if the individual who now utters them should at any future period of life be promoted to any rank or station where his power and influence are conspicuous, he will exert them in the distribution of justice, and the defence of innocence.

Mr. Elliot has thus expressed the same feelings:

" In a moral point of view, the advantages of an academical institution will be equally conspicuous. Pleasures and amusements, unless restrained within moderate bounds, soon lead to extravagance and licentiousness. Coming into the country at an early age, it can hardly be expected that young men should have any strong or fixed ideas of the truth of their religion; and whatever they may have, are too often obliterated by a constant intercourse with men, who are, perhaps, as deficient in moral principle as in their knowledge of the true religion. Nor is this all: a very short course of dissipation places them in the power of men, who want not the inclination to render them instrumental in the perpetration of the most dishonest and unworthy actions, to the disgrace of their country and the dishonour of the religion which they profess. As we believe our religion to be infinitely more pure than that of India, and our morality more refined, it is incumbent on us to shew that our actions are not at variance with our ideas; and to evince the truth of that religion, by displaying its efficacy on our conduct. The paths of vice hold out so many, and such powerful allurements, that nothing but a firm and solid foundation of religion, integrity and morality, can resist their power. It becomes therefore a primary object of the institution to check, in the very beginning, the progress of dissipation and vice; to instill the principles of religion and virtue; to enforce the necessity of order and industry; and to warn the inexperienced of the dangers and snares which await them in their passage through life.

" I cannot omit to observe two circumstances, which will tend very greatly to conciliate to the British government the good will and esteem of the natives of India, and which may be ranked among the principal advantages of this institution.

" The first is, the great advantage which is hereby extended to natives of learning and abilities. India has been long descending by slow degrees into the gulph of barbarism and ignorance, and learning and the arts have been gradually falling into disrepute and obscurity. The ample field which this institution proposes to itself, comprehending the languages, literature, arts, and sciences of all the more polished nations of Asia, will not fail in a few years to assemble the most learned men from all parts, by affording them suitable encouragement. Nor does it end here. The student will come into active life with a taste for eastern literature, and extend that patronage so happily begun; the shoots of science will again spring up and flourish, and the east will regain its once well merited celebrity.

" The other circumstance I had to mention, is the conviction which will be afforded to the natives of India, of the earnest desire of the supreme government, that they may not be ruled by men, ignorant of the genius of the country and its inhabitants; but by those who, from a regular course of diligence and study, have attained a perfect knowledge of the subject. This will inspire a confidence that the laws will be administered with justice and impartiality; that every respect will be shewn to their usages and customs, and every indulgence to their prejudices; in fine, they will cease to consider themselves as a conquered people, and unite with one soul in a general wish for the permanency and prosperity of the British empire."

Of the essays " on the best method of acquiring a knowledge of the manners and customs of the nations of India," we are rather inclined to give preference to Mr. Martin's; Mr. Metcalf, however, is a powerful competitor for the palm.—Mr. Hamilton is busied about the importance of acquiring this knowledge, rather than about the means of obtaining it; and he is totally ignorant of a truth which is brought forward and enlarged on by both the other gentlemen, namely, that the genius and character of a people is often to be inferred from their language, and that language, therefore, is not merely the key of knowledge, but is knowledge itself.—Mr. Martin says,

" So intimate is the connection between

Digitized by Google

language and manners, that to acquire an accurate knowledge of the latter, an attentive examination of the structure of the former has ever been deemed necessary. So sensible were the Romans of the influence of language in forming the manners of men, that it was their most serious care to extend, with the progress of their arms, the use of the Latin tongue; and we need only advert to those languages now existing in the world, to observe, that they receive their peculiar character from the national character of the people who speak them.

"Our own language, for instance, agreeable to the studious, reflecting, and phlegmatic disposition of the people of England, displays its power of expression, chiefly on grave subjects, and on the stronger emotions of the mind; whereas the language of the French, sympathizing with their delicacy, refinement, and sensibility, surpasses our own in expressing the nicer shades of character, is copious in whatever is delicate, gay, or amusing, and is perhaps the happiest language for conversation in the world. An examination of the structure of language must be always attended with great advantages, as being very nearly connected with the philosophy of the human mind."

Mr. Metcalf makes the same remark:

"The general character and peculiar genius of a people, may also be collected from their language. From the openness and boldness of expression in our own, we discern evident marks of that nobleness of mind and freedom of spirit, which dignify the Briton; whilst the politesse and suavity of diction in the French tongue, bespeak that gaiety of disposition, and elegance of manners, which adorn the well educated inhabitant of France. Thus every language carries in itself the stamp of the nation who converse in it, an assertion confirmed by observation of the oriental languages; in every sentence of which appear that humility and slavish submission, or that haughtiness and despotic insolence, which have ever been the characteristics of Asiatics, in the respective situations of subjects and sovereigns, dependents and lords."

"Whether the religion or government, climate or education, produces most effect on the national character, is a problem which, though frequently discussed, has never been satisfactorily resolved;" Mr. Martin therefore dwells upon these several causes, which undoubtedly co-operate in forming the national character. On the effects of religion, indeed, he has only glanced: he might, with advantage, have noticed some of the most striking instances of its operation. If he had adverted to the mild genius of the Peruvians at the time of their discovery by Pizarro, clearly derived from the object of their worship, and the superstition inculcated by their Incas, and contrasted it with the ferocious character of the Mexicans, also derivable from the savage rites of their religion; if he had noticed the effects of polytheism, and the obscene and licentious mythology of the ancients, it would have illustrated an argument which, however, Mr. Metcalf doubtless thought was too obviously true to stand in need of illustration. The manners and habits of a people, moreover, are to be in a great measure inferred from the nature of the government to which they are subject, the laws by which their conduct is regulated, and the education which prevails among them.

We are very much disposed to think that *climate* too operates more powerfully than is generally imagined; Mr. Hume altogether denies the influence of physical causes on the genius and nature of man. We are strongly disposed to think that moral causes, such as government, religion and education, are, in reality, but effects flowing from physical ones.

After all, perhaps, it is by social intercourse, as Mr. Martin observes, that a knowledge of the character and circumstances of any nation can be, with certainty, attained. The christian missionaries enjoy "peculiar opportunities of investigating the spirit of Hindoo theology, and of explaining the structure of their language." From these zealous and inquisitive men, therefore, who must, of necessity, make it a principal object to encourage and promote the most unreserved communication, it is that we must rely for the most copious and valuable information, as to the manners and customs of the natives of India.

The "character and capacity of the Asiatics" are treated of in three essays, respectively, by Mr. Wood, Mr. Martin, and Mr. Newnham, who agree in representing them, as indeed most of the authors have done, as indolent, cruel, and abject. The influence of climate is not overlooked by these gentlemen; Mr. Wood concedes a great deal to it, and seems very much of our opinion, that religion and government are secondary causes, and climate a primary one. Climate and religion, says he, most forcibly conspire to determine the character of the natives of Hindoostan; the former paves the way for any impression the latter may be willing to establish, which, when once received, it throws also every obstacle in

Digitized by Google

the way of its removal. The cruelty of the Hindoos, like that of the Mexicans, is no doubt attributable to the bloody rites of their religion: "thousands of human victims have been thrown to smoke on the polluted altars of their horrid deities; deities, whose crimes, if upon earth, society could not endure; and those bosoms, which have been fondly imagined the asylum of love, of meekness, and humanity, are found to be the receptacles of every debasing crime, and every malignant passion." The abjectness of the Hindoo is moreover confirmed by the *secondary* influence of that institution, which obtained, before the records of authentic history, the institution of casts, by which the station of every individual is irrevocably fixed, and "the walk of life marked out, from which he must never deviate, and whose barriers it would be impious to pass." An institution like this, it is clear, must deaden every noble faculty of the mind, it must smother every spark of ambition, and nip every bud of genius. The expertness acquired in some of their manufactures, is scarcely worthy to be mentioned in the consideration of this subject.

"If we examine," says Mr. Martin, "into the capacity peculiar to the Asiatics, we shall find them to possess a larger portion of ability than is generally supposed. Indeed we have every reason to suppose, that the sun of science, as well as of religion, first arose upon the eastern world; and that the polished nations of Europe, who now excel antiquity in arts, and vie with it in arms, are indebted to Asia for their cultivation, and many of their best attainments. The Asiatics, it is probable, had climbed the heights of science before the Greeks had learned their alphabet; and while the forests of Europe were stocked with a few wild, uncultivated savages, these were collected into populous cities, the seats of arts, of luxury, and of despotism, Asia too has given birth to some of the greatest monarchies of the world; to that of the Assyrians, the Medes, and the Persians. The foundations of astronomy are said to have been laid in Babylon; and from the Magi of Persia, Pythagoras is declared to have acquired the principles of that knowledge, which procured him the applause and veneration of the Greeks. Hindoostan was infinitely more enlightened than it is at this day, and its inhabitants a civilized, a commercial, and even a warlike people; and at the time that the Greeks imagined themselves the only great people upon earth, Confutsee had planted morality and good government in China. Thus we see that literature, taste, and science originated in Asia, and by a gradual diffusion, in the course of time spread themselves over Greece and Italy. Such then having been once the state of the sciences and arts among the Asiatics, it cannot be unreasonable to suppose, that their ability still remains unhurt and vigorous; and that those sparks of genius, hitherto smothered or enfeebled by the noxious climate of oppression, might, under the congenial influence of a milder government, and more favourable laws, again be fanned into a flame."

Many specimens of ancient architecture still remain; the chief edifices were erected for religious purposes, and, according to Mr. Newnham, attract admiration, merely from the time and labour necessary for their construction, the architecture possessing little merit either for regularity or elegance. Astronomy and the sciences, he continues, were formerly studied in Hindoostan, but they seem to have been known only to the Brahmins, and by the indolence of that race they are now almost forgotten.

"If the arts had been carried to a high degree of perfection, some traces of that perfection would have remained; but we find the mechanical instruments of the native, simple and unimproved, and his tools for agriculture and building, such as a nation emerging from a state of nature would first have invented. I mean not to assert, that many of the arts known and esteemed in Europe, have not had their origin in this country. It is probable that Hindoostan was one of the first countries which emerged from barbarism; but there is no appearance of its having at any former time greatly excelled that degree of civilization, such as it is, which exists at this day."

* * *

"The Indians at present under the British dominion, particularly those near the seats of government, appear inclined to dismiss many of their prejudices. The richer Hindoos, in particular, affect to despise many of their former customs, to which the destructive persecutions of the Mahomedans only served to rivet their affections; they, however, rather copy the follies than the virtues of Europeans, and endeavour to excel them in luxury and expence, rather than in knowledge. They have acquired the same freedom of behaviour, without the generosity and independence of spirit; and they are more eager in the acquirement of riches, without the same enterprize and honesty of principle. To over-reach the stranger by the lowest artifices of despicable chicane and intrigue, is considered by the trading Hindoo as his calling. If the passions have not the same influence over him as over the more vigorous and impetuous European, the influence of the virtues is still less; if he is less quick in resenting injuries, he is utterly in-

Digitized by Google

sensible to every feeling of gratitude. To vegetate in sloth is the delight of the Hindoo, and he is never roused to exertion but by the calls of necessity, or to gratify his ruling passion, avarice. He is dastardly in spirit, and will seldom stand a contest with an open foe, but is rather inclined to injure his enemy secretly. When transported with anger, he vents his rage with feminine impotence, in the vilest and foulest reproaches; but this fury is quickly damped, if likely to be resented by force."

Justly is it observed by Mr. Newnham, that that country can never be called civilized, where 'the priest stands before the altar of his idol, his hands reeking with the blood of the newly slaughtered victim; whose laws permit the son to expose to the flood the being who gave him birth, when oppressed by years, and unable to labour for the support of life;* where the youthful widow is compelled to finish a short life upon the pile of her deceased husband, or else must survive his loss in ignominy or servitude; and where the woman who has long been barren, offers her first born to her god, by exposing it to the birds and beasts of prey, or suffering it to be carried away by the flood of the Ganges!" Will it be credited, that several of these unnatural cruelties were perpetrated in the presence of Europeans, at the last Hindoo festival in the island of Saugor, in December 1801?

"The only effectual expedient for the improvement of this idolatrous and deluded people, appears to be the civilizing influence of the christian religion. It is, perhaps, too audacious an attempt for philosophy or human policy. Philosophy, indeed, has already acknowledged that the difficulties of the attempt appear insuperable; but though the superstitions of the natives are certainly great obstacles to the propagation of truth, these superstitions are not to be deemed invincible. We cannot believe that the Hindoos are an exception to the human race. History affords many instances of nations who have yielded up their ancient and inveterate prejudices to the truth of the gospel. Besides, it is a fact, that this very country has felt its power, and that there are numerous classes of the natives who profess obedience to the christian faith.

"Protection from prosecution for religious opinion, is the chief encouragement to the investigation of truth; and it is not wonderful, that little success followed the cruelties of the Portugueze, and their persecuting zeal. This protection is now afforded by the British government. The dissenting Hindoo may be expelled from his cast, but no violence can be used against his person, and his rights, as a subject, remain unimpaired. This protection, and the general mildness of the British government, must in time animate the natives to make some attempt to share with us in the daily evident benefits of general knowledge. The reflection of mind necessary for the attainments of general knowledge, will lead them to the examination of principles. Truth and its evidence will then be displayed to their view; and, in this way, we may hope that their superstitions will gradually lose strength, and in time disappear."

We shall not have occasion to dwell long on the theses contained in this volume; they are three in number.† The first was pronounced in the Persian language, by Mr. Lovett, on this position: "An academical institution in India is advantageous to the natives and to the British nation." This subject is so nearly the same with that of the first three essays already noticed, that we shall be excused from enlarging on it. We cannot pass it over, however, without a compliment to the extensive reading displayed by our orator. It was opposed by Mr. C. Lloyd, and Mr. G. D. Guthrie; the moderator was Lieut. John Baillie, professor.

The second disputation was held in the Bengal language. Mr. Martin defended this position: "The Asiatics are capable of as high a degree of civilization as the Europeans." In his essays, Mr. Martin had more than once acknowledged the co-operative influence of climate: here he thinks it necessary to retract a little; but it really was not necessary, at least according to our theory on the subject. If the Hindoos were left entirely to themselves, it is probable that ages might roll away before they would extricate themselves from the shackles in which their Brahmins bind them; if they made any advance towards civilization, the motions, like that of the hour-hand of a watch, would be too slow to be perceived. Mr. Martin is obliged to look about for extraneous assistance, for the introduction of christianity. If there be one more distinguishing feature

* In China infanticide is allowed and practised; but Sir George Staunton tells us, that a child is bound to support his parents in distress, the brother his brother, and so on; even the most distant kinsman has a claim upon his relation. To this obligation Sir George attributes the exclusion of mendicity from the empire.—Rev.

† They are printed in the original language, and a translation is annexed to each.—Rev.

Digitized by Google

among christian nations, says he, than another, it is the intelligence and spirit of enquiry which pervades them all; every thing that relates to the animal, intellectual and moral worlds, has there been sifted and explored, and arts the most useful to mankind have been discovered. The flame of science, once kindled, has been communicated to every description of men among whom christianity has been known, and every succeeding age has added something to the limits of the former, while throughout every country where mahometanism is professed, the same deep pause has been made in philosophy. This, he continues, appears the only way in which we can account for the decline of eastern knowledge, and it is only from the sun of christianity that we can look for the dissipation of this awful gloom. To all this we very heartily assent; but surely it is not necessary to detract an atom from the influence of climate, in order to allow that it may be counteracted by the combined influences of christianity on the one hand, and of British government and British laws on the other.

The position of this thesis was opposed by Mr. Bayley and Mr. Hodgson; the moderator was W. C. Blaquiere, esq.

The third disputation was held in the Hindoostanee language; the position is, that "The Hindoostanee language is the most generally useful in India." It was defended by Mr. Bayley. Owing to the intercourse of the merchants of Arabia with this country, but particularly to the frequent invasion of it, and ultimate settlement in it by the Moosulmans, a considerable number of Arabic and Persian words became engrafted on the original and current language of the natives, which was the Sunscrit or Bhakha; of these three languages, then, the present Hindoostanee is compounded. The court of Delhi having made choice of it, as the medium in all affairs depending on colloquial intercourse, it became more extensively known, and was at length used universally in the courts of the Moosulman princes. Mr. Bayley makes a division of it into three dialects, varying according to the prevalence of one or other of the languages composing it; which dialects arose, he says, from the different degrees of intercourse and communication between the Moosulmans and the natives. In the first or pristine dialect, there is a smaller admixture of foreign words; hence this is more nearly related to the original dialects of the country. In the second, or what Mr. Bayley calls the familiar dialects, the number of foreign words bears nearly an equal proportion to the original ones. In the third, or court dialect, Arabic and Persian words are by far the most numerous. It is a little singular, that the language which Mr. Bayley designates by the appellation of the Hindoostanee, should, according to his own account, be only a dialect of it; it is to this third or court dialect that he seems to restrict the term. I grant, says he, that peculiar *dialects* are spoken by the inhabitants of several districts and provinces of India, yet I assert that no one *of them* is so generally useful and necessary as the Hindoostanee; nor will this assertion appear to be too bold, when it be considered that however extensive a country may be, and how numerous soever the dialects spoken in it, still the language of the court and metropolis will always be most generally known and understood, and must of consequence be that most worthy of attention and cultivation by foreigners. Mr. Bayley establishes his proposition, among others, by the following arguments;

"In the whole of the vast country of Hindoostan, scarce any Moosulman will be found, who does not understand and speak the Hindoostanee.

"Every Hindoo also, of any distinction, or who has the least connection either with the Moosulman or the British government, is, according to his situation, acquainted more or less with this language.

"It is moreover the general medium by which many persons of various foreign nations settled in Hindoostan, communicate their wants and ideas to each other. Of the truth of this indeed we ourselves are an evidence, as well as the Portugueze, Dutch, French, Danes, Arabs, Turks, Greeks, Armenians, Georgians, Persians, Moghuls, and Chinese.

"In almost all the armies of India, this appears to be the universally used language; even though many of the individuals composing them be better acquainted with the dialects peculiar to their respective districts.

"Nearly from Cape Comorin to Kabool, a country about 2000 miles in length, and 1400 in breadth, within the Ganges, few persons will be found in any large villages or towns, which have ever been conquered or much frequented by Moosulmans, who are not sufficiently conversant in the Hindoostanee; and in many places beyond the Ganges, this language is current and familiar."

To these facts it is added, that although the Hindoostanee language does not boast of many prose compositions or

works of science, yet that many elegant tales and beautiful poems are composed in it. Commercial, military, and political correspondence is carried on in it; the instructions of the learned natives, and all their disputations and arguments on subjects of literature, are conducted in it; and in every case where a native wishes either to compose or to dictate any thing to be written, he constantly arranges his ideas, and explains his meaning in the Hindoostanee. The position was opposed by Mr. Lovett and Mr. Lloyd; the moderator was John Gilchrist, Esq.

After the full account which we have given of the contents of this volume, we have but little to say relative to its general merits. The essays are certainly not of the highest order of excellence: the importance of the subjects proposed, would have sanctioned much ampler and more comprehensive dissertations. They are, nevertheless, extremely respectable: it will be recollected that they are the production of students, who, as they ascend the hill of science, will have a more extended horizon open to their view. Their annual essays, too, serve the important purpose of directing their attention to those topics which are most likely to repay their studies, with the gratitude and attachment of the natives, who are submitted to their government, and with the confidence and esteem of their employers the honourable company in Great Britain.

"Those," says Mr. Barlow, in his address to the students on the distribution of prizes and honorary rewards; "those who are yet but imperfectly acquainted with the nature and objects of that institution, will learn with equal surprize and satisfaction, that students recently arrived in India, have this day ably maintained a public disputation in the Oriental languages.

"The establishment of the college of Fort William has already excited a general attention to Oriental languages, literature, and knowledge, which promises to be productive of the most salutary effects, in the administration of every branch of the affairs of the honourable company in India. The numerous and important benefits to be derived from this institution, cannot, however, be justly estimated from the experience of the short period of one year, which has elapsed since it commenced its operations. But, if succeeding years shall exhibit advantages proportionate to those which have been already manifested, this institution will realize the most sanguine expectations which have been entertained of its success."

Under the auspicious government of the Marquis of Wellesley, it will long be remembered, that Seringapatam was stormed and taken, and the power of the mighty Sultaun of Mysore annihilated, by the death of Tippoo; nor will it be forgotten, that an equal praise belongs to him, as the regenerator of India, by the foundation of the college of Fort William. We cannot close this article better than in the words of Mr. Lovett: "May his genius, as it at first conceived the undertaking, long continue to watch over and protect it! May the learning and virtue, of which he is an example, long flourish within its walls! And may its effects be seen to the latest ages, in the peace, happiness, and prosperity of this invaluable appendage to the British empire: increased strength to its domestic resources, and increased glory to its illustrious name!"

ART. VII. *The Tourifications of Malachi Meldrum, Esq. of Meldrum Hall. By Dr.* ROBERT COWPER. 12mo. Two vols. about 450 pages.

IT has been said, probably with truth, that there are few persons who at some period or other of life have not experienced a desire to visit foreign countries, and compare the manners of different people with the manners of their own countrymen. Malachi Meldrum, esquire, for a number of years had been periodically seized with a vehement desire of this sort—immediately after turnip-sowing. It might have been well, perhaps, if some of our young gentry, who have squandered so much of their time and money in making the "Grand Tour," had paused and cogitated upon the propriety of the thing, like Malachi Meldrum, esquire, of Meldrum-Hall, before they made up their mind upon it. This prudent gentleman paused and cogitated, year after year, till an accidental glance at the family looking-glass revealed to him the ominous existence of three or four grey hairs on his forehead; this discovery, together with the silent but expressive eloquence of Mrs. Dorothy Meldrum and the children, who, from some unguarded soliloquies which escaped him, had suspected that something was working in the mind of Malachi, at length contracted the intended

sphere of his peregrinations, and determined him to content himself with an unexpensive and less perilous tourification in his own country.

Notwithstanding this change of his plan, it was sometime before he could summon courage to disclose it to his family: Mr. Meldrum became reserved, and lost all his wonted hilarity. This state of restraint, so unnatural to him, however at length grew intolerable, and one Saturday evening after supper was the appointed period for the important disclosure: "an unusual taciturnity bordering upon gloom, hung over the fireside;" but Mr. Meldrum taking an extraordinary pull or two of Dorothy's October felt himself so stout, that after a conciliating glance of affection towards his wife, the affair at last came out, and met with less opposition than might reasonably have been anticipated. Indeed it must be acknowledged that he shewed a good deal of generalship in not suffering the enemy to rally his forces after the shock of the first onset: an extra tankard of October, and the promise of bringing home for the girls a load of fine things, had considerable effect. Conversation was not suffered to flag, and Malachi, who has a remarkably sweet voice, and is exempt from that vice which is common to singers, of declining to gratify their friends, or requiring so much solicitation as to take away all the merit of assenting, proposed at the very first pause in conversation to sing his wife her old favourite song,

"My dear,' said I, lifting the tankard half way to my head, and replacing it softly on my knee, as if something very important was pressing upon me; 'my dear,' said I, 'suppose I sing you your old favourite, the Forsaken Shepherd; I am much mistaken if it had not a little influence with somebody some years agone; a slight leer accompanied this; and I find my voice in fine pitch for the Yellow-hair'd Laddie to night. Dorothy's handkerchief was replaced in her pocket, and the corner of her apron was also carelessly thrown aside. The song, to be sure, was main long; but that I had in view, as I was sure my audience would be fast asleep before I fairly got through the half of it. She accepted the offer as a compliment, with much kindness and gratitude; and I proceeded singing, and saying, as I saw best befitting my audience or non-audience.

"The Forsaken Shepherd.

"The sair-hearted Sandy aside the bare tree
Sat sighing and sabbing, and the tear in his ee;
And though chill blew the blast, and fast fell the snaw,
He sang to the desart his lassie awa'.
O, why are ye good, and why are ye fair?
My red swoln ee will see you nae mair;
Ye ha'e left me to weep, and ye ha'e left me to die;
And the lads a' around join in sorrow wi' me.

"Nae mair on our hills will thy smiles chase awa'
The deep groan of grief, and the tears as they fa';
The pale furrow'd cheek in its want shall consume;
And the pipe shall be heard nae mair in the broom.
The lasses may sing, and dance trim on the green,
When ye, O nae langer amang them are seen:
The best form o' beauty nae mair shall divide
The bonny young lad and his bonny young bride.

"But a' things bring sorrow and sadness to me:
My life drew its spark from the beam o' thy ee;
Now it falls like the leaves strew'd alang the black burn,
Since my lassie wi' summer nae mair will return.
But ay, be thou happy, and the best on the green,
May thy bonny laddy ilk morning be seen;
Though I maun lament to the rain and the snaw,
Thy charms and thy goodness for ever awa."

On Monday morning, then, Malachi Meldrum upon Habby, duly caparisoned, and his man Shadrach, equipped with his master's portmanteau upon Black Tom, set off upon his tourification. It was a fine morning, and the scenery brought to his rememblance some Scottish stanzas, which many years before he had penned, for the amusement of Dorothy and the bairns; we cannot transcribe the whole, but there is so much accuracy and life in some of the descriptive passages, that we are tempted to select a few stanzas.

"But O its cauld—nae chirping bird
The snaw shaks frae its wing;
Wee sits thou quivering in the bush,
And hears the tempest sing.

"Thy wee bit feathers stand on end;
Thy wings hing o'er thy feet;
Nae leaf's to turn yon wintry wind,
Or shade the frae the sleet.

"The lammy, frisky on the know,
He waits a safer morn;
For heavy, heavy, hing the flakes,
Iced on the bending thorn.

Digitized by Google

"Its louder yet—thou dreadfu' storm,
Thou bursts thy ruthless way;
And, whiring round the ilka cloud,
Lets in the morn sae bla!

"Dread was the night—and dread's the morn;
Whare's a' the hours o' May?
Whan will ye spread your bonny leaf,
And gie us unco' day?

"When will ye spread your bonny leaf?
When sprinkle round your dew?
And frae thy thorn, my bonny rose,
Thee shall I ever pu'!

"Again the cock!—you curling reek
Rows up the louring sky;
And labour's early, glimmering lamp,
Blinks welcome on my eye.

"Strong the cauld chilling arm o' death
Seem'd o'er the warld to reign:
Thou cheery taper! thy sma' beam
Gies us a warld again.

"O toil! ye smooth the care-worn bed;
The heather's like the down;
The pillow that bears up thy head
Is safter than a crown.

"O hear ye, frae yon turf-clad ha',
The morning hymn sae fine!
Hear ye the father's orison,
Sae humble, sae divine!

"In joy and peace he welcom'd night;
In joy and peace he raise:
The blazing ingle o' the morn
Bad a' be pray'r and praise.

"Blyth shines the face, strong beats the heart,
Warm'd wi' a soul like thine:
Thy life, thy hope, my hoary carl!
Thy life, thy hope, be mine."

After some ludicrous adventures our travellers arrive safe and sound at the Saracen's Head, where they stop to breakfast.

"Having got this extraordinary affair off my hands, and also got the waiter's news, in order to give Shadrach half an hour more to furbish up his buckskin breeches to his satisfaction by the kitchen fire, I thought it would not be amiss to take a small stroll through the town, in the proper stile and spirit of a tourificator. Though I had been in the same town almost every week of my life, and had been again and again in almost every hole and pore in it; yet in a scientific point of view I found I knew nothing at all about it.

"Partly for my amusement, and partly with a view to qualify myself for this mighty expedition, I had in the Re Rustica-way travelled down from Old Varro and Columella, to Young and Anderson; I had thumbed over the pages of Cronstedt and Linné; and many a weary winter night had I turned over the elaborate pages of the renowned Dr. Adam Smith. It was now my time to turn these studies to some account, by adding farther to my own stock, or by bestowing knowledge and information where it seemed to be lacking among others.

"Accordingly I sallied forth, staff in hand: and wherever the sound of the hammer, or the treddles, or even the whistling of a taylor was to be heard, thither I bent my steps. The blacksmith, necessarily situated near the Saracen's Head, first attracted my attention; and I entered the smithy with a countenance formed, as well as I could, both to conciliate respect, and to inspire confidence. The blacksmith, resting his elbow upon the lever of the bellows, exchanged a pinch with me. He satisfied me as to the angle a hobnail ought to be pointed to; and he was loud and long on the general abuse and cruelty of fitting the horse's foot to the shoe with vile heels, &c. instead of fitting the shoe to the foot. 'And, as to the farrier-business,' added he, 'as a shoer of horses, I am obliged, from old custom, and in spite of my teeth, to be a practitioner; but it would be a blessed tenderness to all horses, ill or well, for they are both subject to the farrier, either to prevent, or remove diseases; —that both farrier and groom should have a mark put upon them at the market-cross.' In recompence for this, and a great deal more, I gave him a chemical dissertation upon iron, and the easiest and cheapest modes of exciting heat; and I shewed him how his forge, which was like something hastily and temporarily reared up in the corner of a waste house, might be Rumfordized to the greatest possible advantage.

"Passing on, my weaver had just thrown Paine's Age of Reason into the little basket at his elbow, which held his pins; and thumping away at his loom, was silently unsaying all that his pious father and mother had taught him. On talking to him about the beautiful and immense labours of the loom, he gravely uttered, 'that while the minds of men were hampered with creeds and confessions, and while civil liberty, pressed to death by aristocratical statutes and edicts, existed only in name, we can look for nothing,' said he, 'but grovelling imperfection in the operations either of the soul or of the body of man.' This last word he pronounced with prodigious emphasis. My hour of politics and polemics not being yet come, I endeavoured to divert the attention of the weaver to his warp and woof, by remarking, that though the loom had existed since the days of Tubal-Cain—the weaver looked at Tom Paine, and then at me—Dedalus, I mean, said I, and had, no doubt, in so many thousand years, undergone divers alterations and improvements, yet much remained to be done, and much might be expected in this age of ingenuity; and I did

Digitized by Google

not despair of living to see the day when the shuttle would be the only fixed part in the loom, and all the other machinery whirled round it by water or by steam. The weaver never hesitated at the possibility or impossibility of my scheme; but it immediately occurred to him, that if the thing actually took place, the whole race of weavers would be starved, nay extirpated; whereupon he laid his shuttle softly upon the web, mended a broken thread, imposed silence upon his heels, and commenced a most vehement philippic against his brethren of mankind, whose ingenuity, he said, was only exercised in abominable contrivances to degrade, and to lessen the numbers of mankind, thereby rendering them the more manageable: and in the heat of his indignation he swore most furiously, that all the wars of modern times were carried on for this very purpose.

"The loom thus got out of sight again, and so far too, that I concluded it impossible to bring her again into action; and as I have a mortal aversion to anger, and all profane swearing, I quietly wished my weaver, with all his souls, a good morning.

"I directly crossed over the street to where I saw a tailor on his shop-board, enlivened by the morning sun, and seemingly at peace with all the world, chanting an old Scots song, his work seemingly going on all the better for it: to be sure I had little to expect here from my merry taylor, for the purpose of a tourificator, and as little to give, where a pair of scissars, a thimble, and a needle, constituted the principal apparatus of the artist. I was therefore a good deal at a loss how to proceed; but a good song being always a good thing, and also transferable to Meldrum-hall; and as I also stood in no little need of something to adjust my nervous system after the weaver's analysis of modern politics; so with as little ceremony as possible, I leaned myself on the shop-board, and begged the taylor not to be interrupted in his song, which, beside being very beautiful, I said, was quite new. The lad, not at all disconcerted, took his pinch of snuff, and set his arm vigorously a-going again, saying 'it was a new thing he had somehow picked up, written, he understood, by a gentleman in the neighbourhood;' and, added he, 'all people did nothing but talk good of that lady before she left this country; a curse upon that England, it takes away all our best folks.' Little did my taylor know he was making his best eulogium on one of my best friends, and who, if she mixed more with the world, with her incomparable talents and elegance, would carry the world before her; but that seems not much to be bragged of, and I dare say she has chosen the better part. While I was apostrophising thus, the taylor was going on—'As you seem to like the song, sir, I will begin it again.' My bow, and my thanks, and a new threaded needle, set him a going.

"*L. M. S.'s Farewell to the Highlands.*"

"Ye mountains sae grey, which hide the blue heav'ns;
Ye hills green wi' birk, and spangled wi' dew;
Ye rivers which mix your wild voice wi' the morning;
O must I, sweet highlands! must I bid you adieu!
And then, in thy forest's sae braid-mantling bosom,
Sweet cottage, where pleasure and happiness dwell?
Must I, wet wi 'tears, my bonny Kinrara!
O must I for ever—can I bid thee farewell!

"Farewell then, dear highlands—O farewell, Kinrara;
Ye sons of the hills, a long, long adieu!
How long your Comala O will ye remember,
Far parted I'll sigh on Kinrara and you.
Bleat on, then, ye lammies; and proud in your forests
Be thy steps, thou gay roe, and thine, bounding deer!
Sweet Spey, on thy banks, and thy far-gathering waters,
May happiness shine, and be mine the last tear.

"Here a most inviting opportunity offers, were I to adhere to the foots teps of my brethren of the staff, to thrust in a disquisition concerning the Scottish music, and to follow it up with ample eulogium; but reserving this till a season when I have more materials about me, and when I have not a musical taylor at my elbow, I shall only observe what surely has, or ought to have been observed long before I was born, that every singer, public as well as private, ought to be bodily employed during their performance. I am certain my little taylor would not have sung half so well had he been sitting prim and erect in his chair, with all his needles sticking idle in his sleeve; and what is it but this which makes the lass's melody at her wheel, and the young lady's with her netting by the parlour fire so pleasing."

The knight of the thimble tipt him another ditty, and no one knows how long this pastoral contest might have lasted—for Mr. Meldrum was tuning his pipe to the taylor, if an unlucky accident had not spoiled all their singing. Snip's brother was a great chemister, and could talk of nothing but the Priestlands and the Lavoshys, of oxheads, and carbunns, and fluggistone; he was at this very time trying some unlucky experiment, and it so happened, that with the inflammability of his gas, and the combustibility of his apparatus, he had set fire to his laboratory: the fire ex-

Digitized by Google

tending to the taylor's shop, &c. &c. Mr. Meldrum, however, made his escape, and in his hurry mistook his road to the Saracen's Head. Now this incident certainly does not speak much in favour of his active benevolence. Nero, we are told, amused himself with fiddling while Rome was burning: Mr. Meldrum, instead of working at the bucket, took to his heels till he found a resting place which commanded a lonely and romantic view; and while the taylor's shop-board was in flames amused himself, *it being the summer season*, with the recitation of a descriptive Ode to Winter! However, we are not disposed to quarrel with him; a hundred brawny arms could be found to pump the fire-engine, and in sorrow be it spoken, few are the singers who strike the lyre with the same spirit, delicacy, and feeling of Malachi Meldrum, esquire. Our tourificator's range is not a very extensive one: his musical meditations are interrupted by the appearance of a gentleman of the old school, Mr. Shuttlethrow the weaver, with whom he holds much sapient conversation on divers subjects of policy and commerce. To this delay succeeds another by an unexpected meeting with one of the most bewitching little madcaps in the world, Miss Watson, who draws him away with her to dinner, so that we really arrive at the end of one of the two volumes before Mr. Meldrum has discharged his first morning's breakfast bill at the Saracen's Head!

Evils seldom come alone, as the saying is: Malachi will never get back to the inn. First the weaver stops him and talks politics, then that fascinating gipsey, Miss Watson, sings songs to him, and by and by comes the parson, who is also a bit of a poet, and discusses literary subjects. The parson indeed is a heterodox sort of a gentleman—not in his religion but his literary creed: who, of all writers in the world, should he fall foul of but of Virgil? That Virgil was a flatterer is very true, poets very commonly are so—now, do not let Mr. Meldrum have the slightest suspicion that we make any personal allusion, that we mean to remind him of his own well-merited eulogies on the reigning monarch, and on his prime minister, Henry Addington, esquire—Virgil too was a notorious imitator. But did not he improve upon his originals? Is not the Georgics, without exception, the most correct and polished poem in existence, and may we not presume that the Æneid would have come down to us in a more finished form had the author lived to correct his manuscript?

The parson, too, has a mind to revive the old controversy on the authenticity of Ossian's poems; or more properly, perhaps, he has arbitrated between the parties, and settled the business by splitting the difference. His statement of the case is probably a very just one, that Macpherson collected a great number of original fragments, "and, aided by a man of ability, superior it was believed to his own, he arranged into an epic what was possible, and it is to their honour that our feebleness appears to denounce the patch-work. Those poems which had little connection with Fingal, or Temora, or where Fingal and Temora could be carried on without them, were published in their insulated state; but I would not aver, says the parson, that the soldering hand had not been upon them too." We are not much disposed to agree with him in opinion, that "an hundred years hence, people may talk about the thing, but they will care little whether James Macpherson, esquire, or Ossian, the son of Fingal, was the bard." People a hundred years hence will, probably, be as anxious as we are to trace the progress of poetry, to mark the periods of its splendor and obscurity, and connect them, as illustrative of the human mind, with the state of society in those particular periods. In this view of the question it was of importance to fix the date of Ossian's poems; Mr. Macpherson has thrown darkness over a subject which it was in his power to have enlightened. Well, well, we must leave Virgil, and Ossian, and Fingal, and Macpherson, and return to our friend Malachi, or we shall be guilty of what, of all things in the world, is most unpardonble, a breach of good manners.

Mr. Meldrum, and the little party who had increased around him, at length reaches the hospitable house of Mr. Watson: after dinner the bottle circulates with sufficient celerity till it is suspended by Captain Hamilton's narrative of the story of Jessy Hawthorn. The character of the Captain's grandfather is admirably drawn, and as to Jesse, let him who can read the tale without emotion, without feeling all his best affections excited, depart into the wilderness.

Before the evening began to close Mr. Malachi was warned by a confounded

twinge in the toe, that he was going to have a fit of the gout, and this put him in mind that he was too far away from Dorothy and the arm chair. So he wisely determined to return to Meldrum Hall. "During my hours of respite, in this same paroxysm," says he, "I put my memorabilia together in such a manner as if they had immediately occurred, lamenting and grieving bitterly all the while, that my tourifications, from which I had promised myself so much renown, as well as entertainment, should have terminated in less than a day, and not more than a dozen of miles from my fireside."

From the specimens we have given, our readers will be able to calculate upon the quantum and degree of amusement they will find in these little volumes. We have been so much gratified with Mr. Meldrum's remarks on men and manners, with his characters and observations, and have been so much delighted with the poetical effusions which flow from him so freely, that he has our hearty good wishes for a speedy recovery from his gout, and we trust that he will extend his peregrinations to some different quarter.

Mr. Meldrum is a good-natured sort of a gentleman, and therefore he will not be offended with us if we advise him in future to pay a little more attention to grammatical accuracy. In our last extract *of* is twice used for *for*: *would* and *should* are perpetually changing places, and in the poetry, *singular* and *plural* are not always confined to their proper limits.

ART. VIII. *The Wanderer; or a Collection of original Tales and Essays, founded upon Facts; illustrating the Virtues and Vices of the present Age. In which are introduced the oriental Travels of a learned Mahometan of the last Century. Interspersed with original Poetry.* By CHARLES FOTHERGILL, *Esq.* 12mo. 2 vols. about 300 pages each.

THE incidents of some of these tales are amusing enough, but they are told in such florid high-flown language, as to border upon the ridiculous. The travels of Abdallah show a considerable acquaintance with the manners, customs, and superstitions of the east. In a very pompous, self-sufficient introduction, the author reprobates the idle trash which is now so widely circulated under the various titles of romances, novels, adventures, &c. as injurious to the cause of virtue. After this affectation of chastity, we were at once surprised and disgusted to meet with some very licentious descriptions and lascivious scenes.

ART. IX. *The Pic-Nic.* 2 vols. 12mo.

COLONEL Greville, the projector of a foolish plan for rendering the follies and dissipations of the higher class more notorious, was the projector also of this foolish paper. It has since changed its name for the Cabinet; but these literary upholsterers, joiners, or cabinet-makers, are miserable workmen.

ART. X. *Cowper illustrated by a Series of Views in or near the Park of Weston-Underwood, Bucks, accompanied with copious Descriptions and a brief Sketch of the Author's Life.* 8vo. pp. 51, and 13 plates.

A Due tribute of respect to a poet most deservedly popular, though not so popular for his merits as his opinions. The prints would have been appropriately inserted in his poems, and the descriptions might have been advantageously curtailed into notes.

ART. XI. *Observations upon Duelling. By an Irish Barrister.* 8vo. pp. 30.

THIS Irish barrister writes the very worst English that we have ever seen, and he reasons as ridiculously as he writes.

ART. XII. *Verulamiana; or Opinions on Men, Manners, Literature, Politics, and Theology. By* FRANCIS BACON, *Baron of Verulam, &c. To which is prefixed a Life of the Author by the Editor.* 12mo. pp. 320.

THIS is merely a selection from the works of Lord Bacon, introduced by a brief biographic sketch. We noticed a similar compilation in the preceding volume of our Review (page 702), and have no other observations to make on the present.

Digitized by Google

ART. XIII. *Beauties of Dr. John Moore, selected from the moral, philosophical, and miscellaneous Works of that esteemed Author, &c. By the Rev.* F. PREVOST and F. BLAGDON, *Esq.* 8vo. pp. 482.

SCRAPS from Dr. Moore's works, thrown together without arrangement. The preface announces a series of such beauties. It would be well if the laws to protect literary property were extended to abridgments, and such mutilations as these.

ART. XIV. *Addisoniana.* 12mo. 2 vols. pp. 502.

THE editor of this publication asserts that more than a thousand volumes have been looked over to supply the materials. They must have been looked over very carelessly if only 343 articles could be collected from them, many of which are mere extracts from the Spectator, and the other works of Addison, and others only repetitions of the same worthless information which is elsewhere in the same volume given under a different title. The original matter consists of a few letters of no great value between Addison and Mr. Wortley, with facsimiles of Addison's writing.

ART. XV. *The Polyanthea; or a Collection of interesting Fragments, in Prose and Verse: consisting of original Anecdotes, Biographical Sketches, Dialogues, Letters, Characters, &c. &c.* 2 vols. 8vo. pp. 808.

AN excellent book for the sofa or the drawing room window-seat: he must have a very fastidious appetite, who does not relish some or other of the various dishes set before him by this industrious editor.

ART. XVI. *Flowers of Literature, for* 1801 *and* 1802. *By the Rev.* F. PREVOST *and* F. BLAGDON, *Esq. vol.* 1. *to be continued annually.* 8vo. pp. about 500.

ONE of the many catchpenny compilations of needy ignorance.

ART. XVII. *A Narrative of the Loss of his Majesty's Packet, the Lady Hobart, on an Island of Ice in the Atlantic Ocean, 28th of June* 1803. *With a particular Account of the providential Escape of the Crew in two open Boats. By* WILLIAM DORSET FELLOWES, *Esq. Commander. Dedicated, by Permission, to the Right Hon. the Postmaster General.* 8vo. pp. 46.

SUCH a narrative as this is no subject for literary criticism: let those who can weep over the imaginary sorrows of the hero of a novel close their volume and turn to the real distresses here exhibited. The following critique is more to the purpose than any we can write:

"We have perused this report with a mixed sentiment of sympathy and admiration. We are satisfied, that in the loss of the packet and of the public correspondence, no blame is imputable to Captain Fellowes, to his officers, or to his seamen. In their exertion after the ship had struck on the floating mass of ice, and in their subsequent conduct, they appear to have shewn all the talents and virtues which can distinguish the naval character.

"Let a proper letter be written in our names to the friends and family of the very worthy French officer who perished. And we shall be solicitous to learn the entire recovery of the other passengers, who met such dangers and sufferings with the most exemplary fortitude.

"Mr. Freeling will return the narrative to Captain Fellowes, with our permission to him to communicate it to his friends; or, if he shall think proper, to give it to the public. It cannot fail to impress on the minds of all who may read it, the benefit of religion, and the consolation of prayer under the pressure of calamity; and also an awful sense of the interposition and mercies of Providence, in a case of extreme peril and distress. To seamen it will more especially shew that discipline, order, generosity of mind, good temper, mutual benevolence, and patient exertion, are, under the favour of Heaven, the best safeguards in all their difficulties.

"With respect to Captain Fellowes, we feel highly gratified in having it in our power so immediately to give to him a promotion, which we have reason to believe will be particularly acceptable.

(Signed) "AUCKLAND.
"*Aug.* 16, 1803. "C. SPENCER."

The French officer here alluded to was Mr. Charles Rossé, who had just been taken prisoner of war before the fatal wreck: in a moment of delirium he sprang overboard and perished. This attention to his friends and family does honour to the British character.

Digitized by Google

ART. XVIII. *The British Essayists; with Prefaces, historical and biographical, and a general Index. By* ALEXANDER CHALMERS, *A. M.* 45 vols. 12mo.

THE works included in this collection are the Tatler, Spectator, Guardian, Rambler, Adventurer, World, Connoisseur, Idler, Mirror, Lounger, and Observer. Great Britain, we believe, is the only country of Europe in which attempts have been made, by means of essays published daily or at short intervals, to purify the morals and refine the manners of the higher and middling classes of society. Some of our ablest writers have contributed largely to this valuable object, and by an engaging mixture of gaiety and seriousness, of wit and argument, have reformed many indecorums, rendered unfashionable many follies, and impeded the progress of many vices. The talents displayed in these publications, the entertainment with which they abound, the morality by which they are dignified, and the illustration which they afford, respecting the state of society and manners which characterised the last century, give them an undoubted claim, to be considered as a permanent part of British literature: notwithstanding, therefore, the numerous separate editions which have appeared of these valuable works, it gives us pleasure to announce to the public a new and uniform impression of the whole carefully corrected from the earliest editions, furnished with a complete general index, and enriched with biographical and historical prefaces.

The Tatler, Spectator, and Guardian, contain more remarks on manners and the state of society, and abound more in allusions to temporary occurrences than any of their successors; but this circumstance, which rendered them more extensively useful on their first appearance, and will make them hereafter of peculiar value to the historian and antiquary, is the very reason why, with the change which society is constantly undergoing, a considerable degree of obscurity will gradually steal over them. The only method of obviating this disadvantage is by the judicious aid of notes to supply the requisite illustrations in proportion as the characters and events referred to, begin to fade from the public mind. We expected to find in the edition before us, that such an obvious duty had not been neglected, and that the researches of Mr. Chalmers would have formed an example and model to the future editors of our essayists; in this hope, however, we have been almost wholly disappointed, the only additional matter being contained in the prefaces which are devoted to biographical sketches and miscellaneous particulars relative to the history of the several works composing the present series.

The preface to the Tatler commences with a general summary, somewhat heavily written, of the topics which have principally attracted the notice of our essayists. To this succeeds a biographical memoir of Steel, and a history of the Tatler, with some account of Swift, J. Hughes, Harrison, and the other occasional contributors to the work.

The success of the Tatler gave birth to no less than thirteen rivals during its publication, and when it was brought to a conclusion a spurious continuation of 52 papers was begun by Swift and Harrison: which so far imposed on the world as to be printed at least three times as the fifth volume of the genuine Tatler, though of very inferior merit and questionable morality.

The Tatler terminated in Jan. 1710, and on the first of March in the same year the Spectator made its appearance. Of this celebrated work, as well as of the Tatler, Steel was the editor; he also furnished the greatest number of the papers. From his friendship with Addison he had derived much valuable assistance in the progress of his former work, and received still more in the present, the amount of the papers attributed from satisfactory evidence to this excellent writer being no less than two hundred and seventy-four. The extensive reputation of the Spectator invited the contributions of several other men, distinguished for rank or abilities; of these the principal were Hughes, author of the Siege of Damascus, Budgell, Pope, Byrom, Lord Hardwick, Parnell, and Bishop Pearce.

The remarks of Mr. Chalmers, on the style and general character of Addison's papers, are very judicious, and his statement concerning the respective shares of Steel and Addison, in the papers relative to the hero of the work, Sir Roger de Coverley, will probably for the future, silence the idle disputes that have arisen respecting the consistency of a character which has been unthinkingly considered

Digitized by Google

by most persons as entirely of Addison's invention.

"Sir Roger was not the creature of Addison's, but of Steel's fancy; and it is not easy to discover why all writers on this subject should appear ignorant of a fact so necessary to be known, and so easily ascertained. In Tickell's edition of Addison's works, and in every subsequent edition, (Dr. Beatie's not excepted) No. 2, is reprinted, but ascribed to Steele, with an apology for joining it with Addison's papers, on account of its connection with what follows. Steele, in truth, sketched the character of every member of the club, except that of the Spectator. The merit, therefore, of what Dr. Johnson calls 'the delicate or discriminated idea,' or 'the original delineation' of Sir Roger, beyond all controversy, belongs to him; and the character of the Baronet, it must be observed, is, in that paper, very different from what Dr. Johnson represents. His 'singularities proceed from his good sense,' not, I allow, a very common source of singularities, in the usual acceptation of that word; and before he was 'crossed in love by the perverse widow, he was a gay man of the town.' And with respect to the care Addison took of the Knight's chastity, and his resentment of the story told of him in No. 410, which is certainly a deviation from the character as he completed it, we may observe, that the original limner represents him as 'humble in his desires after he had forgot his cruel beauty, insomuch that it is reported he has frequently offended in point of chastity with beggars and gypsies,' though he qualifies this by adding, that 'this is looked upon, by his friends, rather as matter of raillery than truth.' He is represented as now in his fifty-sixth year, and the story, therefore, of his endeavouring to persuade a strumpet to retire with him into the country, as related in 410, some think by Tickell, was certainly unnatural.

"The truth appears to have been, that Addison was charmed with his colleague's outline of Sir Roger, thought it capable of extension and improvement, and might probably determine to make it in some measure his own, by guarding, with a father's fondness, against any violation that might be offered. How well he has accomplished this needs not be told: yet he neither laid hold on what he considered as Steele's property, nor did he wish to monopolize the worthy knight. Sir Roger's notion, that 'none but men of fine parts deserve to be hanged;' and his illustration of this curious position, in No. 6, were written by Steele. The first paper, relating to the visit to Sir Roger's country seat, is Addison's, the second Steele's, the third Addison's, and the fourth Steele's; and this last has so much of the Addisonian humour, that nothing but positive evidence could have deprived him of the honour of being supposed the author of it: the same praise may be given to No. 113, also by Steele. The sum of the account, however, is this: Sir Roger's adventures, opinions, and conversation, occur in twenty-six papers: of these Addison wrote fifteen, Steele seven, Budgell three, and Tickell one; if, as is supposed, he was the author of the obnoxious No. 410. It must be observed too, that the widow-part of Sir Roger's history was of Steele's providing, in No. 113, and 118. Addison, no doubt, attended to the *keep* of Sir Roger's character, and Steele, with his usual candour, might follow a plan which he reckoned superior to his own; but it cannot be just to attribute the totality of the character either to the one or the other."

In December 1712, the Spectator having been brought to the end of the seventh volume, was for a time suspended. Steele retired from the editorship, and in March 1713 commenced a new daily series of periodical essays, under the name of the Guardian. Of this paper 175 numbers were published, 71 of which were written by the editor, and exhibit several specimens of his very best manner; 51 came from the pen of Addison, and the remainder were furnished principally by Berkeley, Pope, and Tickell. The political aspect of the times was now becoming very critical, and Steele being a man not only of warm feelings but of extravagant habits, quarrelled with his bookseller, abruptly terminated the Guardian and immediately commenced the Englishman, which, from its political character, has been excluded by Mr. Chalmers from this collection. Soon after Budgell, with the assistance of Addison, resumed the Spectator, a plan in which Steele appears to have had no share. Of this continuation only a single volume was published, to which Addison contributed about a fourth part.

The Hanoverian succession and rebellion of 1715, with its consequences, divided the nation into furious parties, and the advantages of addressing the public, through the medium of periodical essays, being now well understood, a multitude of political works on this plan made their appearance, intermixed occasionally with observations on literature and manners: none of them, however, obtained more than temporary celebrity.

After a long interval, appeared in March 1749 the first number of the Rambler, a work of very considerable intrinsic merit, and displaying surprising vigour of mind in the author, especially when it is considered that the whole of the assistance received by him did not

Digitized by Google

amount to half a dozen essays. Mr. C. has shewn, contrary to the general opinion, that a considerable part of the Rambler was almost, in a manner, re-written, previously to the publication of the second edition, the alterations considerably exceeding 6000. We are by no means disposed to estimate Dr. Johnson's powers, as an essayist, at the same rate which is demanded for them by the present editor. The great and distinguishing merit of this kind of writing is to combine utility with amusement, so as to attract the notice of those to whom sermons and serious books afford no temptation. The Tatler and Spectator were taken in at the coffee-houses, were admitted to the toilette, were the subjects of general conversation; softened in some by their wit and sprightliness, the rude moroseness of the "sterner virtues," and in others inspired a love of decency, of order, of piety, by depicting religion as she appears,

"When gay good-humour dresses her in smiles:"

so that a manifest amelioration of public morals was observed during the publication of these invaluable essays. The sale of the Rambler, on the other hand, when circulated in single papers, never exceeded five hundred, and though its merits were at once acknowledged "by scholars and men of taste," it failed in attracting the notice of those classes in society, whom a well conducted periodical work is peculiarly qualified to influence. The Rambler was published regularly twice a week till March 17, 1752, on which day it closed. In the month of November, in the same year, the Adventurer made its appearance, under the superintendance of Hawkesworth, who was powerfully supported by the abilities of Johnson, Bathurst, and Joseph Warton. Being more accommodated to the public taste, the sale of the Adventurer was considerably greater than that of the Rambler, yet when compared to the older essayists, its literary inferiority is very striking. It extended to 140 numbers, two of which appeared every week. Soon after the commencement of the Adventurer another periodical work, under the name of the World, was instituted by E. Moore; and being largely assisted by men of wit and of fashion as well as of literature, it proved a genuine and worthy successor of the Tatler and Spectator. Its merit was immediately acknowledged by the public, and the sale of above two thousand copies conferred on the editor both celebrity and profit. Lord Chesterfield contributed twenty-three papers of exquisite wit, and Mr. Cambridge twenty-one, replete with delicate humour and good taste. Horace Walpole, Soame Jenyns, Sir James Marriot, the Earl of Orrery, the Earl of Bath, Lord Hailes, and other distinguished characters, furnished occasional assistance, chiefly on subjects of wit and humour, and a few papers on more serious topics, together with that beautiful poem "The Tears of Old May-day," came from the pen of Loveybond.

In 1754 appeared the Connoisseur, almost every paper in which was the joint production of Coleman and Thornton; its characteristic is liveliness, and its highest praise is that of innocent amusement.

The next series of essays in the collection before us is the Idler, originally published in a weekly newspaper, called the Universal Chronicle, from April 1758 till the same month 1760. Of this Dr. Johnson was the main support. Its principal object is entertainment and party-politics, nor did it ever obtain much celebrity.

The Mirror, afterwards continued under the name of the Lounger, began to be published in January 1779, by a society of young men at Edinburgh. These, together with the Observer, by Mr. Cumberland, conclude the selection; and are destitute of the prefatory remarks and biographical anecdotes, which distinguish the former essayists, because most of the writers are yet living.

On the whole Mr. Chalmers has collected a considerable quantity of curious and amusing information, relative to our essayists, and we doubt not that the public will afford him a liberal patronage.

ART. XIX. *Bibliothèque Portative des Ecrivains François; or, Choix des meilleurs Morceaux extraits de leurs Ouvrages. Par* MM. MOYSANT *et* DE LEVISAC. *Second Edition.* Large 8vo. Two vols.

THIS selection is arranged upon the plan of our bulky *Elegant Extracts*, and is too much occupied with long pieces from Racine, Fenelon, Moliere, DeLisle,

Digitized by Google

Voltaire, La Fontaine, J. B. Rousseau, Bruyere, and Buffon; the works of whom are in every one's hands. The editors would be doing a real service to the British public by filling a *single, moderate sized* volume with specimens of the very best manner of those French authors whose writings have as yet scarcely penetrated into this country. Our objections to the mass before us are, that it is much too large, and entirely superfluous to those who are in possession of the classical authors of France: in a moral point of view it is, as far as we have examined it, wholly unexceptionable: to all persons, therefore, it will be an innocent, and to many, a valuable possession.

ART. XX. *Annals of Public Economy: containing Reports on the State of Agriculture, Commerce, and Manufactures, in the different Nations of Europe, for the Year* 1802. *Collected by* HENRY REDHEAD YORKE, *Esq.* 8vo. pp. 550.

FROM the preface it appears, that the author, in a late visit to France, became acquainted with the principal writers on agriculture, statistics, and public economy in Paris; and upon the strength of communications promised by them, began the work at present before us. More than three-fifths of its contents relate to France, and are but of trifling importance to foreigners: the editor characterizes these as "important documents, with which he has been favoured by the Agricultural Society of Paris, and several distinguished members of the National Institute of France:" if, however, he had taken the trouble of inspecting the dull quartos of Peuchet; the Journal des Mines, and other monthly publications, in the French language, he would have procured almost all these "important documents," without laying himself under any obligations to the "distinguished members of the National Institute."

ART. XXI. *The Castle of the Tuileries; or, a Narrative of all the Events which have taken place in the Interior of that Palace, from the Time of its Construction to the* 18*th Brumaire of the Year VIII. Translated from the French, by* FRANCIS LATHOM. 8vo. Two vols. pp. about 800.

THE castle, or rather palace, of the Tuileries, so called from its being situate in a tile-ground, was begun in 1564, by Catharine de Medici, widow of Henry II. of France, and regent of that country during the minority of her son, Charles IX. It was finished by Henry IV., and adorned by Louis XIV., under whom Le Notre directed the plantation of those fine alleys of chesnut, elm, and lime trees, which constitute the favourite public walk of the Parisians. Many good statues were at that time placed in the garden; but the best have been added since the campaigns of Bonaparte. Louis XV. inhabited the palace during his minority; and Louis XVI after his captivity; it is now the residence of the First Consul. The architecture of the building is rather laboured than beautiful: the subordinate parts want magnitude; the whole wants simplicity. The columns are fluted and bandaged, the niches and statues are numerous, the orders of architecture are varied; but the profusion of minute ornament gives a gothic confusion to a structure on grecian principles. The building, however, is vast and imposing: the three pavilions, lifting to the skies their pyramidal roofs, and connected by wings reposing on arcades, form a grand outline; and the station, or implacement, would confer majesty even on an inferior edifice.

Contiguous to the terrace of the garden is situate the riding-school, rendered celebrated by having been fitted up to receive the National Assembly. Hence this spot has become the theatre of many prominent incidents of the Revolution. Of those connected by association of locality with the Tuileries, M. Soulavie (such is said to be the name of the original author) here undertakes a separate account. His power of interesting must depend on the merit of the anecdotes themselves; in which many amusing particulars occur, that had not before been compiled, or at least not evulgated here, and which reflect, if not a steady light, yet checkering gleams of illustration, on the monstrous contour of the Revolution.

The author throws his remarks into the form of dialogue, and of dialogue with an imaginary Count Bedfort, whom he places at Paris on the 10th of August,

Digitized by Google

and whom he accompanies, as cicerone, throughout the castle. It has been surmised that the name should have been printed Beckford, as the Duke of Bedford was in England at the time specified; but we know not if this conjecture be not equally contradicted by proof of alibi.

The translation is executed not merely with fidelity, but with attention: idiomatic and obscure passages are englished with felicity and expounded with research; the style is very free from gallicisms, and very natural, easy and unaffected.

Digitized by Google

CHAPTER XV.

COMMERCE.

ART. I. *A Commercial Dictionary, containing the present State of Mercantile Law, Practice, and Custom; intended for the Use of the Cabinet, the Counting-house, and the Library.* By JOSHUA MONTEFIORE. 4to.

MILITARY manners are favourable to the graces; and to the pleasures of the earlier, though not of the later stages of life. They are easily superinduced on young men; they agreeably exert the body and adorn the person, they require few or no accomplishments of mind, they favour a luxurious idleness and an amusive dissipation; and they excite expectations of danger and renown, which excuse the omission of the prospective virtues, while they indulge the admission of the prospective hopes. But military manners spoil men for commerce. It is a long, a difficult task, the result only of very careful education, to generate habits of industry and frugality; and to infuse that information respecting some given division of commercial labor, which fits a man to excel in it. The overawing inspection, which teaches these habits, commonly superinduces also a certain meekness and shyness, which soon evaporate at drill and at the mess: but with them the industry and the frugality. The pleasures of exhilarating exercise and robust exertion cannot be tasted without infringing on the disposition to submit to confinement. A determination to pursue advancement in life by plodding perseverance is the very reverse of a determination to pursue it by spirited hazard: the first is the commercial, the second the military ambition. It is greatly to be feared therefore that the present danger of the country, which perhaps could not have been adequately met without an interruption of the usual division of labor, will be eventually and permanently mischievous to its commercial character.

"The blessing of Judah and Issachar will never meet (says Lord Bacon with his quaint energy) that the same tribe or nation should be both the lion's whelp, and the ass between burdens. Neither will it be that a people overlaid with taxes should ever become valiant and martial." The apparent incompatibility of heavy taxation and military fashions, which has hitherto been observable, probably arises from the idleness which military life inspires. Soldiers fear danger less than labor, and must not be checked in this, if we would preserve their vigor. But idleness earns little and accumulates nothing, and is to the tax-gatherer more niggardly than avarice. Taxes have seldom been opposed by a soldiery.

If Great Britain was a continental state this exchange of national habits might be not unwise. It would there be essential to national defence: it would there be conducive to the extension of empire. "Perish commerce, live our independence," would have been a rational motto for the states of Holland. But we cannot help suspecting that London might have trusted a little more to its navy, and to its regular army, without incurring so much expence, or hazarding so much prosperity. Keep your shop, and your shop will keep you, says Dr. Franklin, but where master or man are often on parade, 'tis a great chance but the till is poor, for want of watching, or, for want of catching. There are orders, which better deserve attention than those of the commanding officer. The gazettes begin to announce commissions of both sorts for captains and lieutenants. It is no merit to stand at ease before an assignee. One day of industry avails more than a whole week on the porter's wages of a marching volunteer.

It should be understood that courage is the most common gift of nature to animals; that all the military virtues are qualities of easy attainment, which flourish most among barbarians and boys

that to excel in them requires rather training than education, and is not a mark of refinement but of the want of it; that they incroach on the purity of domestic morals and probably on the humanity of the general character; that in all families the idle boy is very rationally flung into the army; and that the more it is left to the lowest classes of the people to supply first soldiers, and then officers from the ranks, the more robust, bold, and trustworthy the troops.

Poets and historians by applauding military exploits, which mostly consist in employing a hundred men to beat ninety, have given a *ton* and a reputation to soldiering, which prompts nations to the most destructive and rebarbarizing actions, which bodies of men can commit. Let the army take its natural place as the basis not the pinnacle of civilized society.

To productive industry on the concontrary public opinion assigns an inferior rank and a secondary value. Yet where are we to seek the chosen nests of human happiness and culture but in the cities of the industrious, and the commercial. To Tyre, Corinth, Athens, and Alexandria, not to the Sparta or the early Rome of the ancient world, we turn for the diffusion of ease and the condensation of magnificence, or for the far-fetched refinements of sensual and intellectual luxury. It is to Barcelona, to Florence, to Venice, that the modern world is indebted for the revival of the civilizing arts and the restoration of literary enquiry. It is to Lisbon, to Amsterdam, to London, that the remotest shores of earth owe their novel concatenation and their prospering intercourse.

Nor is commerce less favourable in detail to the best interests of society than on the collective scale of estimation. Commercial men can afford to make early and disinterested marriages. They must put to hazard so much more than a wife's dower, that it is less important to their prosperity to wed a fortune, than to wed a capital unincumbered with settlements and jointures. What is the consequence? that the most accomplished and meritorious women in the country are every where the wives of merchants, the women who are selected not for their property but for their properties. The domestic happiness and interior elegance which results is obvious: whoever compares the families of our city-gentlemen with those of our country-gentlemen must be struck with the far superior character of the former.

There is scarcely a peculiarity in the French character, which may not be traced to the *military* education of their exemplary class, the nobility. At home and by themselves they lived, as at lodgings, hardly attentive to personal cleanliness, not at all to that of the apartment. Every thing had the air of a make-shift, nothing of comfort: madame received you where she was powdering, monsieur in his great coat and slippers. To appear well attired and escorted at balls and public places, were, as in a garrison-town, the pivots of solicitude. Any thing was read, even philosophy, if it assumed the form of a licentious novel. The nuptial bed was invaded with as little ceremony as the women's tent in a camp. Courage, honour, the manners and the prate which conciliate for the hour—these were virtues; but probity and fidelity seemed qualities, which told less among men, who are monthly shifting their quarters.

In legislation again the spirit of the soldier is fatal to liberty and justice. The law of nations begins with the maritime code of Rhodes, the consequence of commerce. The earliest attempts of the Romans at equity and precision in the nicer cases of property begin with the visit of Hadrian to Alexandria, and with what he learnt there of commercial jurisprudence. What of constitutional liberty there is in Europe, has all begun in the corporation-towns, whose elective administrations all grew out of the guilds and purses of the tradesmen, and whose charters were all purchased of the nobility, for the purpose of instituting intelligent and impartial jurisdictions, such as parliaments of land owners knew not how to bestow. The rudiments of civilization were scattered in the north by the Hanseatic cities, who preserved along the edges of Europe some attention to refinement, while the middle zone was trampled into a desert by the feuds of barons, or the wars of kings.

In order to increase the commerce of the country, and it is capable of great increase, an important step is to diffuse a knowledge of the objects with which it is most conversant, and of the places to which it most frequently has recourse. No sudden changes can ever be effected in the habits of nations: a demand once begun may be increased or diminished;

but it is not easily created out of nothing, or annihilated. Hence the legislative encouragement of commerce will usually consist in removing the impediments, which monopoly-companies, injudicious regulations, arbitrary duties, deficient security, or imperfect conveniences, may oppose, rather than in any positive bounty or encouragement to intercourse.

By colonizing the distant situations which promise to become emporiums, a government may, however, lay the foundations of a speedier interchange than the mere adventurous spirit of the merchant would else bring to bear. These it is for the philosophic geographer to indicate.

It is with far more pleasure, therefore, that we meet with a dictionary of commerce than with a dictionary of the art of war: and we congratulate Mr. Montefiore on the taste which leads him rather to lay an offering on the shrine of the creative than of the destructive power. This work contains a well-made selection of geographical articles, which describe the situations and productions of the principal trading places; and a very instructive legal explanation of those terms and cases with which commercial men are likely to wish to become acquainted. A convenient specimen, inasmuch as it includes some legal and some geographical articles, will be those included between Bargain and Berbice.

"*Bargain*, a contract or agreement in buying and selling. Most contracts and bargains in trade, between merchant and merchant, are negotiated by brokers. See *Agreement*, *Brokers*.

"*Bark*, a general denomination given to small vessels, but which is particularly appropriated to those which carry three masts without a mizen-top-mast. The colliers distinguish by this name a ship without ornament on the prow or stern.

"*Baroche*, a town of Cambaya, in the dominions of the Great Mogul. It was formerly a place of great trade, and it is now inhabited by weavers and manufacturers of cotton cloth. Here is raised the best cotton in the world, and excellent bastas are manufactured. The English and Dutch had formerly factories here, which are now abandoned.

"*Barratry*, is where the master of a ship or the mariners defraud the owners or insurers, whether by running away with the ship, sinking her, deserting her, or embezzling the cargo. See *Shipping*, *Marine Insurance*.

"*Barter*, an exchange of one species of goods for another, which was the original method of trading before money was in use, and is still practised in the American colonies, and parts where cash is scarce. The extreme facility given to commerce by money has almost put an end to barter or exchange of articles, except in so far as mercantile men set off their reciprocal demands, when there are such, previous to paying the balance in money. This, if the term may be used, is a half species of barter. The articles are bartered in so far as they pay for each other without the intervention of money. Thus, in one sense, it is barter, but in another it is not, as the value of each article is reckoned in money, and not estimated by a certain quantity of the others.

"The species of barter now most practised in this country is amongst tradesmen in the building line, who execute work for work to a great extent, each setting off his labour and materials at certain prices, called *measuring value prices*. By this means a tradesman, who only does one branch of building, may undertake a complete construction, and have a profit on the whole by doing business in his own line for the different persons employed.

"The invention of money has not altogether put an end to barter, yet it has entirely prevented it from appearing in its real form in the books of merchants, as each article is stated there in its money value, and each sale is supposed to be paid for in the circulating medium of the country, even in cases where no money whatever is made use of in the transaction.

"*Basle*, *Balle*, or *Basil*, the capital of one of the Swiss cantons, which bears its name; being nearly in the centre of Europe makes it a sort of centre for the business of exchange, and for drawing and re-drawing. It is famous for letter-press printing, and in general its centrical situation gives it an advantage in whatever is of a nature to be generally distributed in Europe: and there are in it numbers of commercial houses that act as agents, and on commissions for merchants of different nations.

"*Bassora*, *Balsora*, or *Basrah*, is situated on a river named by the Arabians *Schat el Arab*, which is formed by the union of the Euphrates and Tigris. This place is rich, and of greater trade than any one in Arabia Deserta; its possession was a long time disputed by the Arabians, Persians, and Turks, but the last remained masters of it.

"Bassora, like Bender Abassi, gained considerably by the destruction of Ormus, and here are now seen ships from all parts of Asia and Europe; and the English and Dutch in particular make a considerable figure, having their factors here to transact business, and dispatch their letters by land, which is done by way of Damascus and Aleppo. The Portugueze also have a settlement here, though they make little advantage of it.

"Almost all the trade passes through the

Digitized by Google

hands of the Indians, Persians, and Armenians. The caravan of Bassora is one of those that carries to Bender Abassi a part of those rich goods with which that trade is supported; and the same caravan brings back, in return, the products of India, China, Japan, and Europe, of which Bender is depository, staple, or storehouse for Persia and the three Arabias.

"Besides this commerce with Bender Abassi, and that which Bassora maintains on the sea coast with the Indians, Moors, and Europeans, whose ships arrive here every monsoon, this city has also a very considerable one with Bagdat, which is not at a great distance, and is commodiously seated for a transportation of its commodities by the Tigris; and the same with Aleppo and the rest of the Ottoman empire in Asia, whence caravans set out, and a part of them always destined for Bassora.

"*Bavaria*, one of the circles of the German empire, adjoining to Austria and Bohemia; a mountainous country, containing various mines of copper, and some of silver, besides quarries of marble. This circle is divided into three principal provinces; the electorate, subdivided into Upper and Lower Bavaria, the Upper Palatinate, and the Archbishopric of Saltzburg. The revenues of the elector arise principally from a monopoly of the salt, corn, and strong beer consumed in the country or exported. The article of tobacco also the elector engrosses to himself. He also enjoys certain tolls on the Danube, and other navigable rivers. The subject, however, is miserably impoverished by these monopolies, insomuch as the peasants make their chief subsistence from the herds of swine fed in the woods. Here is a great deal of valuable fir timber

"*Bayonne*, in the south of France, seated near the mouth of the river Adden, which forms a good harbour. The trade of this town is considerable on account of its contiguity to Spain, and the wines brought thither from the adjacent country. The Dutch take a large quantity of wine in exchange for spirits and other commodities. This place is also famous for hams and chocolate.

"*Bazar*, the name for a market-place in all parts of the Levant, as well as in Egypt, Persia, and the East Indies. The bazars of Ispahan and Tauris, in Persia, are of great extent, the latter particularly, which contains above 15,000 shops.

"*Beacon*, a signal made by a fire on some eminence near the sea, to give notices of invasions, and which no man may set up without lawful warrant and authority, this being a branch of the royal prerogative, and which is usually vested in the lords of the admiralty. Beacons are also placed as marks either on land or on rocks, to indicate to vessels how to steer. By 8th Elizabeth, c. 13, the masters, wardens, and assistants of the Trinity House, may set up beacons and marks for the sea, in such places near the coasts or forelands as to them shall seem meet. And any person who shall take or cut down any steeple, tree, or other known and established thing standing as sea marks, shall forfeit 100l. and on non-payment, be *ipso facto* outlawed. See *Light-houses, Trinity-house.*

"*Beaucaire*, a city of Languedoc, in France, situated on the Rhone; famous for a fair, which is held every year on the 22d of July, and though it only lasts three days, is attended by people from all parts of Europe, and where every sort of article known in commerce almost may be found.

"In the way of barter and exchange, the usual business done does not fall much short of half a million sterling, besides about 250,000l. more in ready money.

"Beaucaire is about 20 miles from the Mediterranean sea, and consequently communicates easily with all the countries on its borders, and, by the canal of Languedoc, with a great part of the interior of France and the ocean.

"*Beer*. See *Customs, Excise, Exportation, Importation.*

"*Belfast*, a town in the county of Antrim, in Ireland, which has a considerable trade, particularly in linen.

"*Belgrade*, a city of Turkey, in Europe, and capital of Servia, seated on the confluence of the Save and the Danube. Its rivers are convenient for commerce, and, as the Danube falls into the Black Sea, the trade is easily extended to different countries, which renders it the staple town in these parts, and the Danube flowing to Vienna, commodities are equally conveyed from thence The shops are but small, and the sellers sit on tables, and dispose of their commodities out of a window, for the buyers never go inside. The richest merchandizes are exposed to sale in two bezesteins or bazars, built crossways. There are two exchanges built with stone, and supported by pillars, not unlike the Royal Exchange at London.

"*Benares*, one of the first cities of the East Indies, situated on the north bank of the Ganges. It carries on a considerable commerce, particularly in silks and cotton cloths, both plain and coloured. Here are a number of commodious caravanseras, in which the commodities are exposed for sale; and as they are sold by the manufacturers themselves, strangers have them at the first hand, and of course cheaper than in most other towns of India, where the Banians, Jews, and Armenians purchase them to sell again. The manufacturers, before exposing any thing for sale, must obtain from the proper officer the royal stamp on every piece of cloth or silk, under penalty of a fine, besides corporal punishment.

"*Benecarlo*, a city in the province of Valencia, in Spain, the country round which produces excellent wines. The white wine is famous, as also a deep coloured thick red

Digitized by Google

wine, often used for the adulteration of the French wines, in order to imitate port.

"*Bengal*, a country of Hindoostan Proper, bounded on the west by Orissa and Bahar, on the north by Bootan, on the east by Assem and Meckley, and on the south by the bay of Bengal. Its extent from east to west is upwards of 400 miles, and from north to south above 300. The country consists of one vast plain of the most fertile soil, being annually overflowed by the Ganges, as Egypt is by the Nile. The bay of Bengal is the largest and deepest in the world, and the Ganges being navigable for a great distance up the country, affords every facility for conveyance of the commerce of this country. A trade is here carried on with Agra, Delhi, and the provinces adjacent to these superb capitals, in salt, sugar, opium, silk, silk stuffs, muslins, diamonds, and other precious stones. There is also a valuable inland trade carried on with West Patna, and a variety of other places throughout India. Patna is the principal place in the world for the cultivation of opium. Besides what is carried into the interior, there are annually exported between 3000 and 4000 chests, each weighing 300 pounds. This opium, however, not being prepared and purified, like that of Syria and Persia, is far from being so valuable. There is also a material trade carried on by the natives, chiefly with the district of Catek, a district of some extent a little below the westernmost mouth of the Ganges, the port of which is Balasore, and hence the people of Catek carry on a navigation and trade with the Maldive islands, and also with the country of Asham. Forty vessels, of 500 or 600 tons each, are sent up the Ganges to Asham, laden with salt, which yields 200 per cent. profit; they return in payment, silk, ivory, musk, eagle-wood, gumlac, and a small quantity of gold and silver. With respect to the immense trade carried on by the East India Company with Bengal, see *East India Company*; see also *Calcutta* and *Madras*.

"*Berbice*, a country of Guiana, on the north-east coast of South America, situated on a river of the same name, in N. lat. 6 deg. 20 min. and 60 deg. W. long. about eight miles west from the mouth of the river of Surinam. This colony was established by the Dutch in the beginning of the 17th century; and in the year 1720 there were six sugar works, besides some plantations of indigo and cacao. It has, notwithstanding the climate is extremely unhealthy, and the soil inferior to Surinam and Demerary, greatly flourished. Berbice was taken by the English in 1796, but restored to the Batavian republic by the treaty of peace of 1801."

Both these classes of articles are executed with great propriety: the author has selected his materials from the term reporters, and commercial writers of the most acknowledged authority, and has included a great mass of result from the most recent decisions. This combined intelligence has been compressed into moderate compass, and is well adapted for the library both of the merchant and the statist. Unlike his predecessor Peuchet, Montefiore has neither overloaded his earlier articles with a needless incumbrance of detail, nor stripped his concluding pages to a disappointing bareness. His utility will not be confined to Great Britain alone, it will favour the continental adoption of that precise legislation concerning property, which grows out of commerce alone, and is the basis of all civilization.

Digitized by Google

CHAPTER XVI.

MILITARY HISTORY AND TACTICS.

THE only historical article in this department of our work is Captain Walsh's "Journal of the late Campaign in Egypt:" The author does not aspire to the rank of a military critic, although the events of which he was a witness are well worthy of a commentary; he claims no higher praise than that of a faithful narrator of what he has seen; and as far as we can judge from internal evidence, and the concurrent testimony of others, he appears well entitled to the character of impartial authenticity. The volunteer associations have given birth to several rudimental publications, among which "The Manual for Infantry" recommended by the Duke of York; Colonel Herries's "Instructions for Cavalry," and the extracts from Citizen Fossé's work "on the Defence of Picquets," stand conspicuous for their utility.

ART. I. *Journal of the late Campaign in Egypt; including Descriptions of that Country and of Gibraltar, Minorca, Malta, Marmorice, and Macri. With an Appendix containing Official Papers and Documents. By* THOMAS WALSH, *Captain in his Majesty's Ninety-third Regiment of Foot, Aid-de-Camp to Major-General Sir Eyre Coote, &c.* 4to. pp. 350. 41 plates.

THE only valuable part of Captain Walsh's book (which indeed constitutes by far the larger proportion of it) are the military details: of these a perspicuous account is given in plain, unornamented, but correct language; and the verbal descriptions are illustrated by maps and plans that bear every appearance of authenticity. From the author's official situation he has been enabled to give fuller details of the operations of that part of the army commanded by Sir Eyre Coote, than have yet appeared before the public: by collating therefore the work before us with Major Wilson's account of the campaign, already noticed in our former volume, a complete history of the transactions of the British army in Egypt may be collected. The battle at the landing of the troops and the two subsequent actions, in the last of which General Abercrombie fell, are described nearly with equal detail, and with satisfactory agreement, by Major Wilson and Captain Walsh. When Major-General Hutchinson, on whom the supreme command devolved, quitted the peninsula of Aboukir, in order to carry on the war to the walls of Cairo, Major Wilson was included in the division of the army selected for this purpose, and of course his attention would be principally directed to this part of the campaign. Major-General Coote, as second in command, was left with the remainder of the troops before Alexandria; and after the reduction of Cairo and the return of General Hutchinson, he was entrusted with the direction of the operations to the westward of this town till its surrender: of these proceedings Captain Walsh, being aid-de-camp to General Coote, has given a very particular account, without however neglecting the more distant operations, of which he was not an eye-witness. The journal commences with the entrance of the armament into the Mediterranean, and concludes with the surrender of Alexandria.

Digitized by Google

ART. II. *A short Treatise on the Use of Balloons and Field Observators, in Military Operations. By Major-General* MONEY. 4to. pp. 20. Two plates.

FROM the example of the French, who have been indebted for their success in some very important battles to the use of balloons, in observing the motions of the enemy, General Money proposes the adoption of this instrument, with suitable officers, as an established part of the British army. But in stormy weather the balloon is incapable of being used, the general therefore advises, that every army should besides be furnished with two or three field observators, or frame-works of light timber, about forty feet high, furnished with platforms and ladders, to enable a commander, by means of an officer posted on one of these, to acquire more extensive and accurate intelligence respecting any hostile movement than can be gained by the usual methods of reconnoitring. The observator may be set up and taken down in an hour's time, is of little expense, of easy carriage, and, if necessary, may be prevented from falling into the enemy's hands, by being burnt in a few minutes.

ART. III. *A Manual for a Volunteer Corps of Infantry.* 8vo. pp. 108.

WE notice this little volume, not because it is a subject of criticism, but in order to inform such of our readers as are interested in the matter, that the instructions herein contained "are recommended by his Royal Highness the Commander in Chief, for the use of the several corps of volunteer infantry throughout the united kingdom."

ART. IV. *The Volunteer's Guide, &c. By an Officer in the Third Regiment of Loyal London Volunteers.* pp. 64.

A Perspicuous account of the manual and platoon exercise, illustrated with wooden cuts of the different motions; forming a convenient pocket remembrancer for young soldiers.

ART. V. *On the Defence of Picquets, relative to Service in the Field; for the Use of Officers of Infantry; or, Extracts from a work entitled, Ideas of a Military Man on the Defence and Attack of Small Posts. By* CITIZEN FOSSE, *formerly Lieutenant-colonel, now Pensionary of the Republic of France. Translated from the French by Colonel T.* 18mo. pp. 24.

IN these few pages are included the heads of the observations, which it is incumbent on the commanding officer of every picquet on field service to make, relative to the safety of his post, and his means of annoying the enemy. We strongly recommend it to all volunteer officers, as it is admirably adapted to inspire them with that alertness and circumspection which is the very soul of military enterprize.

ART. VI. *Instructions for the Use of Yeomanry and Volunteer Corps of Cavalry. By Colonel* HERRIES, *of the Light Horse Volunteers of London and Westminster.* Part I. 8vo. pp. 256.

THE attention and activity of Col. Herries are well known to the public, from the high state of discipline by which the corps that he commands is most honourably distinguished. The volume before us contains the best instructions for volunteer cavalry that we are acquainted with, and well deserves to come into general use.

ART. VII. *Review of a Battalion of Infantry, including the Eighteen Manœuvres; illustrated by a Series of engraved Diagrams. To which are added, the Words of Command, with an accurate Description of each Manœuvre. By* ROBERT SMIRKE, *Jun.* 8vo. pp. 60.

THE system of General Dundas is strictly followed throughout this volume, in which Mr. Smirke has combined graphical with verbal description, so as completely to explain all the manœuvres of a battalion before the reviewing general.

Digitized by Google

ART. VIII. *Elements of War; or Rules and Regulations of the Army in Miniature; shewing the Duty of a Regiment in every Situation.* By NATHANIEL HOOD, *Lieutenant, H. P. 48th Regiment.* 12mo. pp. 157.

THE complaint made by volunteers and young officers, against the regulation book, is, that it is rather too concise. Mr. Hood's little volume is, for the most part, an abridgment of this, and therefore wholly useless.

ART. IX. *A Treatise on the Art of War; containing the Principles of Offensive and Defensive Operations; with Rules for carrying on the Petit-Guerre, or War of Posts; and the Methods of Attack and Defence in Sieges. Extracted from the Encyclopædia Britannica.* 8vo. pp. 304. Twenty-four 4to plates.

IT was suggested to the proprietor of the Encyclopedia Britannica, that in the present circumstances of the country a republication, in a convenient form, of the article *Art of War*, might be of service: the proprietor (Mr. Bell) took the hint, and the work before us made its appearance.

The imminent danger of invasion has summoned the nation to arms: the shopkeeper, the manufacturer, the farmer, and the gentleman, have offered their voluntary services in defence of their country. The number of citizen soldiers is so large, and the duties of the regular service so pressing, that the discipline of the volunteers must almost wholly depend on the exertions of their own inexperienced officers, who must derive their knowledge almost entirely from books. The works required for this purpose, beside the regulation book, are those which explain at full length, and in the plainest manner, whatever relates to the discipline of the battalion or squadron, and the service of light troops, both horse and foot. In the forming of sieges, and the conduct of battles, the only business, and the only difficulty of the volunteers will be to obey implicitly the orders of those who have been professionally brought up to the study of tactics. We are not sensible, therefore, of the slightest advantage to be derived from this treatise by any but regular officers, and we cannot suppose, that any of these would be destitute of books infinitely better qualified to teach them their duty than the work in question.

ART. X. *Rules and Regulations for the Field Exercise and Manœuvres of the French Infantry, issued August 1st 1791. Translated from the French, with explanatory Notes, by* JOHN MACDONALD, *F. R. S. F. A. S. late Lieut. Col. of the Royal Clan Alpine Regiment, Commandant of the Royal Edinburgh Artillery, and Captain of the Corps of Engineers on the Bengal Establishment.* 8vo. 2 vols.

IT is the duty of every British officer who aspires to a thorough mastery of his profession, to be acquainted not only with the system of tactics adopted by his own countrymen, but also with that in use among the other nations of Europe. Above all, it is incumbent on him to be versed in the manœuvres of the French army, against which his active opposition will almost always be directed. Lieutenant-Colonel Macdonald has studied with attention the mechanism of the French army, the movements of which seem characterized by rapidity, as those of the British are by firmness and compactness. The principal differences, and advantages and disadvantages of the two systems are pointed out in the notes to this work, the text of which is the common regulation book of the French infantry: the plates by which the manœuvres are illustrated are numerous and well executed, forming altogether an extremely valuable addition to the travelling library of a British officer.

Digitized by Google

CHAPTER XVII.

RURAL ECONOMY AND GARDENING.

THE last year has not produced much of value in farming or gardening. The Agricultural Survey of Peebles, by Mr. Findlater, is drawn out to an unnecessary length, and is more important for its statistical than its agricultural details. The new edition of Dr. Hunter's Georgical Essays presents a copious but not very judicious selection of memoirs; garden experimentalists seem to be confided in too much, and practical agriculturalists to be unwisely neglected. The prize essays of the Highland Society contain much valuable information, and though peculiarly calculated to be of use to the proprietors and cultivators of the more neglected parts of Scotland, will be perused by every one for whom natural history and rural economy have any charms.

ART. I. *Georgical Essays. By* A. HUNTER, *M.D. F.R.S. L. and E.* 4 vols. 8vo. pp. about 570 each.

THE two first editions of the Georgical Essays have, we believe, been long out of print; the first was published about the year 1771, the second in 1777. The York Agricultural Society, which gave birth to them, has been dissolved nearly twenty years, and the publication was discontinued before that time, in consequence of the death of several of the most active members. Dr. Hunter has survived many of his old friends, and, by the aid of others who have succeeded them, has expanded the original work from one volume into four. Nor is it to stop here: Dr. Hunter purposes to make the present the basis of a *more extensive* publication. "It is my intention," says he, "to draw into one focus all that is widely diffused through numberless volumes of agricultural information; and, in so doing, I expect to be able to exhibit to the favourers of agriculture a field well cultivated, and free from all unsightly and noxious weeds. In this proposed collection there will be some papers that never appeared in public, but by far the greatest number have been published in different periodical works." At the conclusion of the fourth volume we have some further particulars as to the extent of the proposed plan. "In order to mark the progress of agricultural improvements, I have it in contemplation to publish two volumes annually, in the manner of this selection; but in the execution of the design I shall be directed by the opinion that the public may entertain of the present publication."

On comparing the first volume of the work before us with the second edition of the Georgical Essays, which chanced to be on our shelf, we find the contents pretty nearly the same; two or three of the Essays inserted here are not in our edition; but all, we believe, contained in that are to be found in one or other of these volumes. The present is a selection, and a good one; we are told that it contains several original papers, but by far the majority are well known to the public. Dr. Hunter has not scrupled to extract very freely from the transactions of Literary Societies, County Reports, Magazines, &c. &c. He ought to have distinguished the original essays from those which had already been published. We have seen *a great many* of these in different modern publications; many more may have escaped us, which are, nevertheless, familiar to many of our readers; on which account it is unsafe to notice any particular papers, lest they should not be so new to others as to us. Dr. H.

Digitized by Google

ought to have referred us to every volume which has contributed to enrich his own: he has given us this reference only occasionally.

Whether the public is much benefited by thus pouring, as Sterne calls it, from one phial into another, we are not quite decided in our opinion. The books from which a variety of these Essays are taken are not dear. The Agricultural Surveys, indeed, are numerous and bulky, and often have a small kernel to a coarse large husk, which we are obliged to any body for removing.

As a collection we do not hesitate to speak highly of the present: theoretical and practical agriculture are blended together, very few trivial papers are admitted, many are the production of Dr. Hunter's own ingenious pen; and where such men as Mr. Curtis, Dr. Anderson, the Earl of Winchelsea, Mr. Henry, Mr. Somerville, Mr. Forsyth, Dr. Wilkinson, Dr. Garnet, Sir John Sinclair, Mr. Kent, Arthur Young, &c. &c. &c.; where men of so much science and experience are laid under contribution, much ingenious speculation and valuable instruction may be very confidently expected.

ART. II. *The Farmer's Magazine, a Periodical Work, exclusively devoted to Agriculture and Rural Affairs.* Vol. III. 8vo. pp. 546.

WE are disposed to think that this is an useful and well-supported publication. One does not look for the flowers of rhetoric, and the grace of composition, in a farmer's magazine; when a gentleman has made any successful experiment in the fattening of his sheep and oxen, or in the management of his turnip and potatoe crops, the particulars and result of which he is desirous of making known to the body of farmers, he must descend a little, and accommodate, to use the vulgar phrase, his conversation to his company. A considerable portion of these communications, too, are from farmers themselves; and it must be acknowledged, that this class of correspondents take particular care not to render their precepts or explanations obscure by consulting brevity too much. In the pages before us there is certainly a great deal about it and about it, a great deal of unprofitable chat; but as the work is *exclusively* devoted to agricultural and rural affairs, it is not likely to be read with any high expectation or avidity by any but agriculturalists themselves. Now, after the labours of the day, when the tired farmer takes his pipe in one hand and his magazine in the other, he goes on and on, whiff after whiff, and sentence after sentence, and it really is of very little consequence to him whether he comes to the end of his chapter first, or the end of his pipe.

A number of this work appears periodically once in three months; the original communications are numerous; and when we see such names as Dr. Hunter and Sir John Sinclair attached to some of them, we may infer considerable respectability as to the general conduct of the publication. Very ample and useful reports are given of the state of agriculture in different parts of the kingdom, more particularly in the North; works connected with rural economy are reviewed; dissertations, controversies, hints, queries, and replies, fill up the pages, and help to relieve the monotony.

ART. III. *A General View of the Agriculture of the County of Peebles, with various Suggestions as to the Means both of local and general Improvement of Agriculture. By the Rev.* CHARLES FINDLATER, *Minister of the Parish of Newlands, in the County of Peebles. With a Map of the County, and other Engravings.* 8vo. pp. 413.

THIS report was drawn up at the solicitation of Sir J. Sinclair for the board of agriculture; from the occurrence of some circumstances with which the public is uninterested, however, it is not published under their sanction; but for the sake of uniformity and facility of reference, it is nevertheless divided into the chapter and sections which are prescribed by the board for county reports.

The county of Peebles or Tweeddale is bounded upon the north by Mid Lothian; upon the east by Selkirk; upon the south by Dumfries; upon the west by Lanark. Its greatest length from N. to S. is about 30 miles; its greatest breadth from E. to W. about 20. It contains 229,778 English or 183,823 Scottish acres: the real surface, however, of so mountainous a country must con-

Digitized by Google

siderably exceed the plane of its base, as measured for the construction of a map.

The climate in such northerly latitude and high elevation must be late: corn harvest seldom commences before the second week in September, or closes before the latter end of October. The winters are rigorous, and the turnip crop is often lost, unless consumed by christmas or new year's day! We recommend Mr. Findlater to attempt the introduction of the Rev. Mr. Munning's excellent method of preserving the turnip crop: Mr. M. published a small pamphlet about two years ago, in which he has given very ample instructions on this subject.

By far the greater part of the soil of Tweeddale never was, nor probably ever will be, turned up by the plough: of the lands under culture, there is a great variety of soil, such as moss, clay, sand; moss and clay, moss and sand, clay and sand; and these mixtures, which Mr. F. considers as purely artificial, are in every variety of proportion. Though tradition reports that a great variety of wood once grew in the county, few vestiges of it remain, and those are miserably dwarfish: the only specimens of the wood of former times are stinted trees found in mosses. Mr. Findlater has the following note upon this subject.

"The wood most commonly found in our peat mosses is birch or hazel. Oak is sometimes, though rarely found; black, heavy, and hard, like ebony. Single trees of oak, of considerable size, have been found in mosses near the top of high hills.

"It is pretty remarkable, that, in the moors of Carnwath parish in Lanarkshire, adjoining to the higher parts of Tweeddale on the north-west, at an elevation as high, and under a climate as unpropitious as any part of Tweeddale, most places seemed to have obtained their names from woods; such as Harwood or Hartwood, Girtwood or Greatwood, Woodside, Woodend, &c. &c. There are no vestiges of such woods above the surface, but abundance below the mosses. Fir (unknown in Tweeddale mosses) is found in some of these, long and straight, indicating its having grown in thickets. Its fibres are so tough that they are twisted into ropes for halters and teathers: the splits of it are used for light, by the name of candle fir—Strong marks of great convulsions in nature.

"Some farmers have taken the hint of burying fir, for roofing, in mosses, in order to insure its incorruptibility."

Among the subterranean riches of the county are to be enumerated white and red freestone, whinstone, slate, coal, and limestone.

Chap. III. As we do not feel ourselves shackled by the prescribed forms of the board of agriculture, it will not be necessary to follow Mr. Findlater chapter by chapter, and section by section; we shall content ourselves with stopping now and then to notice any thing interesting, curious, or useful. It is interesting to learn, in consequence of the increasing sentiments of liberality among the landed gentry, of security among the tenantry, and of wealth in both; that the comfort, accommodation, and style, of farm-houses throughout Scotland have of late years been much improved. "In consequence of the firm establishment of monarchy, and the dissolution of aristocracy; of the abolition of heritable jurisdictions, and the substitution of independent judges, unconnected with the subjects of their own jurisdiction, and having no personal interest in their own decisions; the security of the tenantry as well as of all the lower orders in society is confirmed: general industry has kept pace with growing security, and the situation of every rank is altered greatly for the better."

A high character is given of the Tweeddale farmers, who are represented as industrious, enterprising, and well-informed; we cannot join in complimenting their tardiness to adopt modes of improvement introduced by gentlemen farmers. That they should have resisted for forty years, in contempt of positive rewards and obvious advantage, the improved system of husbandry, as it is called, the ameliorating rotation of corn, green-crop fallow, and artificial grasses, is a strong symptom of obstinate and stupid adherence to old practices.

We are not going to discuss the oft-agitated question, 'which are most advantageous to a country, large farms or small ones?' but the fact is worth noticing in the discussion, that the managers of extensive concerns acquire a generosity and liberality of character, which others who are buried in petty-fogging details, in scraping up the cheese-parings and candles' ends of traffic, are not likely to acquire; confidence between merchants scarcely knows a limit. The fact, perhaps, is too notorious to require evidence, but an instance or two occur and we shall give them: The richest traffic on the face of the earth, perhaps,

was carried on in Porto Bello during forty days in the year, when the wealth of America was exchanged for the manufactures of Europe. No bale of goods, says Robertson in describing it, is ever opened, no chest of treasure is examined; both are received on the credit of the persons to whom they belong, and only one instance of fraud is recorded during the long period in which trade was carried on with this liberal confidence. All the coined silver which was brought from Peru to Porto Bello in the year 1654 was adulterated with a fifth part of base metal. The Spanish merchants, with sentiments suitable to their usual integrity, sustained the whole loss, and indemnified the foreigners by whom they were employed. The fraud was detected, and the treasurer of the revenue in Peru, the author of it, was publicly burnt. Sir George Staunton tells us, that the goods of the English East India Company, both as to quantity and quality, are taken by the Chinese at Canton for what they are declared in the invoice; and the bales, with their mark, pass in trade without examination throughout the empire.

There is something whimsical and ludicrous enough, to be sure, in putting one leg of the compass on a Chinese or Porto Bello merchant, and the other on the humble head of a Peebleshire farmer; but really according to Mr. Findlater—*si parva licet componere magnis*—the same principle prevails here. The sheep farms being the most extensive, and requiring the largest capital, the store-masters, as they are called, constitute the most opulent class and are the best informed: between these farmers and their wool-buyers, the system of intercourse is so liberal, that the goods are often bought without been seen, and sold and delivered without fixing the price. The prevailing characters of the lower order in this county are sobriety, industry, and a sense of religion; a spirit of independence is kept alive, which revolts against the idea of subsisting upon charity. Mr. F. assures us, that most of them contrive by their own industry and frugality alone, not merely to feed and clothe their children, but to give them an education, so far as learning to read; very frequently they are also taught writing and a little arithmetic, though more commonly the young people themselves obtain instruction in these last branches from their first earnings of wages, by attending night schools in winter after their working hours. In return for this parental care, children are rarely deficient in their filial duties; they support their aged parents according to their abilities, and there are not wanting instances of day labourers supporting aged parents, past their labour, without being indebted to any charity whatsoever. This corroborates the truth of the remark which President Washington made in his address to the senate and house of representatives, at Philadelphia, ten years ago, that "knowledge, while it makes us sensible of our rights as men, enforces our obligations as members of society." In conformity with this well-grounded opinion, that great man recommended in the speech alluded to,* the senate "to provide by law, as soon as conveniently may be, for the establishment of schools throughout the state, in such a manner that the poor may be taught *gratis*." It is with unaffected concern that we have lately heard accounts, too well authenticated, of the declension of parochial schools in Scotland; after long experience has completely proved the various moral and political advantages resulting from a general diffusion of knowledge among the lower classes of society, it is to the last degree disgraceful that the channels by means of which it used to be distributed should be choaked up and the current impeded. Mr. Chrisiston, one of the masters of the high school of Edinburgh, in a pamphlet published about two years ago† gives this melancholy statement; he says that the wretched income of some established teachers, particularly parish schoolmasters, is becoming every day worse. Many of them do not earn half so much as a journeyman mason. The unhappy old men who are in the profession must continue in it, as they are too old to learn any other; but many of them, unless the income be rectified, will have no successors. This event has taken place already; there are many parish schools vacant, because no man will

* It was a congratulatory address on the suppression of a cabal, delivered in the senate house, December 6, 1794.

† Entitled "The General Diffusion of Knowledge one great Cause of the Prosperity of North Britain," &c.

Digitized by Google

accept of them with so small a reward for severe labour. Accounts have been received, he says, from 427 parishes. The average income for each schoolmaster seems to be from 23l. to 24l. a year: the amount of the income of the schoolmaster, in each of the 427 parishes, was taken from his own affidavit, sworn before a justice of the peace. There is good reason to think, that when the list shall be completed for the whole of North Britain the average will be still lower. Of the 427 parishes the income of six is less than 10l. a year each. One is 6l. 18s. 10d. Several of the schoolmasters say that they could not live without the aid of their relations: a journeyman mason can earn 30l. a year.

In one of Mr. Findlater's notes (which, by the way, constitute a valuable portion of this volume, embracing a variety of topics connected with the civil and ecclesiastical policy and laws of Scotland), he informs us that the court of presbytery, with concurrence of the county commissioners, can compel the heritors (or landed proprietors) of every parish to make provision of a legal salary for a schoolmaster, and to build an house for the schoolmaster's residence, and a school for teaching in. Now the *maximum* legal salary cannot exceed 11l. 10s. 2d. 8-12th a year, the *minimum* is 5l. 11s. 1d. 4-12th, one half is payable by the proprietors, the other by the occupiers of the land. The schoolmaster, he further tells us, is almost always constituted *precentor* (the person who leads the singing of psalms in church) and clerk to the kirk-session!! Mr. F. estimates the average emolument of the Scots parochial schoolmasters at 20 guineas a year, which coincides very nearly with the returns actually received when Mr. Chrisiston wrote; and if they are completed is perhaps perfectly accurate. The *wages* of teaching must necessarily be very low: they vary from a shilling to eighteen-pence a quarter for reading English, and from half a crown to three shillings for reading, writing, and arithmetic; the scholars too paying only for the precise time of attendance!

It would be derogatory to make any apology for dwelling so long on a subject of such importance.

Chap. IV. "From various causes, says Mr. F., Scotland was more late in being relieved from the oppression of feudal aristocracy than her sister kingdom. The last act of parliament to that effect, *and for which we are indebted to our rebellion in* 1745, being so recent as the year 1748." Rent we are told is yet paid in money, in kind, and in personal service; in Tweeddale, however, the proportion of rent paid in kind, or personal service, is very trifling; the more enlightened among proprietors entirely relinquishing all rent of this species.

"By act of parliament 1748, the arbitrary unspecified services of use and wont, an obligation to which was inferred at common law, though not expressed in the lease, are all abolished. They would seem, formerly, to have furnished a pretext for endless vexation and oppression of the tenantry; even so far as to devolve upon them most of the public taxes imposed by parliament upon the proprietors of the land. No prestation is now exigible from the tenant, but what is expressly stipulated in his lease; with exception of such legal burdens as are already, or shall be directly imposed upon him by act of parliament; and also of his adstriction to the mill."

This adstriction to the mill is called *thirlage;* it infers an obligation upon the tenant to grind his grain at that particular mill to which the lands he occupies are *thirled;* i. e. which possesses the exclusive privilege of manufacturing the grain of these lands. It has been conjectured that formerly the great baron obliged all his tenants to bring their whole grindable produce to his mill, as a sure method of ascertaining the quantity grown, and of collecting, as rent, his own stipulated proportion. The portion retained is called *multure;* this abominable remnant of vassalage died away so lately as in the year 1799, when an act was obtained to enforce the commutation of thirlage into an annual payment in grain, according to the award of a jury *appointed by the sheriff of the county* where the mill is situated, "if the servient and dominant tenements are in different counties." Only under this circumstance?

The rate of thirlage varied in different baronies, both as to the proportion of produce which the mill had the exclusive right of manufacturing, and as to the proportion retained as multure.

"Thirlage not only subjects the tenant of the thirled lands to an higher rate of multure, but also to various other burdens and vexations. If the mill to which he is adstricted should be out of repair—let his demand be ever so urgent, or his grain in ever such risk of being spoiled, he must allow the miller a proper time for reparation (some say six weeks from the time of application) before

he is entitled to go elsewhere for service. The thirled tenant is subjected to many occasional services, from which the free tenant is exempted; such as the upholding of the water dam dike; the upholding, frequently, of mill fanners and mill sieves, and the carriage of millstones, when needed; he furnishes fuel for drying his grain; he transports his grain to and from the mill—furnishings provided for him by the miller at free mills; he attends also at the drying process, sifts his own meal, and performs the greater part of the most laborious work; in all of which, his time and labour (in reality, or at least in probable imagination) are not well husbanded."

TYTHES. The clergy of Scotland are supported upon fixed stipends or salaries, modified out of the tythes of the lands by the court of session: These stipends are estimated to average 100*l.* a year, besides the dwelling house and glebe, consisting of about 10 acres. The Scots clergyman is bound to residence; and his charge can be declared vacant upon six weeks absence without leave to that effect, obtained from his presbytery: he can hold only one benefice. A degree of exception, however, is very properly admitted, as an excitement to literary effort, in regard to holding professorships in universities, when these are removed at such a small distance as not to obstruct, in any great degree, the performance of parochial duties.

Chap. XIV. *Rural Economy.* Justices of the peace have powers vested in them for the regulation of wages! "They, however, very wisely refrain from interfering in matters which can alone be properly regulated by the price of the market." The rate of wages for hired indoor servants was lowered by almost one-half from the deficiency of funds for the employment of labour through the scarcity of crops in 1799 and 1800: they are now rising, but have not yet attained, by perhaps a fourth says Mr. F. the existing rate previous to the years of scarcity. Day labour in this part of Scotland is very low: a stout labourer, *working by the piece*, will earn from sixteen to twenty-pence a day, without victuals: a woman shearer, hired through harvest, gets from 20 to 25 shillings with board; a man from 25 to 30.

Provisions. In sheep farms THE SHEEP DYING OF DISEASE ARE USED AS FLESH-MEAT under the designation of traik!!

Manufactures. A woollen manufactory was established at Inverlaithan by Mr. Brodie, well-known for his Shropshire iron-works: the iron-works have of late been so much more profitable a concern that the woollen has been less attended to. There are a few stocking looms in Peebles, and one or two manufactories of coarse cloths (Mr. F. recommends the establishment of one at the village of Linton, where there is water to drive machinery of a considerable weight) abundance of lime, freestone, coal, and peat, and a turnpike road of only 16 miles to Edinburgh.

From long disuetude the Scots *poor laws* may be considered as obsolete.

"The evil of sturdy begging has, in a great degree, ceased—having been consigned to the remedies of starving, or the gallows; and the real poor have been left to depend, chiefly, upon voluntary charity, without any legal provision—probably the best footing on which the matter can rest, both as to the poor and their providers. From the enormous extent to which poor's rates have arisen in England, it is probable, that great caution will be used in attempting to organize this subject, as to Scotland, into any very strictly defined legal system."

Of course there are no officers in Scotland known by the name of *overseers* and *churchwardens*; the poor having been generally throughout Scotland supported by voluntary contributions.

"Though the statute poor's laws in Scotland may be considered as obsolete, from disuse; there is, nevertheless, a consuetudinary law for poor's rates, though seldom, and never generally acted upon: and it would be well, if the necessity of acting upon it could altogether be superseded. Unlike to funds employed in productive labour, which reproduce themselves, together with a profit, funds, employed, in support of the poor, are altogether annihilated. If an individual, or a society are possessed of funds sufficient to maintain an hundred persons for a twelvemonth; supposing these hundred supported, idle—the fund perishes in the use, and is no longer in existence: if, however, it had been applied to the support of an hundred, as the wages of productive labour, in agriculture, trade, or manufacture, it is equally evident, that such labour would, at the end of twelve months, have replaced the fund, with a profit that might be added to it, which might enable it for the ensuing twelve months, to support an hundred and ten or twenty—affording, thus, additional subsistence for an increasing population. Were the whole funds of society devoted to alms, and consumed in idleness, mankind would soon revert to the savage state, having nothing for subsistence but natural produce; and the one half might repeatedly eat up the other, before population was reduced to that limited

Digitized by Google

number which natural produce would suffice to support."

In large towns, however, workhouses, &c. have been established and poor's rates assessed.*

We have already said that the notes constitute a valuable portion of this volume. The first gives a summary account of the civil and ecclesiastical jurisdiction and duties. The second is a very interesting one explanatory of the various Scottish tenures of property. The fourth contains some general observations on what Mr. Findlater calls the *generic character* of the former—gives a history of the origin and explains the nature of different sorts of leases—and discusses the question concerning the best size of farms. In another note we have a general defence of usury, and the last is a very useful attempt to bring into disrepute the idle and ignorant prejudices which were fostered by Lord Kenyon, against monopoly, forestalling, and regrating. Mr. Findlater, however, has not displayed all the force which is inherent in his argument: the cases which he has stated are to the point, but he might have varied and increased them.

Two appendixes close this volume. No. I. gives an account of *Whim*, the seat of Sir James Montgomery, and contains some observations upon the culture of *flow-moss* and of *ploughable-moss*, from information communicated by that gentleman. No. II. contains an essay on the diseases of sheep, drawn up from communications furnished by Dr. Gillespie, physician in Edinburgh; together with hints by Dr. Coventry, professor of agriculture in the university. With notes suggested from observations in Tweeddale, &c.

In the course of this work we found a great many words which are scarcely intelligible on this side the Tweed.

ART. IV. *Facts and Observations relative to Sheep, Wool, Ploughs, and Oxen, &c. By* JOHN *Lord* SOMERVILLE.

THAT the various qualities of our native wools might be much improved nobody, we suppose, will be inclined to doubt; indeed, in proportion as agricultural pursuits have not been thought unworthy the attention of some of the most enlightened men in the country, so a due attention has been paid to every minutia of practice capable of improvement; and much praise is due to those who have, in many instances, made expensive experiments, and laid their results before the public. Amongst others, the noble author before us is entitled to a large share of commendation for the spirit with which he has entered into these pursuits. The conclusions he draws from the experiments that he has made with the Merino breed are as follows: That they will bear our climate very well, if they are cotted, in the severest weather; that they have an aptitude to fatten; and that they will produce wool equal to the growth of Spain, and in a much superior quantity per sheep than any of our native breeds. It also appears, that a cross with the South Down or Ryeland produces a very valuable stock, retaining all the good qualities of the respective breeds, with the addition of a superior quantity and quality of wool. These are important considerations, and as far as we are able to judge, the experiments detailed by his Lordship, which seem to have been as fairly made as is usual on these occasions, will confirm what is advanced in favour of this breed. At the same time we must remark, that these trials having been made in Devonshire, they will not hold good for the more northerly districts of the kingdom; and we have seen so much of the Quixottism of sheep-breeding, that we trust, till it has been fairly tried all over the kingdom, breeders will not be mad enough to give up many highly valuable breeds for the sake of this which is so strenuously recommended.

We much wish a little more attention to method had been paid in the relation of the experiments, and that the author had confined himself solely to what he has been eye-witness of, rather than have added so much on what has been effected in other parts of Europe. As a fair specimen of the style and *reasoning* of the noble author, we give the following quotation.

"Land of the vale of Taunton might have supported coarse-woolled sheep in size, had they been pushed in first year's grass, or bu-

* On the subject of poor laws, we wish to refer our readers to the observations of Mr. Malthus, in his quarto edition of the "Essay on Population." REV.

Digitized by Google

ried in red clover up to their eyes, and the refuse mown afterwards for hay; but this was buying a good thing too dear; it is not the size of individual sheep, but the quantity of good meat and wool per acre which must enrich the farmer, and feed the public. It is to be lamented that we are such slaves to size, and that the eye can hardly resist it. A medium is most desirable; but if extremes are to be admitted, without a doubt the small sheep, fine in its grain, is a more marketable commodity. The rich will have it, because its quality is superior; in short, because it eats better; the poor man will find its joints more adapted to the strength of his purse; and the dearer meat is to be, the more this argument applies; for legs and shoulders of mutton cannot conveniently be cut, and retailed in pieces. There remained, then, but the manufacturer, the mechanic, and the middle class of housekeeper, to prefer coarse-grained meat; so we reasoned when we first sent this Ryeland mutton to market, but these were the very people who greedily bought it at a penny per pound advance in price, and that too in a manufacturing district. But we are told that sailors, colliers, and keelmen, are sure customers for these over-fat joints; so they are, and long may they enjoy them! Fresh meat is fresh meat to a man coming from sea, but if he stays long in harbour, and were once to break pale, and get a taste of better mutton, perhaps it would be no easy matter to bring him back again. We are told too, that coarse fat mutton is best for salting: mutton is not at all well suited to this purpose, beef and pork take salt better. If men are to be kept on salt meat, be it so; if they are to live on mutton, let that be good in quality. One of the first cutting butchers in London has often been heard to say, that he could not afford to buy fat coarse-grained sheep; for that, besides the loss in spine fat, which he was obliged to cut from roasting joints, there was not lean enough to support the fat, which therefore roasted away; and that so long as meat bears a better price than tallow, so long he must deal in South-downs, and sheep of that description. We have said thus much, because false arguments are too often used to enforce adoption of heavy sheep, in districts ill suited to them. Where land is deep and strong enough to bear long-woolled sheep, there let them be bred; but let them not be foisted, by false arguments, on land unable to maintain them; by so doing, the public is most essentially injured. Our combing and coarse-wool manufacturers must be supplied, and therefore our strong land should be allotted to carry coarse, heavy sheep; but if, on the same false principle, one is to be pushed every where to the exclusion of the other, I, for one, am old-fashioned enough to prefer clothes to carpets, a necessary to a luxury. If carpets are to be exported, well and good; they may, perhaps, pay as well as coarse woollen sent to South America, or elsewhere; but if carpets are to be consumed at home, as they have been for some years past, the manufacturer, indeed, is fed by what he earns; but for any addition to the national revenue, he may as well sit with his hands behind him, and at once be fed from the pocket of the richer classes: it is only receiving with one hand and paying with the other; the nation will not be enriched; and the same thing may be said of every article of luxury consumed at home. This is very unfashionable doctrine without doubt, but it is too true. In treating of Ryeland sheep, it may not be amiss to remark, that they are not a mountain sheep, as many suppose, but are bred in the vales of Hereford and Ross, on the very same land with the Hereford oxen.

"How many favourite theories will be knocked on the head by this one fact! If the same land breeds the smallest and finest woolled sheep, it breeds also the largest oxen in our kingdom. A country must be envied, which, without minute attention to the science of breeding, can turn out two opposite animals in size, so good in their kind; it teaches us that more dependance is to be placed on the breed or race of animals than we are at first aware. We offer no comment on circumstances seemingly so contradictory, we only record them as facts."

Lord Somerville greatly recommends salt as an article of diet for sheep: the fondness of many animals for it has long been known, and also that it is usual in some countries to give it to sheep. The benefit to be derived from this mode of practice to the *general* health of the animal we are not disposed to controvert, but we cannot so readily allow it to be a specific for the *rot*; this disorder, we are very certain, is caused by the animal taking the embryo of the *fluke* with its food, and it is not likely that the small quantity of salt allowed to each sheep should destroy them.

On the subject of ploughs, a copy of a letter from M. de Neufchateau is given; the purpose of which was to answer some objections made by him to Lord Somerville's *patent* double-furrow plough, and to give an account of a ploughing match being won by this implement; as the result of the match was already known, this might as well have been omitted; coming from the *noble patentee*, it has too much the appearance of a puff.

The rest of this work is taken up with an account of the cattle shew instituted by his Lordship. For his indefatigable attention to this subject, and the admirable disposition of the premiums, he has our unqualified commendation; a

Digitized by Google

due medium in size and condition is, without doubt, much more advantageous to both the grazier and consumer, and if with this the *recurrence* to oxen as beasts of labour, can be effected, Lord Somerville will have deserved well of his country.

ART. V. *Observations on the Utility of cutting Hay and Straw, and bruising Corn for feeding of Animals, arranged and elucidated, not by Chemical Test, but Agricultural Practice, with a full and particular Description of the best Machines for that Purpose; with approbationary Certificates annexed. Also a new and valuable Discovery, of the utmost Importance to the agricultural World, by which means every Farmer may separate the more nutritious Parts of his Straw for feeding Animals, from the Refuse, which may be used for Litter. By* WILLIAM LESTER, *Farmer and Engineer, Piccadilly.* 8vo. pp. 34.

AFTER this curious *advertisement* it is needless to say, that these pages are a puff on Mr. Lester's chaff engine. However, it is the puff direct, and there is no quackery in the case; for Mr. Lester's chaff engine, which cuts with a single knife, or a fly wheel, and which is capable of cutting chaff to any given length, has received very ample testimony of its superiority.

Mr. Lester conceives that the most nutritious part of straw is the saccharine substance contained immediately above its joints. It will be found, says he, by examining the straw of corn, that the greater part of this substance is contained in these cavities in the form of pith, "which being scraped out with a penknife, when the knots are cut longitudinally, and put upon the tongue, the sweets are immediately perceptible." Mr. Lester's "*new and valuable discovery, of the utmost importance to the agricultural world,*" of separating the more from the less nutritious parts of straw, was thus accidentally made:

"About eighteen months ago I was applied to by one of the managers of a very large intended manufacturing concern, for the purpose of making paper from straw, and offered a large sum of money if I could produce an engine that would separate the knots from straw, as they then employed a considerable number of hands to cut them out with shears. This I at that moment conceived next to impossible; but from an accidental observation some months after, in cutting some strong wheat straw, I found the knots to fly, by the concussion of the knife, to a considerable distance from the machine, beyond the parts that contained no knots. From this observation I concluded, that the object was discovered that was so interesting to the papermaker. Having a winnowing machine standing by the straw engine, I put the cut straw into it, and passed it through, when I found the knots, from their gravity, come through the sieves like corn, and the other blowing away as chaff. I now found the possibility of constructing an engine for the complete separation of the knots from cut straw, and immediately went to the paper manufactory, intending to make a contract for the engine they so much desired; but to my utter disappointment the works were stopped; for what reason I know not. Had it been for the want of an engine to take away the knots, I am confident I could have set them to work again; but I candidly confess, it was this application, and this disappointment, that drew my attention to the process for agricultural purposes, the importance and propriety of which, practice alone will demonstrate. The mode is simple, and the expence trifling, within the reach of every farmer; it is only to cut his straw, and either heave it down before a wind, or throw it with a shovel, which will always separate the heavy substance from the light, in exactly the same way as dressing of corn. The separation will be complete if the straw is cut an inch long."

Mr. Lester has given a list of various agricultural machines which he makes, and their respective prices. By some accident Mr. Lester has omitted to inform his readers of a new discovery, which he might fairly have claimed: if a tradesman has an assortment of new articles for sale, he puts his advertisement into the newspaper, and pays his five shillings for it. By advertising his wares in the shape of a pamphlet, on wove paper, and with descriptive engravings, Mr. Lester has discovered the art not only of saving his own five shillings, but of transferring a great many such sums from other people's pockets into his own. This is the age for discovery!

Digitized by Google

ART. VI. *The Sporting Dictionary, and Rural Repository of general Information, upon every Subject appertaining to the Sports of the Field; inscribed to the Right Honourable the Earl of Sandwich, Master of his Majesty's Stag Hounds. By* WILLIAM TAPLIN, *Author of the Gentleman's Stable Directory.* 8vo. 2 vols. about 500 pages each.

THIS will be a very acceptable present to the 'Squire Westerns of the present day, and indeed to those high-blooded gentry who aspire to be *knowing ones*, and would be glad of the lesson upon easier terms than it is commonly taught. Mr. Taplin is highly impressed with the importance of his work, and claims justly, for aught we know to the contrary, considerable merit on the score of originality. He says that the various publications which annually issue from the press under sporting titles, "having been repeatedly re-copied, and *repeatedly transmitted* from one generation to another, are replete with matter nearly obsolete, and sports long since buried in oblivion!" He also tells us, we will take his own words, for to remodel the sentence would destroy its beauty, that "what has issued from the press under titles of attractive similitude have been much more the efforts of theoretic lucubration than the result of practical knowledge or personal experience." With all the pomp and grandiloquence of Gibbon, Mr. Taplin assures us that

"Numerous and diversified as the subjects are, they will be found largely treated on, and satisfactorily explained: not as has been too much the case in former publications, by the effusions of literary fertility, but clearly demonstrated upon the practical knowledge, and individual experience, of the author; who, disdaining the subservient trammels of imitation, has not presumed to enter into a diffuse disquisition upon any sport or subject in which he has not been personally and principally engaged. If the mind of man can be candidly admitted to derive some gratification from its universality of rational attainment, so it is the greatest and most consolatory ambition of his life, to have engaged in every sport, and to have embarked in every pleasure, upon which these volumes will be found to treat; without a deviation from the line of consistency, a debasement of dignity, or a degradation of character."

Seriously, these volumes contain a good deal of information respecting dogs and horses, cocks and bulls, stags and foxes, &c. &c. &c. *ad infinitum.* The birth, parentage, and education of celebrated racers are given under their respective names. Four or five engravings, one illustrative of the improved mode of shoeing, and another of the age of a horse as indicated by his teeth, are added; in short, the book is altogether useful enough.

ART. VII. *A Description of a Patent Hot-house, which operates chiefly by the Heat of the Sun, without the Aid of Flues, or Tan-Bark, or Steam, for the Purpose of heating it. To which is added an Appendix, containing Remarks upon a Letter from T. A. Knight, Esq. on the Subject of Mr. Forsyth's Plaster. By* JAMES ANDERSON, *LL. D. F. A. S. E. &c.* pp. 248. 8vo.

IN hot-houses of the common construction, the panes of glass which form the roof are disposed somewhat in the manner of slates, each pane lapping over the other, and thus allowing a communication of the external with the internal air, between the upper and under surface of the two glasses. Now as air enlarges in bulk in proportion to the increase of the temperature, it is obvious that the internal air, whenever it is warmer than that of the atmosphere, will be constantly escaping by the crevices in the roof, and its place in the hot-house will be supplied by cold external air through the key-hole and other apertures, thus producing a constant draft, and requiring the aid of fire to keep up the due degree of warmth.

The hot-house of Dr. Anderson's construction is built entirely of wood and glass, so as to intercept as few rays of the sun as possible, consistently with the stability of the building. It consists of two chambers or stories, the lower with a flat cieling of glass, the upper with a roof whose pitch or angle is of the usual magnitude. The lower cieling, the roof, and in short every part of the building, is made as perfectly air tight as possible; the doors even, when properly closed, admitting hardly any air. A small hole is made near the bottom of the upper chamber to communicate with the atmosphere, and the two chambers are connected with each other by a pipe with four openings, fixed into the roof, and passing strait down about two or

Digitized by Google

three feet lower than the cieling of the ground-floor chamber: the top of the pipe is open to the external air, but may be closed at pleasure by a stopper; the bottom of it is also open, and two lateral apertures are made, furnished with valves, one of which communicates with the upper chamber close to the roof, and the other with the lower chamber close to the cieling. The building being thus constructed, and the top of the pipe closed with its stopper, the lower side valve being also closed, the bottom of the pipe and the upper side valve being open, as soon as the rays of the sun enter the building, the particles of heated air will rise through the rest and accumulate in two strata, one beneath the roof and the other beneath the cieling; a quantity of cold air, in proportion to the enlarged bulk of that which is heated, being forced through the side hole, near the bottom of the upper chamber. In the course of an hour or two the stratum of air in the upper part of the lower chamber will have increased in thickness till it becomes parallel with the open extremity of the pipe of communication; all the surplus therefore of heated air will rise up the pipe, and be discharged under the roof of the upper chamber, by means of the side valve. This process will be going on as long as the sun shines on the house, so that towards evening the upper chamber or reservoir will be filled with hot air. Upon the removal of the sun's light the air of the house will begin to cool, though very slowly; its dimensions will in consequence contract; and to supply the vacuum that would thus be formed, a current of cold external air begins to set in through the side hole, near the bottom of the upper chamber; but as the pipe is the only communication between the two chambers, and as it opens into the upper one just under the roof, it is obvious that no cold air can get into the lower chamber till the whole of the heated air in the upper one has first passed in; and before this takes place, except in very severe and cloudy weather, the rays of the sun will again find their way into the house, and furnish a fresh quantity of heated air. In severe weather, Dr. Anderson preserves the heat of the house at a proper degree, by means of a single Argand lamp.

We have no doubt that houses on this construction will be found more regular in their heat, and much more economical than those on the usual plan, though we are by no means disposed to attribute to them so vast a superiority as Dr. Anderson does; who, though he is himself possessed of a hot-house built according to his own plan, declines giving us the result of any experiments made in it, on account of "various unavoidable mistakes in a first construction."

ART. VIII. *A Treatise on the Culture and Management of Fruit Trees, &c. By* WILLIAM FORSYTH, *F. R. S. & F. S. A. Gardener to his Majesty at Kensington and St. James's.* 8vo. Third Edition.

IN our former volume, p. 767, we have given a particular account of this valuable work, and have noticed the controversy between Mr. Forsyth and Mr. Knight, relative to the efficacy of the new mode of treatment introduced by Mr. Forsyth, in renovating the vigour of decayed and worn-out trees. We shall, therefore, content ourselves with extracting, without further comment, the postscript to the present edition.

"Since the printing of this third edition was completed, I have been fortunate enough to have derived an accession of most respectable testimonials, tending to remove any doubts that may have arisen in the public mind respecting the verity of my statements on the subject of my composition.

"The visit which I had the honour to receive from the undersigned gentlemen was wholly unexpected on my part; originating, as I am given to understand, solely from a conversation among themselves, and a desire on the part of some of the company to remove the doubts of the others.

'*To Mr. Forsyth, Royal Gardens, Kensington.*

'SIR,

'As you had the goodness lately to give us an opportunity of examining several trees in Kensington Gardens, in the various stages of renovation, or filling-up with new wood; and as reports have been circulated, tending to discredit the efficacy of your process;—we feel it an act of justice, not only to you, but to the country, which is deeply interested in your discoveries, thus publicly to declare, that the statements you have published on the subject contain nothing more than the truth.

J. C. LETSOM, M. D. F. R. S. &c.
WILLIAM WOODVILLE, M. D.
JAMES SIMS, M. D.
WILLIAM NORRIS.
JOSEPH HART MYERS, M. D.
ASTLEY COOPER.
EDWARD COLEMAN.
H. N. WILLIS, F. R. S. &c.'

'*London, Nov.* 17, 1803.'

Digitized by Google

"I also avail myself of this opportunity to add a discovery which I have recently made; and which, as being calculated to save time and labour, may deserve attention.

"Instead of paring away the bark, as had heretofore been the practice, and covering the stem with the composition, I now merely scrape off the loose bark, and apply a mixture of cow-dung and urine only (made to the consistence of a thick paint), with a painter's brush; covering the stem carefully over. This softens the old scabrous bark, which peels off during the following winter and spring, and is succeeded by a fine smooth new bark.

W. FORSYTH."

ART. IX. *Prize Essays and Transactions of the Highland Society of Scotland. To which is prefixed an Account of the principal Proceedings of the Society since* 1789. *By* HENRY MACKENZIE, *Esq. one of the Directors.* vol. 2d. 8vo. pp. 540.

WE welcome with peculiar pleasure the appearance of a second volume of the transactions of this philosophical and truly patriotic society. It had been too much the custom to consider a large proportion of the western and Highland districts of Scotland, from the poverty of the soil and inclemency of the seasons, as condemned by nature to perpetual sterility. The only valuable produce of which they were supposed capable, was that of a hardy and valiant race of soldiers, whom it was both politic and humane to allure from their storm-clad mountains, and send them to sustain in every climate the untarnished honours of the British standard: at the command, and under the guidance of their hereditary chieftains, from every rocky island, from every piny mountain, from every grassy glen, poured forth, battalion after battalion, an unintermitted stream of heroes, eager to confirm their claim to the high unconquered spirit of ancient Caledonia. Nor have their efforts been in vain: Canada and Holland, Egypt and India, have witnessed their enduring patience of every hardship, and the disciplined impetuosity of their native valour. But peace, as well as war, has her triumphs: to establish villages amidst the waste, to drain the black morass, and cover its unsightly barrenness with green herbage, to border the lonely torrent with bleach fields, and swell its murmurs with the sound of the loom; to establish seats of commerce upon the unfrequented shores, and to draw food and wealth from the inhospitable sea—these are the great objects of the Highland Society, these are its claims to the esteem and respect of the public.

The first article in the volume before us is an elaborate essay by the late Dr. Walker, Natural History Professor in the University of Edinburgh, on the origin, properties, and uses of peat.

Peat is produced from the successive decay of trees and smaller vegetables in all countries, where the heat is not sufficient to effect their total decomposition. Some of the peat-mosses are of modern formation, but by far the greater number, in countries that have been long inhabited and civilized, are of very ancient origin. In the bogs of Scotland are found the horns of the bison, of the elk, and a still larger animal of the stag-kind, although these animals have from time immemorial been extinct in the island. The deep peat-mosses, containing the trunks of trees, are probably the most ancient, having been formed by the successive decay of several generations of timber: of this a remarkable instance is noticed by Dr. Walker in Strathcluony, in Invernessshire.

"This is a very high inland tract, being the water-shed of the country between the two seas. It has formerly been a very thick extensive fir wood; but there are now only some very old scattered trees standing in it. These have all flat bushy heads, leaning to the east, but the trunks are large, and consist of the finest timber. This wood having worn out of itself, has left behind it a thick body of peat moss, formed during the long period of its growth and decay. Large roots of fir trees, which had evidently been broken over by the winds, were observed in this place. Some of these roots, with part of the trunk, in their natural position, were seen at the bottom of the peat stratum, placed in the gravelly loam on which they had grown; but above this loam there was a stratum of peat, about three feet deep, evidently formed during the growth and decay of these trees. In some places the old roots of other fir trees were seen two or three feet immediately above the former, with their fangs spread horizontally, having three or four feet of peat above them. It was clear that these roots belonged to trees of another generation, and of a date much posterior to the former; for they had only begun to grow after the trees rooted in the loam had utterly decayed, and after the three intervening feet of peat had been formed by their growth and decay; and again over

these last roots, situated about three or four feet deep in the peat earth, an aged fir was growing on the surface. There were here then three generations, or, as it were, three tire of trees, visibly placed above one another. This renders it probable that many of our deepest peat mosses, not shifted by water, have been produced by two, three, or more generations of trees, which have grown successively above one another at different and distant periods."

The antiseptic property of peat is very remarkable; and not only are the horns of animals, extinct for many centuries, preserved in it to the present day, but timber and even human bodies remain a long time without exhibiting any signs of decay when buried in peat. Nor does this antiseptic quality reside alone in the mass of peat, for it communicated in a very considerable degree to the brown-coloured water which flows from it. Captain Cook, having to water his ship on the coast of Terra del Fuego, was obliged for this purpose to have recourse to a brook,

"The water of which was of a reddish hue, like that which runs from the turf bogs in England. This, no doubt, was moss water. He was, at first, suspicious of its quality, and used it sparingly; but after having it long aboard, and in warm climates, it proved the best water he took in during the whole voyage. It would appear from his account that it never became putrid; and it is highly probable that moss water, or water artificially impregnated with peat, would be more salutary, and remain longer unchanged, especially in the hot latitudes, than any other river or standing water whatever."

Peat mosses in their natural state, or even when simply drained, are not capable of bearing any valuable agricultural crops; but by being covered with calcareous earth, either in the form of quicklime, or shells, or marl, it is consolidated, and in a short time converted into good pasture ground, which by judicious arrangement may be brought to bear the usual courses of tillage.

A singular and successful method of reclaiming the peat-mass of Kincardine was practised by the amiable Lord Kaimes, and his worthy son Mr. Drummond.

"The moss consists of about fifteen hundred acres, and is in general from three to ten feet deep; it is bottomed by a fine clay, which, on cultivation, turns out a fertile soil. When the superincumbent moss is floated away in canals to the Forth, this clay becomes the object and the reward of the cultivator.

"The improvement of the moss in this way began in the year 1768; and in May 1796, about four hundred acres were reclaimed and cultivated. On these acres there were raised two thousand four hundred bolls of grain, and they supported fifty-four horses and two hundred and one cows, where formerly there was no sustenance to any creature except moorfowl. They had upon them one hundred and two brick houses, and seven hundred and sixty-four inhabitants, all fully employed, and living comfortably, where no human creature ever lived before."

Some extremely valuable facts by Lord Meadowbank, respecting the use of peat as a manure, are contained in the second paper of the present volume. From this it appears that if three parts of peat and one of fresh farm-yard dung are mixed together, a general fermentation of the whole mass ensues, and in the course of a few weeks it is converted into a black free mass like garden mould, which in a course of cropping is found to be fully equivalent to an equal weight of farm-yard dung. But the most advantageous way of preparing peat is, first to weaken its texture by mixture with leaves, weeds, or any sort of litter, and then to expose it to the vapour of animal matter in a state of putrefaction. "In this way," says Lord Meadowbank, "the carcass of one dead horse, with sawings of timber and peat, prepared ten ton of manure in somewhat less than ten months, and it was turned over only once, and that at the beginning of the ninth month, when a small quantity of lime rubbish from an old wall was added, in order to quicken the preparation."

Another valuable memoir by Dr. Walker, entitled "Remarks on the Cattle and Corn of the Highlands" is contained in this volume. Its interest however, being chiefly local, must be our excuse for taking no further notice of it. For the same reason we shall pass over some other papers by different correspondents, relative to the management of black cattle on the Highland farms, and other branches of rural economy peculiar to Scotland.

Mr. Somerville of Haddington is the author of a paper concerning the management of heath or heather, which is annually burnt in order to induce a crop of fresh shoots for the sheep. The proper time for burning the heath is as early in the spring as possible; the old shoots are at this time almost sapless, and therefore take fire readily; the roots are not injured, and the ashes serve very opportunely as a manure and stimulus to the

Digitized by Google

young shoots, which soon put forth in great luxuriance; but if the heath is burnt when it is in flower, the whole plant is consumed to the very roots, and killed. When a piece of ground is required to be permanently freed from heath, a top dressing of lime is infallibly effectual, and is attended with this additional advantage, that it remarkably encourages the growth of white clover and the finer grasses.

The encouragement of the Scottish fisheries forms an important object of the Highland Society, and the volume before us contains several very interesting memoirs, relative to the natural history, the commercial and economical value of herrings and salmon.

Respecting the first of these fishes, Dr. Walker has communicated an extremely curious and interesting memoir; of this we shall not attempt to give an abstract, but shall state the author's opinion respecting some controverted points in the natural history of this animal. The spawning time of the herring extends from the beginning of March till the middle of October. The manner in which they deposit the spawn is unknown, but their favourite situation for this purpose is a coarse gravel, at the depth of ten or twelve fathoms. The spawn generally comes to life in the end of April or the beginning of May; in June the fry is between one and two inches long; by September they have attained the length of three or four inches, at which period they disappear. It is the opinion of the fishers that the herrings are not of a sufficient size to be meshed in the nets till they have compleated their third year. The food of herrings is very little known; during their continuance on the British coasts they become sensibly leaner, and no food has ever been discovered in their stomachs. Dr. W. however has been informed that, in the sea to the N. W. of the Shetland isles, large masses of a mucilaginous substance, filled with pea-like globules, have been found floating on the surface (probably a species of Medusa) on which the herrings have been observed to feed. The great body of herrings appears certainly to come from the deep Arctic seas for the purpose of spawning; one of these shoals was seen by Provost Finlay of Campbelton, an experienced fisher, and was estimated by him at twenty leagues in length and four or five in breadth; the heads of all the fish were directed to the S. E. and the weather being fine the shoal came quite to the surface of the water. The herrings of the west coast are in general two or three inches longer than those on the east coast. Dr. W. does not, however, consider them as a distinct species, but imagines, (in our opinion, with much probability) that the western sea, on account of its being more tempestuous, is occupied by the oldest and strongest shoals.

Mr. Mackenzie has also communicated a paper on the same subject, in which we observe some difference of opinion between him and the professor. Mr. Mackenzie supposes the large herrings to be a distinct species, and to spawn twice in the year: viz. about the middle of August and at Christmas; after the first spawning they retire to the deeps, and do not return till towards Christmas; this appears, however, to apply chiefly to the large herrings of Dunbar and the eastern coast. The largest herring ever taken was caught about five years ago by the fishers of Musselburgh, and weighed full six pounds.

The volume before us is also enriched by a particular and authentic account of the Dutch herring fishery, and a translation of the ordinance of the states of Holland and West Friesland, respecting the sorting and curing these fish.

If it was consistent with our plan to give a more particular account of the works that come before us, we should abstract with great pleasure two valuable papers relative to the salmon, by Dr. Walker and Archibald Drummond, Esq. and an interesting treatise on the Scottish fisheries by Mr. Melville. The appendix to this volume is chiefly occupied with a method, invented by Mr. Bremner, a minister in Orkney, of converting, in a few minutes, a common ship's boat into a life-boat, for which the society has awarded him a premium.

We do not suppose that any praises of ours can add to the well-earned reputation of the Highland Society; but we should be at the same time unmindful of our duty, and negligent of our own feelings, if we were to dismiss, without our warmest approbation, a work which is equally valuable to the naturalist and practical cultivator, and which reflects the highest credit on the association whence it has originated.

Digitized by Google

CHAPTER XVIII.

MEDICINE, SURGERY, ANATOMY,

AND

THE VETERINARY ART.

A VERY large increase has taken place in the number of publications on these branches of science which we have this year to present to our readers; nor is the addition merely that of number; for amidst much temporary and insignificant matter, we may select a portion which deserves a permanent place in our libraries.

The well-earned reputation of the late Dr. Fordyce will not be diminished by the last of his Essays on Fever; Dr. Cheyne has given a useful treatise on a set of morbid symptoms in infants which bring thousands to an untimely grave, and among the practical works we may also distinguish Dr. Blackburne's description of scarlet fever. The extreme prevalence of the epidemic catarrh, or influenza last spring gave rise to several smaller publications of temporary interest, but derived from too partial observation to determine the very few questions of permanent importance connected with its rise and propagation. The most original of the publications of the year is unquestionably Dr. Beddoes's series of popular essays on the preservation of health, the work of no common observer, and characteristic both in its excellencies and defects. Two additions of considerable value have been made to the now familiar subject of Cow-Pox: Mr. Ring's marked by comprehensive diffuseness, that of Dr. Pearson and his colleagues distinguished by aphoristic condensation and perspicuity.

Surgery has received the accession of Mr. Hey's valuable practical remarks, the long experience of a *miles emeritus*; the treatise on Hernia by the younger Monro, inaugural to the assumption of a professional chair, rich in hereditary reputation and deeply pledged to the world for pre-eminent abilities; Mr. Home's further observations on stricture, and practical testimony to the importance of a particular mode of surgical treatment; and Mr. Tryc's remarks on a formidable and somewhat rare species of external injury.

Mr. Bell in completing his system of anatomy has supplied a deficiency long felt in our libraries. Professor Walter's beautiful plates of the abdominal and thoracic nerves, together with Mr. Bell's elegant system of neurology, and some other anatomical engravings, will materially assist the student of anatomy; and the plan of nomenclature sketched by Dr. Barclay demands the attention of all who teach this admirable science. To these we may add Mr. Fox's treatise on the teeth, a valuable work on a subject hitherto somewhat neglected.

Elementary introductions to medical science and slight general treatises croud upon us with profusion. It is not difficult for any one possessed of industry and educated in the midst of lectures on every science, and furnished with elementary

Digitized by Google

cooks of standing reputation, to compile a decent work of the kind; and there will never be any want of superficial students to become his readers.

In the class of Pharmacy and medical Chemistry the authorized reform of the Edinburgh Pharmacopeia, and the proposed improvement of the Paris codex by La Grange are both entitled to notice. They shew (especially the latter work) a very marked and almost exclusive attention to the chemical part of pharmacy. Dr. Lambe has thrown a very wide suspicion on the management of an essential part of domestic economy in his remarks on Spring Water; and Dr. Gibbes dwells on the mystic virtues of Bath-waters with the zeal of a devotee.

We have added Galvanism to the present chapter, as a subject of great and increasing importance to the study of Physiology. The originl experiments of Professor Aldini of Bologna are marked with Italian ingenuity and acuteness.

Among the miscellaneous publications Dr. Percival's Medical Ethics will please by the amiable spirit which it exhibits, and the liberal conduct which it inculcates.

ART. I. *Annals of Medicine for the Year* 1802; *exhibiting a concise View of the latest and most important Discoveries in Medicine and Medical Philosophy. By* ANDREW DUNCAN, *sen. M. D. and* ANDREW DUNCAN, *jun. M. D. Fellows of the Royal College of Physicians, Edinburgh.*

THE analysis of books occupies, as usual, the first part of this work, which we pass over, in order to give an account of the original communications contained in the second.

1. "Observations on bilious disorders, extracted from a letter dated from the river Ganges, in 1770, to a friend. By John Sherwen, M. D. formerly surgeon in the service of the Honourable East India Company, now physician at Enfield. Continued from our last volume."

The proximate cause of bilious disorders, the author considers to be an excited state of the liver, produced by an effort of nature to throw off bile from the system. Bilious remittent fevers are trusted, by the natives of India, to nature and cold water, taken *ad libitum*. The author's experience led him to aim at the evacuation of bilious matter from the stomach and bowels, by emetics and purgatives, and at the removal of the fever by means of small doses of emetic tartar, large draughts of the saline mixture, anodynes, and the peruvian bark. At the same time, it was necessary to attend, during the disorder, to the more urgent symptoms. The propensity to the use of cold water, now so successfully employed in this country, in the early periods of fever, was often remarked by the author.

"During the febrile delirium, the patient had often a strong inclination to leap into the river. It was with much difficulty that I prevented two of my patients from taking this fatal step; and I have a confused remembrance of a longing inclination, which I myself had when in this situation, to get into the river. Very fortunate for me, I was too weak to get out of my cot; but I can remember, I thought I should be perfectly easy if I could but leap from the cabin windows into the water."

The other remarks in this paper are on the subject of dysentery, enlarged liver, and prickly heat; but they contain nothing particularly worthy of notice.

2. "Observations on the duration and course of fever in Britain, and on the efficacy of medicine in interrupting its course, and in shortening its duration By William Brown, M. D. one of the surgeons to the Royal Infirmary of Edinburgh."

To the interesting subjects of inquiry which the author has prosecuted in the present paper, he had an opportunity of attending, several years ago, by obtaining access to the records of a well-regulated hospital. The doctrine of critical days appeared to him an object worthy attention; and he therefore took some pains to enquire into the periods of the termination of fever. From a statement which is given, it appears, that out of 280 cases, 172 terminated on critical days; which is a proportion falling short of what is recorded by Hippocrates. But in some other respects, also, there is a difference between the two statements.

Digitized by Google

"Terminations on the 8th, 10th, 12th, 15th, 16th, 18th, and 19th, in the cases of Hippocrates, amount to no more than one-ninth of the whole; while our calculation makes the endings on these days to include almost all the instances of terminations of fever on days non-critical. We also have seventeen terminations on the thirteenth day, on which none were observed by Hippocrates. His terminations on the sixth are considerable in number; ours, on the contrary, are very few."

Recoveries, the author also had occasion to observe, were as speedy, after terminations on non-critical days, as any others.

From the examination of the records of 296 cases, which he has digested into the form of a table, the author considers it as probable

"——— that fever is an affection that is not to be overcome but by the exertions of the system itself. If this be allowed, all that ought to be done toward its cure, is to remove or prevent any such derangement of the functions as are incompatible with the continuance of life. This done, we may trust what is farther to be performed to nature alone."

Though he denies that medicine has in general any power of terminating the febrile state, or shortening the duration of the disease, he deems it efficacious in the cure of fever, by frequently serving to protract the complaint. The author is silent on the effects of the cold affusion, lately employed in the early stages of fever, but mentions having seen the disease arrested in its course by a medicine, which operated by violently vomiting and purging, and afterwards produced profuse perspiration. It was used by a Mr. Warren, on board one of his majesty's ships, but the composition was unknown.

8. "History of the case of a man, who discharged by the anus a portion of the intestines full thirteen inches in length. By Mr. John Bower, of Doncaster. Communicated by Dr. George Pearson, of London."

The subject of this history, aged 40, had the misfortune, in the year 1796, to be rode over by a stage-coach. One of the wheels passed over his abdomen, between the navel and pubis, and left a mark of the injury. By proper means he was in a fortnight considerably recovered; but on the seventeenth day from the accident, he was seized with a great general debility, which continued ten minutes, and returned the following night. On the subsequent morning

"—he parted, *per anum*, with full fourteen inches of his intestines, apparently a portion of the ilium, with a part of the mesentery adhering to it; after which, he had a lax stool, more in quantity than he ever got quit of at one time since the accident. He continued in a laxed state for two or three weeks (tho' he could retain his feces) when a tumour appeared below the navel, and in a few weeks broke, and discharged a large quantity of matter, having a yellowish tinct, and a faint smell of feces. At times, his body would be so much distended with wind, as to force out the discharge to the distance of a yard or two. He got strength gradually, and, in harvest time, was able to walk into the fields. When winter approached he was obliged to keep in the house, and frequently in bed, as three or four small tumours appeared at different times, and broke; so that now there are five orifices. The two first which broke, are a little above the pubis; the third, about one and a half inch below the navel, and the two last just above Poupart's ligament."

In the year 1801 he was living, and his general health was much improved. His stools were frequent, and he was much troubled with flatulence, but most of the latter was discharged through the orifices, two of which were open. The gut discharged was considered by Dr. Monro and Mr. Thomas, as an intussusceptio, which had sloughed off.

4. "The history of a recovery from a singular species of hiccup, which had subsisted for several months. By Dr. John Nelson Scott, physician in the Isle of Mann."

This complaint occurred in a young lady of a plethoric habit, and was only suspended during sleep. Various medicines were employed without advantage; in about six months after a change of residence, the complaint disappeared without any obvious cause. In three years it again returned, and the author, after trying sulphur without effect, at last succeeded in removing it, by the application of a blister, so large as to cover the whole of the cervical vertebræ.

5. "Communication on the good effects of the affusion of cold water in Typhus. By Dr. John Nelson Scott, physician in the Isle of Wight."

Dr. Scott's experience confirms that of Dr. Currie, on the good effects of cold affusion; but he suggests to the consideration of medical men the propriety of giving an emetic dose of tartrite of antimony some considerable time previous to the washing, by way of still further assisting in cutting short the 'morbid catenation of the system.' Attention is of course required by the author to the

state of the skin, previous to the affusion being employed, and hence the necessity of giving the emetic a considerable time previous to the washing, that the condition of the skin, from perspiration, &c. may not render it unfit for the application of the cold water.

6. "History of a remarkable case of diabetes, treated in the Royal Infirmary of Edinburgh, and extracted from the records of that hospital."

This is the detail of a case, mentioned in the last volume of the Annals of Medicine, as having been cured by the use of lime water and powder of galls.

7. "History of a considerable wound of the brain, attended with singular circumstances. By Mr. Edward Barlow, student of medicine at Edinburgh, from Westmeath, Ireland."

The patient, a boy of about 14 years of age, received a kick from a horse above the orbit, by which a large fracture was produced, and many of the broken pieces of the skull driven into the substance of the brain. Portions of the brain also escaped through the opening. The symptoms were very unfavourable during the first week, but in the second they began to improve. Early on the third, however, the suppuration, gradually increasing, became profuse, and as it was undiminished by the use of bark, an examination became necessary into the circumstances which kept it up. This examination discovered, that the discharge which wetted the bandages, nightcap, and even the pillow, 'was distinct from the purulent matter which the ulcerated surface afforded.'

"——That it came from the internal part of the wound, and was perfectly watery, as it now appeared distilling in quick successive pellucid drops from the eye-brow, unmixed with any purulent matter, which would naturally have impaired its transparency."

Various speculations on the source of this discharge were made; but the only probable one seemed to be, that a piece of the bone had penetrated the left ventricle of the brain, and that the fluid discharged was an increased secretion from its cavity. Calomel with opium, and afterwards peruvian bark were employed to remove it, and with success. The boy recovered his health, but his vision remained in a slight degree affected.

8. "Case of a gun-shot wound, with a division of the femoral artery. By Mr. David Aitken, assistant-surgeon of his majesty's ship Overyssel."

The termination was fatal, and the circumstance chiefly remarkable in the case, was the state of the wounded artery.

"The artery, just about to enter the ham, was completely divided by the ball, its two ends fairly separated from each other, yet accompanied by no immediate hæmorrhagy, nor followed by that which was to be dreaded after the sloughs had been thrown off. There was not even any internal bleeding; there was no aneurism; but the divided artery was shrunk, and closed; the circulation was destroyed in the limb, and the leg perished before nature had forced open other channels for conveying blood to the parts below the wound."

9. "A Letter from Dr. G. D. Yeats, physician at Bedford, to Dr. Duncan, giving an account of the good effects obtained from a combination of calomel and opium in inflammatory diseases; with observations on effects arising from the acetite of copper, and on some other important subjects in the practice of medicine."

The author was led to the employment of calomel and opium conjoined, in inflammatory complaints, from the recommendation of Dr. Hamilton, of Lyme Regis, who wrote a paper upon the subject in the ninth volume of the Medical Commentaries. Acute rheumatism, enteritis, and pleurisies, were the complaints in which this combination was found most useful. A case is given in which bleeding, blistering, nitrous and antimonial medicines had all been employed without advantage, for very violent pneumonic symptoms, indicated by incessant cough, acute pain of the side, strong, full, and quick pulse, with violent exacervations of fever. Repeated doses of calomel and opium were then had recourse to, which, in a short time, gave great relief, and as soon as the mouth became sore, produced a cessation of every bad symptom.

Another case is annexed, to shew the inefficacy of nitrous acid in syphilitic complaints, and of mercury without a due regard to diet.

Some very serious symptoms are mentioned, as having occurred in a family who had eaten pickled salmon, supposed to have had an impregnation of verdigris. They went off by the use of sulphur given in large doses. A case of diseased liver is also inserted, in which

hydatids were coughed up by an opening through the diaphragm, with some relief to the patient. The case was under the author's care at the time of this communication being made.

10. "Remarkable cases of convulsions, with some observations on the hæmorrhois petechialis, or petechiæ sine febre. Communicated to Dr. Duncan, jun. By Dr. Albers, physician in Bremen."

In the first of those cases, the convulsions seem to be produced by the irritation of an abscess in the ear; in the second by an intussusceptio of the intestine. An intussusceptio was likewise observed in the dissection of a Mexican boy, which died of convulsions. The case of petechiæ sine febre is no way remarkable. The patient had a discharge of blood from the gums, and the body was covered with petechiæ. He was cured by decoction of bark acidulated.

11. "History of a singular case of an extra uterine fœtus, discharged by the rectum. By Mr. John Goodsir, surgeon at Largo."

About the seventh month of pregnancy the patient felt the child give a violent struggle, and at once its motion ceased. Symptoms of labour now came on, and continued six or seven weeks. The patient gradually recovered for as many months, and was then seized with a fever, during which she had frequent symptoms of labour. She gradually lost ground, but in a short time observed a thick whitish substance to be discharged from the rectum, and on passing her finger upwards discovered something hard, which was found by the author to be the cranium of the child. With considerable difficulty, and after a good deal of time, the whole was brought away, and the mother did well.

12. "Observation sur la Cataracte. Par A. Mounot, professeur d'Anatomie & d'Accouchement à Besançon. Communicated by Dr. Inglis."

After giving a general history of this operation, the author mentions the usual mode of extracting a cataract; but as he has frequently found that the operation is unsuccessful, from inflammation attacking the capsule of the crystalline lens, he proposes, immediately after the extraction, "to direct to the posterior part of the capsule the same instrument by which it was divided anteriorly, and to cut it by a crucial incision. Thus the vitreous humour replaces the crystalline, the pupil is dilated, the eye is bright and without clouds, and the patient perceives all the objects which present themselves."

The remainder of this volume is occupied, as usual, with several articles of medical intelligence, and with a list of new books and inaugural dissertations published during the year 1802.

ART. II. *Medical Directions, for the Use of Navigators, and Settlers in Hot Climates. By* THOMAS M. WINTERBOTTOM, *M. D. Physician to the Colony at Sierra Leone.* pp. 144.

THE author's long official residence at Sierra Leone, gave him an opportunity of acquiring considerable experience in the diseases of hot climates; and the present work is intended to communicate the results of it, to such as may have occasion to be exposed to the warmth of the torrid zone. His observations are not entirely confined to his own experience; as it is his wish to provide general practical directions, for the management of health, and the treatment of diseases in tropical climates, for the use of such persons in particular, as may not have the advantages of medical advice. The directions given for the diagnosis and cure of diseases, will not, therefore, be expected to contain more than is already familiar to the practitioner who is at all acquainted with the complaints incidental to hot climates. It may be observed of them, however, that they are concise and perspicuous, and, in proper hands, may be useful. The advice given to settlers, though it is that which will apply in a great degree to any climate, appears to be the result of personal observation, and we have no doubt, if it is attended to, will prove useful.

The principal circumstances to which their attention is required, are, sobriety in eating and drinking, early hours, moderate exercise in the cool of the day, flannel clothing, and the removal of costiveness. Bleeding immediately after arrival, bark and bitters, emeties, and cold bathing, appear to the author to be injurious. The unpleasant sensations frequently experienced in the mornings are more effectually removed by a light breakfast than any thing medicinal.

Digitized by Google

ART. III. *A Treatise on Tropical Diseases, on Military Operations, and on the Climate of the West Indies. By* BENJAMIN MOSLEY, *M. D. Author of a Treatise on Coffee, Medical Tracts, and Physician to Chelsea Hospital, Member of the College of Physicians of London, of the University of Leyden, of the American Philosophical Society at Philadelphia, &c. &c. Fourth Edition, with considerable Additions.* pp. 670.

AS it is a considerable time since this work first appeared, we conclude that it is sufficiently known to the public, not to require any particular examination in a fourth edition. The author has long been convinced, that the moon exercises considerable influence over the human body, and that certain diseases are much more likely to return during a few days before and after the full and change, than at any other periods. This, he remarked in a former edition, was peculiarly exemplified in hæmoptysis, of which he gave several cases in confirmation. In the present edition, he devotes a whole chapter to the influence of the moon, in which he gives a long history of the ideas entertained on this subject by ancient authors, and a great number of examples to prove its powerful agency, relative to diseases and death. The author's practice in the West Indies, has afforded him the greatest number of instances of the effects of the moon in the production of diseases; but in this country, he has also had occasion to see many examples of the same kind, as well in hæmoptysis, as in paralysis, apoplexy, and some other complaints. In Chelsea hospital, the author observes, that in the course of fifteen years, he has rarely known an instance of either apoplexy or palsy happening at any other time than the full or the change of the moon. The same extensive establishment afforded him an opportunity of determining, that almost all people in extreme age, are either attacked with their death illness, or die, at the new or at the full moon; and in consumption and chronical diseases, the same is commonly the case. In the hospital for French protestants and their descendants, in Old-street, the whole number of deaths of persons above the age of seventy, amounted to two hundred and one, and

"Of these seventy-four died at the full moon, and sixty-one at the new moon. The remaining sixty-one, seven excepted, died at and within forty-eight hours of the quarters."

The author also observes,

"That in this asylum, where there are considerably more females than males—about three to two—that the full moon has the superiority in influence. At Chelsea hospital, where there are none but males, the new moon has the superiority."

The same inferences are supported by various instances, which are adduced, of the most remarkably aged people, who have been known in the world. Births and conceptions are also said to be under the influence of this planet.

With regard to the utility of the observations which have been thus industriously collected by the author, he is of opinion, that by knowing the time when certain causes produce uniform effects in generating diseases, and the periods when relapses are apt to happen, many disorders may be palliated or prevented.

"The mischief," for instance, "of hæmorrhages from the lungs, a dreadful disorder in England, which, in the ordinary methods pursued, invariably end in consumption, may be effectually prevented at first; by taking proper measures, three days before every new and full moon; and continuing the regimen, and precautions, three days after each period, until all disposition to hæmorrhage ceases.

"By these means I have cured a great many people; and have long protracted, in incurable cases, the lives of others.

"Short-necked, comatose, plethoric, gross people, where any mischief is latent, are always affected near the new and full moon. Such habits should be carefully watched a few days previous to these periods; and if any symptom, indicative of apoplexy, be observed, how easily is the storm prevented,—by bleeding, cupping, purging, revulsion, abstinence;—or such prompt measures as the case may require.

"In paralytic disorders, so lamely defined by nosologists, the head is constantly confused and giddy for some time before the attack; and there is always a weakness in the knees. This sudden failure of the strength of the knees, has never been noticed in medicine before. But it is, if accompanied with any disturbance in the head, particularly near the new moon, the certain fore-warning of some great changes, which the habit is about to experience, and in extreme age, it presages death.

"In people disposed to palsy, or such as have already had some paralytic affection, this is the time to take alarm; and with vigilance the blow may be warded off."

Epilepsy and St. Vitus's dance are also

Digitized by Google

represented to be remarkably under the influence of the moon, and hence any attempts to cure should be made three days previous to every new or full moon. We are very much inclined to suspect, that the author speaks with too much confidence, on the facility with which the former disease may always be cured in young people, and that bark, steel, oil of amber, misletoe, and valerian, even when employed at the periods mentioned by him, will often be found inefficacious.

ART. IV. *Medical Ethics; or a Code of Institutes and Precepts adapted to the professional Conduct of Physicians and Surgeons. With an Appendix, containing a Discourse on Hospital Duties; also Notes and Illustrations. By* THOMAS PERCIVAL, *M. D. F. R. S. and A. S. Lond. F. R. S. and R. M. S. Edinb. &c. &c.* 8vo. pp. 246.

A VERY important part of the knowledge which a liberal practitioner in medicine ought to possess, relates to the conduct to be pursued in his intercourse with the world, and with his brethren in the profession. The medical art in this country has long maintained a very elevated rank, as well on account of its acknowledged utility, as the learning and abilities of its professors. The qualifications necessary to make a physician serviceable in his profession, are not of a nature to be duly estimated by the public. It is naturally however expected as a criterion, and in general not an unfair one, of his medical skill, that he should possess general learning and information, with a refinement of manner, and a liberality of conduct, which bespeak the well educated gentleman. A certain degree of acquaintance with the world is necessary to furnish that knowledge of mind and manners which are essential to a respectable advancement, and we doubt not that the work now before us, will prove extremely useful to the young and ingenuous practitioner, by furnishing him with the rules of professional conduct which have been laid down by a learned and liberal minded physician, after a long life of reputation and utility.

The present work originated in a code of laws which the author was requested to draw up in the year 1792, for the use of the infirmary of Manchester. He was afterwards induced to extend his plan, but various circumstances, for some years interrupted it, particularly the death of a very promising son for whose particular use his labours were intended.

The 1st chapter contains the code of laws above mentioned, and treats of professional conduct, relative to hospitals and other medical charities. It is not to be expected that much novelty should be here introduced. The author has given a summary of the mode of conducting public business, in a way the most satisfactory and useful to the practitioner, and the most agreeable and beneficial to the patient. The principal objects which he inculcates are, tender and delicate attentions to the patient, and a liberal and unrestrained intercourse among the medical attendants. The advantage of the sick must necessarily be the first point of attention, but with this he always wishes to connect the improvement of the profession. Most of the injunctions which are laid down for the conduct of the practitioner to the patient, are highly proper, but feelings of delicacy may perhaps be carried too far, when it is said, that they should always be interrogated concerning their complaints in a tone of voice which cannot be overheard. Circumstances may certainly occur, particularly with females, when such an injunction is proper; but as a general rule, it seems to us very unnecessary, and will frequently deprive the attending pupils of very desireable information. Many important remarks occur in this chapter, on the utility and management of dispensaries, lunatic hospitals, and lock hospitals, which are equally creditable to the author's judgment as a physician, and to his feelings as a man. The two next chapters treat of professional conduct in private and general practice, and of the behaviour of physicians to apothecaries. The leading circumstances inculcated are, liberality of conduct to the patient, and medical brethren, and a strict regard to morality in general behaviour. Viewing medicine as a profession by which a man is to be supported, a certain attention to personal interest is necessarily required. The respectability of the profession should never, however, be sacrificed to motives of private interest, and it always becomes the practitioner to exercise a great liberality of conduct to those patients, whose situation in life may not make it convenient to obey their own feelings in the acknowledgment made. It is proper however to do our profes-

Digitized by Google

sion the justice to say, that, with a very few exceptions, there is every disposition to take into consideration the circumstances in which patients happen to be placed.

The following remarks are well worthy the serious attention of the candid physician.

"At the close of every interesting and important case, especially when it hath terminated fatally, a physician should trace back in calm reflection, all the steps which he had taken in the treatment of it. This review of the origin, progress, and conclusion of the malady; of the whole curative plan pursued; and of the particular operation of the several remedies employed, as well as of the doses and periods of time in which they were administered, will furnish the most authentic documents, on which individual experience can be formed. But it is in a moral view that the practice is here recommended; and it should be performed with the most scrupulous impartiality. Let no self-deception be permitted in the retrospect; and if errors, either of omission or commission, are discovered, it behoves that they should be brought fairly and fully to the mental view. Regrets may follow, but criminality will thus be obviated. For good intentions, and the imperfection of human skill which cannot anticipate the knowledge that events alone disclose, will sufficiently justify what is past, provided the failure be made conscientiously subservient to future wisdom and rectitude in professional conduct."

The commencement of that period of senescence when it is incumbent on a physician to decline the offices of his profession, it is not easy to ascertain, and the decision of so nice a point, the author justly observes, must be left to the moral discretion of the individual.

"As age advances, therefore, a physician should, from time to time, scrutinise impartially the state of his faculties; that he may determine, *bona fide*, the precise degree in which he is qualified to execute the active and multifarious offices of his profession. And whenever he becomes conscious that his memory presents to him, with faintness, those analogies, on which medical reasoning and the treatment of diseases are founded; that diffidence of the measures to be pursued perplexes his judgment; that, from a deficiency in the acuteness of his senses, he finds himself less able to distinguish signs, or to prognosticate events; he should at once resolve, though others perceive not the changes which have taken place, to sacrifice every consideration of fame or fortune, and to retire from the engagements of business."

With regard to the behaviour of physicians to apothecaries, the author recommends every proper attention to that very useful class of men, who are generally the precursors of physicians, and with whom an amicable intercourse, and co-operation, if conducted with regard to decorum and etiquette, (which should always be steadily observed) will add to the authority of the one, the respectability of the other, and the usefulness of both.

The 4th chapter treats of professional duties in cases which require a knowledge of law. In many circumstances in which physicians and surgeons may be placed, it is desirable for them to have not only a certain acquaintance with the principles of jurisprudence, but of the forms and regulations adopted in courts of judicature. The necessity of such a knowledge, will evidently appear from the perusal of this chapter, in which much useful information is given on the subject. An extensive appendix is added to this valuable work, which contains a sermon on hospital duties preached by the author's son, in the year 1791, for the benefit of the infirmary at Liverpool, and a variety of notes and illustrations connected with the subjects of the preceding pages, and equally deserving a minute attention.

ART. V. *Observations on the Constitution of Women, and on some of the Diseases to which they are more especially liable. By* SAYER WALKER, *M. D. of the Royal College of Physicians London, Physician to the City of London Lying-in-Hospital, and to the City Dispensary.* 12mo. pp. 228.

THE diseases of women form a large and important branch of medical practice, and have received from the author, more than ordinary attention, during a long period in which he has acted as physician to an extensive lying-in charity. His work may be regarded as a useful compendium of the practice which is now most generally employed in female diseases, but we do not observe that he has, by the observations which he had an opportunity of making, thrown any new light upon the subject. He studiously avoids entering into any discussion on disputed points in the pathology of female complaints, which we should have considered as natural objects of particular consideration; and contents himself with merely stating the opinions of other writers, where such subjects occur.

After some prefatory observations, Dr. Walker gives a general account of the constitution of women, and the peculiarities by which it is distinguished from that of males, which leads him to the consideration of the menses, chlorosis, amenorrhœa, menorhagia and fluor albus. He then treats of the diseases of advanced life, which comprize various cutaneous complaints, uterine hæmorrhage, scirrhus and cancer, and the different morbid affections which accompany or follow the cessation of the menses. The diseases which occur during pregnancy, and those which present themselves after parturition, form the remaining subjects treated of in this volume. The former include nausea, sickness and loathing of food, heartburn, costiveness, urinary complaints, œdematous enlargements of the lower extremities, the cramp, spasmodic affections in the stomach and bowels, convulsions, hæmorrhagy and premature labour; the latter, after-pains, menorrhagia lochialis, affections of the breasts, milk fever, puerperal fever, mania and phlegmatia dolens. The author very properly takes much pains to guard against the use of stimulants and the heating regimen, in the puerperal state, and in the treatment of hæmorrhagies. A profuse lochial discharge is often considered as requiring the employment of wine and other cordials, to strengthen and comfort the patient; but this practice, the author observes, is not only

"— merely useless, as not at all adapted to remove the cause of these symptoms; but is highly injurious, as it is calculated to increase and aggravate the mischief. By increasing the action of the heart and arteries, the circulation is accelerated, and the flow of blood from the open mouths of the vessels is proportionably increased. One of the first means to be employed is to keep the patient as cool as possible, and with a view to this, to lower the temperature of the air, by which she is surrounded. This regulation is found useful in other hæmorrhages, and is acknowledged to be necessary on other occasions, even when the uterus is the seat of the disease: but a prejudice against it, in the present circumstances, has been imbibed, and it has been thought necessary to keep a woman, whilst lying-in, particularly warm.—But, not to say any thing of the fallacy of the reasonings used on this occasion, if there were even some risk of future inconveniences, it would be necessary to obviate the dangerous symptom now referred to: but, by a prudent management, all danger of catching cold may be avoided, as constant experience proves. So necessary, indeed, is an attention to this direction, that it has been found that other means, employed with a view to check a flooding, have proved ineffectual, merely because counteracted by an excessive degree of heat, or the use of other stimuli."

In the treatment of fluor albus, we observe, that the author does not mention the use of astringent injections, which have frequently an excellent effect as a topical tonic; nor does he say any thing of his experience of electricity in amenorrhœa, except to reprehend, among medicines which have been called forcing, its improper use.

ART. VI. *Practical Rules for the Treatment of Negro Slaves.* 8vo.

TO the inhabitants of the mid-land counties of England, this must appear a very curious performance; they have heard, no doubt, of several publications on the management of cattle, and on the breeding, rearing, and fattening of oxen and sheep. This book treats of a different species of live stock, not so well known in the markets of this country, described by naturalists as "*animal bipes implume*," and commonly called *man*.—The author informs us, that he resided many years upon his own estate, and managed his own gangs of slaves; he may therefore be supposed to speak with confidence on different topics, because he speaks from actual experience. His work is divided into two parts: the first of which suggests rules for the management of negroes, and the second includes directions for their treatment in sickness. He is an advocate for the slave trade, as might be expected. He says that slavery is only prohibited by philosophy, not by theology; and thinks that the arguments adduced against the existence of slavery, would apply with the same force to actions that are considered as moral, noble, and praise-worthy. Since no mortal has yet been found equal to so sublime an effort of virtue (we use our author's own words), where the interest was large, and poverty the consequence, to surrender his right over his slaves, and restore them to their liberty, he infers that it is a fault of the whole human race, not of the individual; and he flatters himself and his friends, that

they will not be responsible in the next world for their cruel conduct in this.—He speaks, however, such is the omnipotence of truth, of the measures proposed for the abolition of this wicked traffic, with a sort of reluctant tendency to panegyric. It is stated, that many negroes die annually from want of food, hard labour, and improper treatment; and it is calculated that one fourth of the slaves imported die within three or four years after their arrival in the West Indies.—The treatment of the slaves has been much improved within these few years. This is not to be attributed to the more general diffusion of humane and tender feelings among the planters, but to the discovery of the advantages attached to such conduct. It has been found, that whatever ameliorates the health and condition of the slave, improves the fortune of his master. Every thing, in our author's opinion, is estimated by the way in which it may be *turned to a good account*; thus more food, better cloathing, religious instruction, &c. are recommended, not because they may be conducive to the happiness and comfort of the poor slaves, but because they will contribute to the interest of the proprietor, and diminish the expence in the manufactory of sugar. He denies that slavery is a state of misery; and remarks that the moral feelings of negroes are less exquisite than those of the whites, probably from the want of education. He asserts also, that "*the employment of a planter is a source of genuine delight*;" such delight as our eyes have not seen, it does not readily enter into our minds to conceive.

In page 39, we have met with some curious observations on the different breeds of negroes. Those from the Gold Coast are bad, because they are wild, and not easily tamed; those from Senegal are gentle and steady; the Congos are a good sort, they are of a very black colour, and are well limbed.—Page 42, the Mandingos are not adapted for strong work; the Ebbos and Ebboobees are a very hardy breed, especially the females—they are very little inferior to the males; the kingdom of Gaboon never sends good negroes, they are a sickly race; the Whidaws and Papaws are very good; the Aradas still better; the French speak highly of their qualities; we suppose they afford excellent meat!

The most frequent and fatal diseases among negroes are fluxes and dropsies; they are less liable to fevers than white people, and this is attributed by the author to the absence of the fear of death. This privilege of exemption from fevers, may probably arise from some physical cause, perhaps it is owing to the state of their skin, which may render them less liable to be affected by any excess of heat, one of the most formidable and dangerous symptoms in all febrile diseases. The remarks on different diseases are short and common-place, they are only calculated to convey some few general notions to persons residing in the colonies, for whom this work is designed. One of the most singular diseases peculiar to hot countries is called the Guinea-worm, though it is not confined to this coast. This animal appears in different parts of the body, under the skin, and among the muscles; it manifests itself by a small tumour, resembling a boil, from the top of which the skin peels, and exposes a small white slender substance resembling thread. The method of extracting it is as follows:

"As soon as the worm appears, take hold of it with your fore-finger and thumb; or, if you find it impossible to be seized with the finger and thumb, employ a pair of surgeon's forceps for that purpose, and draw it forth until you find a resistance, when you should cease to draw, lest you break it, which is easily done. When you have got it out as far as it will come without violence, turn the part which you have extracted round a cotton thread, doubled up into the length of an inch and a half, to the thickness of the wick of a candle; then put a piece of diachylon, or any other sticking plaster, over the cotton, first observing to interpose a small piece of common rag between the worm and the plaster, just large enough to prevent them from adhering, and cover the whole with a bandage. These precautions are taken to prevent the worm from breaking; and you are to admonish the negro to be careful to prevent that. The next day you are to remove the bandage, and to renew your attempt to extract the worm as before, turning it round the cotton as it comes out, and discontinuing your endeavours as soon as you find it to resist; then replace the rag, the sticking plaster, and bandage.

"By this operation, repeated daily, and always with the same gentleness, you may expect to get the worm entire, which is much to be desired; but, should it happen otherwise, you need not be alarmed; for, though it seldom appears again at the same orifice, you may expect to meet with it at some other, not very distant; where, after occasioning a swelling and some pain, it pushes forth again.

Digitized by Google

Sometimes, indeed, the pain and inflammation are very considerable; and when it so happens, you should apply a fomentation and poultice. Should the worm perish, and, by corrupting in the part, occasion an ulcer, it must be dressed with basilicon, spread on some lint."

ART. VII. *The Edinburgh Practice of Physic, Surgery, and Midwifery, preceded by an Abstract of the Theory of Medicine, and the Nosology of Dr. Cullen; and including upwards of six hundred Formulæ from the Books of St. Bartholomew's, St. George's, St. Thomas's, Guy's, and other Hospitals in London, and from the Lectures and Writings of the most eminent public Teachers, with Twenty Quarto Plates.* A new Edition, in Five Volumes.

THE plan of the present compilation is similar to that of the former edition of "The Edinburgh Practice," but much enlarged, and rendered more extensively useful. Of the present edition, the compiler thus speaks:

"That mere directions how to treat a disease, unaccompanied with any precise law by which that disease is governed, or any detail of the variations to which it is subject, are not merely useless but even pernicious, may be easily proved by the testimony of medical men, who have trusted to the fallacious guidance of those publications which pretend to teach the practice of the different branches of the medical art, without paying any material regard to theory. It is a conviction of this sort that has induced the editor of the following sheets to avail himself of a northern work, already and deservedly popular; and, in its present detached form, to place it within the reach of every medical student and practitioner, divested of many accidental errors, and enriched by materials drawn from the first sources of medical, chirurgical, and obstetrical information in South Britain.

"Thus to the excellent compilations of Dr. Monro and Mr. Fyfe, have been added every successive improvement in medicine and surgery; nor has less attention been paid to the necessary additions to the treatise on midwifery, originally the work of an eminent teacher at Edinburgh. Above all, it has been the editor's endeavour to bring together in these volumes a body of cases, truly valuable and authentic; and greatly to augment the formulæ, which stamped the former edition with a marked degree of superiority over other publications of the kind. Of these it may no less truly be said, that "none are the vague productions of obscure anonymous pharmacopolists, but stamped with the strongest possible characters of authenticity."

* * *

"The plates, the number of which has been considerably augmented, it is hoped, will be found eminently useful, particularly to the young practitioner; and the tables and copious indexes capable of facilitating the reader's pursuits, in a manner that will ensure his decided approbation of the undertaking."

The work is strictly a compilation: the editor does not appear in any part as the adviser or instructor of his readers, his plan is to take a standard book as a text, and to add under each disease all that has been given on the same subject by the other writers, which he has chosen to select. The praise of industry, and some judgment in selecting is certainly his, the execution of the work is entirely that of the transcriber. The editor's recipe for composition is the simplest in the world; it is only to mark for publication the volume and page of Cullen, Lind, Fordyce, Zoonomia, Cleghorn, Medical Journal, &c. &c. and the printer will return you a compleat treatise on the disease in question.

In this manner, and on this plan, have five bulky volumes been put together, two on medicine, two on surgery, and one on midwifery; and as five large volumes, full of extracts from the most eminent writers, cannot but contain a great proportion of excellent mattter, this selection is certainly a kind of arranged library, and must prove eminently serviceable to those who have not time or opportunity of perusing the originals. As we are not reviewing the medical classics, and standard books in our libraries, we shall pass over the contents of these volumes; but in justice to the compiler we must add, that he has fulfilled his promise in the preface, of bestowing considerable pains in the selection of formulæ, and the indexes and tables of contents are full, and apparently accurate. The plates are pretty numerous: although an artist or connoisseur might not admire their execution, they give a very faithful view of what they are meant to represent, and correspond with the general character of utility, to which alone this compilation aspires.

Digitized by Google

ART. VIII. *The London Practice of Midwifery, or a Manual for Students, being a complete Course of practical Midwifery, in which are included the Treatment of Lying-in Women and the Diseases of Children.* 8vo. pp. 300.

THE London Practice is a specious title—it would imply to the uninformed that the greater part of the practitioners of this metropolis had adopted an uniform plan of treatment in those cases (in midwifery comparatively few) where the assistance of art was demanded, of which the book with the above title was an abstract.

Were this error, however, the only accusation against the anonymous editor of this volume, we should pass it over as one of the more venial artifices of book-making, considering the high and merited reputation of the *real* author: but common report, strengthened by the evidence of many who recollect, in another form, the observations contained in this volume, throws an imputation of fraud on the part of the editor as disgraceful to himself, as injurious to the person at whose expence it has been committed. Pirating for the press the lectures of a public teacher, is a fraud which, in morality, stands precisely in the same light as bribing a printer's journeyman for the unpublished sheets of a valuable work, with a view of underselling in the market: and in the former case, with the additional injury to the lecturer, of giving to the public his observations in an imperfect unfinished state, abounding with the errors of a piratical and often ignorant editor.

Whether the accusation of fraud be in this instance well founded, we do not pretend to judge; but the book would be more respectable if not anonymous, and infinitely more useful if it bore the marks of correct attention.

ART. IX. *A Popular View of the Structure and Economy of the Human Body. Interspersed with Reflections, moral, practical, and miscellaneous; including modern Discoveries, and designed for general Information and Improvement. To which is annexed, an Explanation of difficult Terms.* By JOHN FELTHAM. 8vo. pp. 440.

THE compilers of the numerous elementary systems, familiar views, and other popular outlines of different branches of human knowledge, do not always seem to be aware how difficult a task it is to render science easy and alluring to beginners, whilst cutting it down to the level of the lowest capacities. Men of real science sometimes disdain the task, sometimes are unable to enter into the limited views of the learner, and hence it falls into the hands of persons of information too narrow for selection, too meagre for condensation.

Physiology and anatomy, for they are inseparably connected, though infinitely interesting, can never be made *fashionable* (for this appears to be the author's design) till the disgust naturally felt, and prejudices long entertained, against dissection are overcome; till all the apprehensions of timorous delicacy are subsided, and till a mixed audience of genteel and respectable persons can look at the exhibition of *human* dissection with the same unrepressed curiosity with which they admire the brilliance of the electrical flash, or the dazzle of oxygen combustion.

Mr. Feltham seems to expect with some confidence the period when "the higher ranks of society may suffer the influence of reason to surmount minor considerations, and the legislature authorise more frequent dissections among the privileged orders as the most likely means of propagating the practice among the lower classes of the community." Mr. Acerbi does indeed tell us, that the public pensioners and placemen in Sweden hold their situations on the tenure of bequeathing their bodies for public dissection; but in England no act of parliament has yet passed for authorising surgeons to anatomize the privileged orders for the benefit of their inferiors, and it is only two or three years since an attempt was made to increase the difficulty which now so much opposes the progress of anatomical knowledge.

Nevertheless we agree with the author, and with Dr. Beddoes, that much might be done (keeping within the strictest bounds of modern decorum) to make physiology a part of general education, and that even mere reading on this curious subject might attract the notice of youth, if put together by a master's hand; but it is not fulfilling this intention to give a dry, ill arranged detail of matter of fact, interspersed with scraps of poetry, gleanings from magazines and

Digitized by Google

books of various authority, and advertising notes.

Mr. Feltham shews himself, however, competently skilled in that part of anatomy which is taught by books; his descriptions are mostly accurate, and in a very few instances he exhibits some marks of that clearness of expression, and aptness of illustration, which are so much to be desired in an instructor of youth. We shall not detain our readers with any specimen of the patch-work sentiment from Lavater, St. Pierre, and Hervey's Meditations, which perpetually occur in these pages: the following will serve as an example of the anatomical description:

"*Cartilages* are solid, smooth, elastic, white substances, between the hardness of bones and ligaments, and covered with a membrane named perichondrium. Cartilages are the hardest parts of the body except bones, and seem to be kept from ossifying either by their motions of flexion and extension, or by being constantly moistened. Those of the ribs and larynx are often ossified. The cartilages are also part of the living system of the bones: and we see in the bones themselves how unphilosophical it must be, to deny organization and feeling to any part of the living body, however dead or insulated it may appear; for every part has its degree of life; the eye, the skin, the flesh, the tendons, and the bones, have successive degrees of feeling and circulation. Where even the lowest of these, the bone, is deprived of its small portion of life, it becomes a foreign body, and is thrown off from the healthy parts, as a gangrened limb is separated from the sound body; and we speak as familiarly of the death of a bone, as of the gangrene of soft parts. Organization of life is given to the cartilages, though surely in respect of feeling, they must stand in the very last degree.

"Their uses, as far as they regard bones, are to allow them to slide easily, while by flexibility they accommodate themselves to the different motions, and by elasticity recover their natural figure and position as soon as the pressure is removed. This springy force may also assist the motion of the joint to be more expeditious, and may soften the shocks in running, jumping, &c. To these we owe the security of the moveable articulations, for without them the fibres of the bone would shoot out, and immediately coalesce with the additional bone."

We may add, that the author has entirely avoided all possible imputation of indecorum, by totally omitting those parts of anatomy to which these ideas could be attached.

ART. X. *A New Medical Dictionary, containing a concise Explanation of all the Terms used in Medicine, Surgery, Pharmacy, Botany, Natural History, and Chymistry. Compiled by* JOSEPH FOX, *M. D. late Physician to the London Hospital; revised and augmented by* THOMAS BRADLEY, *M. D. Physician to the Westminster Hospital.* 12mo.

BY help of a very small type, and extremely brief definitions, the compilers of this little work have contrived to include, as they profess to do, nearly all the terms that ever occur in the sciences mentioned in the title-page, and the volume is, in one sense, "an universal index on the subjects of medicine, surgery, and natural history, as far as it relates to medicine." It is, however, an index without references. Though the reader is promised, "that he may consult this dictionary with an assurance that he will not be disappointed in finding the term he may want," we think that the authors might have spared a very great number of antiquated terms, the dreams of Van Helmont, and the mystic jargon of Paracelsus, without incurring the risk of failing in their engagement to any who are likely to employ such a help to knowledge as the present volume. In other respects it is fairly executed, and pains have been taken to render it copious in those parts which are likely to be most frequently consulted.

ART. XI. *Observations on the Opinions of ancient and modern Physicians, including those of the late Dr. Cullen, respecting the Nature and Cause of the Uterine Discharge. Also, Observations on the Opinions of Dr. Cullen on Amennorrhœa, or Green-sickness, of Dr. Saunders on Diseases of the Liver, of Dr. Thomas on Cahexia Africana, and of Dr. Beddoes on Scrofula. And Remarks on the Method of Cure of what has been called Chlorosis, Amennorrhœa, or Green-sickness, as delivered to us by our late Preceptor, and other eminent Physicians. By* A. FOGO, *Surgeon.* 8vo. pp. 103.

THE object of this performance is to prove, that the medical world has long been mistaken in their ideas on the nature of female obstructions; and that the symptoms which have hitherto been referred to this cause, originate, for the

Digitized by Google

most part, in an enlarged, obstructed, or scirrhous liver, and are to be cured by medicines of the alterative, aperient, attenuating kind. It would be little satisfaction, and no improvement to our readers, to accompany the author through the various pieces of bad reasoning, and the many coarse, awkward, and indelicate attempts at wit, which so often appear in the course of this little work. That he may have been right in occasionally finding an enlargement in the liver, in chlorosis, or amenorrhæa, we do not doubt; but that such is invariably the case, and that the remedies generally employed for the cure of those complaints, particularly chalybeates, never do good, is a position which he would find some difficulty in establishing, because he must previously remove an accumulation of unequivocal facts, afforded by the practice of every medical man of experience. The author expresses much surprise that so much pains have been taken, with so little success, to explain the cause and uses of menstruation. To him this appears perfectly analogous to many of the other functions of the body, and no more difficult to explain; for the whole circumstance, says he, is nothing but characteristic, which distinguishes the noblest from the inferior animals of the creation. But if he confess himself unable to explain the uses of this important function, in any other way than that now stated, and is dissatisfied with the attempts of other authors to account for it, we cannot admit his right to consider obstructed menstruation of itself as the mere retention of a certain quantity of blood, perfectly unconnected with a morbid state of the uterine system, and incapable of having any further influence upon the body, than what arises from an increased quantity of blood, which might readily be withdrawn in another way.

The author does not inform us what medicine he employs of the alterative, aperient, attenuating kind, to answer his indications of cure, but we suppose from a hint in one of his cases that it is calomel.

The cahexia Africana, described by Dr. Thomas, and the species of scrofula mentioned by Dr. Beddoes, are, from the symptoms, conceived by the author to be affections of the liver.

ART. XII. *Three Letters on medical Subjects: addressed to the Reverend Gilbert Ford, Ormskirk, Lancashire. Containing,* 1. *An Account of the Effects of an aloetic Medicine in the Gout and other chronical Complaints.* 2. *A Practice which has been successful in the individual Prevention of the late Epidemics.* 3. *An Account of the sedative Properties of the granulated Preparation of Tin, in some Affections of the Mind. By* JOHN FORD, *M. D. Chester.* 12mo.

THE object of the two first letters, is to recommend an aloetic medicine (the particular composition of which the author withholds) as highly beneficial in gouty complaints and influenza. Its obvious action is as a purgative, but the author connects with it some particular operation upon the liver, and other organs. The third letter is upon the effects of granulated tin as a vermifuge, and as removing without difficulty, indurated fæces, and viscid mucus from various parts of the alimentary canal, both which have a powerful tendency to produce, or keep up, various mental affections.

Empiricism cannot be concealed in this publication, under the thin mask of candour, philanthropy, and erudition. But as a newspaper is generally considered as the best means of diffusing the knowledge of such preparations as the authors are convinced cannot be too universally known by the public, we should not be surprised if Dr. Ford at some future period adopt the plan so successfully pursued by the Brodums and the Solomons of the present day, in order more extensively to disseminate the knowledge of a valuable medicine, prepared only by himself.

ART. XIII. *Medicina Nautica, an Essay on the Diseases of Seamen, comprehending the History of Health in the Channel Fleet for the Years* 1799, 1800, *and* 1801. *By* THOMAS TROTTER, *M. D. Member of the Royal Medical Society, and honorary Member of the Royal Physical Society of Edinburgh, late Physician to his Majesty's Fleet under the Command of Admiral Earl Howe, K. G. and to the Squadrons commanded by Admiral Lord Bridport, K. B. Admiral Earl St. Vincent, K. B. and the Hon. Admiral Cornwallis.* 8vo. 507 pages.

THE present volume is the conclusion of the author's work on nautical medicine, and consists, like the former ones, of a general history of the health

Digitized by Google

of the fleet to which he was physician, and of various strictures and observations relating to the diseases of seamen, both by himself and numerous correspondents. The enthusiastic zeal with which Dr. Trotter has prosecuted his labours, for the improvement of that department of naval discipline which relates to health, is highly creditable, and in some important particulars has led to very beneficial changes. He laments, however, that his suggestions have not always received that degree of attention which, in his estimation, their importance demanded, and with others, who have aimed at material innovations, has had occasion sometimes to complain of the disinclination of public offices, to listen to any deviations from established usage. In order, however, to prevent such hints as he deems worthy consideration from being entirely lost to the world, he has thought it adviseable to insert them in the present volume.

With an honourable zeal in the cause of a numerous and deserving body of the profession, the author has used every endeavour in his power, to ameliorate the condition of navy medical men, who, he thinks, have been hitherto very much and very impoliticly neglected. His observations on this subject, which are interspersed through various parts of his book, are more particularly stated in a letter to the present first lord of the admiralty, in which the merits of this class of men are spiritedly pointed out, their hardships noticed, and such a plan of encouragement recommended, as appears to him expedient. The author considers it to be absolutely necessary, that the services of medical men, in public situations, should be uninterrupted by private practice. But in order to withdraw any kind of apology, which the narrowness of pecuniary circumstances may give, for such a combination of public and private duties, it is necessary that their emoluments should be increased. He gives some striking examples of the disadvantages which have arisen, from the interference of the one with the other.

In the history which is given, in this volume, of the health of the fleet, we find a very creditable and humane interposition, on the part of the author, to check the great increase of dissipation at Plymouth, occasioned by the imprudent augmentation of public houses, which, in the town of Dock alone, had an increase of one hundred and forty.—The board of admiralty attended to his suggestions on this subject, and very wisely ordered the number to be reduced to the old establishment.

Dr. Trotter, it is well known, has always been a violent opposer of nitrous fumigation, which, like every other process of a similar kind, he is convinced, does nothing more than overpower, or neutralize a disagreeable odour, and divert the attention from the use of a free ventilation, a safe and efficacious means of destroying the contagion. The exertions made by him with a view to procure a more perfect ventilation to the decks of ships, are very meritorious, and tend materially to remove the causes, or arrest the progress of disease, while the separation of febrile cases, which he has practised with so much success, has frequently stopt the course of a contagion, which threatened to commit the most formidable ravages. The propriety of the means recommended by him, are thus fully demonstrated; and if he were satisfied with stating his conviction, that those means were sufficient for the purposes in view, without having recourse to any other, he would do no more than is completely warranted. Dr. Trotter, however, goes much further, and, from what appears to us a very imperfect experience, takes every opportunity of vilifying the use of nitrous fumigation, as a destroyer of contagion. This, indeed, seems to be a favourite topic with him; for the slightest occasion is invariably embraced, to make some ill-humoured reflection on its use. If Dr. Trotter spoke from a fair, impartial, and candid trial, his tone might, with reason, be decided; but it is apparent, that the feelings with which he was actuated when the subject first came under his discussion, and those which still remain with him, are by no means favourable to philosophical examination. Dr. Trotter's reasoning on this subject, has always been weak, and is by no means improved in the present volume; for, whatever may be the merits of the nitrous or muriatic fumigation, they can only be known by fair experiments, instituted by men accustomed to inquiry, and who have not prejudged the practice which they are to examine. Various trials, it is true, are mentioned in the present volume, by the author's correspondents, in which the practice is said to have been ineffectual; but the im

Digitized by Google

perfect evidence in general to be deduced from them, is very materially weakened by the great appearance of a want of candour, with which they are for the most part accompanied, and the evident disposition which they so frequently discover to flatter the particular opinions of the person to whom they are addressed.

The author, under the term fumigation, very improperly confounds every species of this process, and thus from the ill-success which attended the smoking of clothes and rooms formerly, and now occasionally practised, adduces a specious, though an uncandid and fallacious argument, against the use of the plan lately brought forward.

His tone may be judged of from the following remarks, which occur at the beginning of the chapter on contagion and typhus:

"The spirit of fumigation had arrived at its full height, on the introduction of the nitrous vapour, published by a court physician, countenanced by the admiralty, and directed by the *codex officialis* of the sick and hurt board. But not one of its supporters have yet ventured or deigned to go one step into the inquiry concerning the nature of contagion, or its chemical attraction for this vapour. The naval department, they were led to believe, would eagerly embrace the practice, on the authorities which accompanied it; but fortunately for the service of the country, it came at a time when the subject of health was beginning a new æra; and when both officers and surgeons doubted the validity of what came in so questionable a shape.

"The world has now seen a second edition of Dr. Smyth's work; in which he has published some reports of naval surgeons to the commissioners of sick and hurt, on the supposed efficacy of this anti-pestilential fume. I do not mean at this stage of the discussion, to criticise those select reports; but I feel most unfeignedly for the reputation of the medical officers, when I behold official documents laid before the public eye in defence of the grossest delusion. Yet these are all that the board have produced from seven hundred surgeons, after seven years war! There is one thing for which I give the reporters due credit; attention to cleanliness is a part of their operations. But at the same time I cannot help remarking the passive spirit of these gentlemen, with the fuming pipkins in their hands, that they never asked themselves, what is the chemical nature of this contagion? Does it possess form or substance? How does this vapour act in destroying it? These questions arose so naturally from the employment of fumigation, that it shows as much a want of common curiosity, as it was unphilosophic, not to interest themselves in the business. A disease disappearing, during the time any article of the materia medica is used, may receive the credit of the cure from an ignorant bystander, or a shallow observer; but the man who notes the history of cases; the mind enquiring after truth must weigh causes and effects; draw conclusions from reasonable premises, and appeal to principles confirmed by experiment and matter of fact only. To say that the nitrous vapour subdues contagion, without explaining the manner, is like the fly on the chariot wheel in the fable. It reminds me of a story told to children, that the great mogul orders a bell to be rung when he goes to dinner, and conceits that the whole world dines at the same time. In like manner, these gentlemen trim their pipkins, and conceit, while the fumes ascend, that whatever is contagious within their reach, is annihilated and destroyed."

We are not a little surprised, that Dr. Trotter, who is not a Tyro in medicine, should bring forward a piece of declamation so much at variance with the information which practical experience furnishes, as that which we have now quoted. Is it necessary to know the proximate cause of a disease, and the exact operation of a medicine, in order to effect its cure?

And must we regard the cure of every complaint as hopeless, when we are ignorant of its precise nature; and throw aside the use of every remedy which experience has demonstrated to be serviceable, merely because its mode of operation is unknown? Surely Dr. Trotter will not assert, that because we are ignorant of the nature of syphilitic poison, and of the mode in which mercury operates in destroying it, that we are to cast off the use of this remedy, and leave the disease to itself, until our knowledge of it is more complete. And yet his reasoning with regard to a destroyer of contagion, will go, on examination, precisely to that length. The author admits, that the stench of bilge water may be destroyed by the nitrous fumigation, as was stated to him by a captain of the navy, in a letter which is inserted in this work; and he accounts for the effect, by supposing, that the vapour employed, underwent certain chemical changes by coming in contact with the offensive exhalation of bilge water: but if this is admitted in the present instance, there does not appear to be any thing unphilosophical in supposing that the same may take place when contagious matter comes in con-

Digitized by Google

tact with the nitrous vapour. The result of the latter combination is certainly unknown; but there is nothing so absurd in the supposition of its taking place, as to interrupt an examination into the real merits of nitric vapour in destroying contagion. The author seems to entertain an idea of its being a part of the doctrine of the advocates for nitrous fumigation to suppose, that the oxygene contained in the acid, is afforded to the atmosphere, and thus assists in purifying it. He therefore asks, with much self-complacence, what becomes of the azote with which it was previously combined? It must be observed, however, that the idea thus attributed to the advocates for nitrous fumigation, forms no part of their doctrine, which goes no further than to point out a mode by which the power of contagion is destroyed, without attempting to determine by what means this effect is produced. The author's extensive experience confirms the observations of Dr. Currie, with regard to the use of cold affusion in typhus. The large and indiscriminate use of bark is condemned, and the employment of antimonials in the advanced stages of this disease considered improper.

Quarantines, he is of opinion, have hitherto been conducted on very erroneous principles. By way of speedily and effectually purifying any contaminated goods, he thinks there should be proper establishments, where they might be exposed for a certain time to moderate heat, and a free current of air. To these institutions, he would add a small medical establishment, where affected persons, or those suspected of being so, might be detained, with the advantages of proper medical aid.

The author has not been able to determine, how far contagion may be carried by the air, but he supposes that a few yards may be sufficient for perfect safety.

The chapter on ventilation is principally directed to officers, and contains many useful directions, on the mode of procuring a free supply of air to the lower decks, and removing from them what has been vitiated. As an instance of the great necessity of such a supply, the author states, that in the summer season and warm climates, the Orlop deck comes very near, in some corners, to a *vacuum*, as he frequently ascertained by the sweat bursting out as soon as he entered it. What the doctor's ideas of a vacuum may be, we know not, but we confess it to be greatly beyond our powers of conception, to imagine such a state to occur, where the communication with the surrounding air is uninterrupted. His own feelings may be very good evidence with himself, but we must own that though we run the risk of having reflections thrown upon us for dullness, they do not, to our minds, in this instance, completely prove his position.

We suspect that the author's information is incorrect, when he states, "that experiments have lately been made, that prove the proportion of the oxygene to be greater in the island of Martinique than in Great-Britain." The most accurate observations which have come to our notice, shew no difference in the proportions of the component parts of atmospheric air in any part of the world.—— Dr. Trotter considers dry rubbing with sand, as a much better method of cleaning decks, than the continual use of water, which, besides keeping up a constant dampness that is very inimical to health, disposes the wood to rot, and, by leaving saline particles on the iron, nails, &c. rusts them and thus weakens the ship.

Two short chapters are devoted to observations on the small and cow-pox, and to pneumonia, catarrh, and opthalmia, (ophthalmia); after which the author goes on to phthisis pulmonalis, a disease, which he informs us has been particularly frequent among seamen since the year 1800. The very long cruises made in blocking up the enemy's fleets; the severe duty required of the men sometimes at sea, but more particularly in the short periods of equipment; and the constant use of lemon juice, served, in the author's opinion, to dispose very much to attacks of this complaint. His idea of its proximate cause is, that it consists in an exhausted excitability, in which the arteries have an increased irritability, while the lymphatic system is torpid. He is inclined to agree with Dr. Beddoes on the good effects of a lowered atmosphere, in the cure of this complaint; and considers it highly improper to employ the debilitating plan. The author very humanely and very properly recommends, that whenever a seaman is at all indisposed, he should be kept from duty for some time, in order to prevent the occurrence of a serious indisposition.

Digitized by Google

In a chapter upon spasmodic complaints, he takes occasion to point out, as a very singular circumstance connected with the constitution of seamen, that they are particularly subject to such complaints as are called nervous.

"That a body of men," says the author, "by education and habit accustomed to adventure, braving danger in every hideous form, and surpassing hardship, famine, and fatigue, in every shape, (the very relation of which appals the puny imagination of timid minds, enfeebled by luxury and delicacy in the fashionable or retired walks of life) should be subject to complaints more nearly allied to the tender female, than the robust masculine constitution, would appear a paradox, did not daily experience confirm the fact."

* * * *

"There is a something in the atmosphere of a ship, perhaps deficiency of oxygene, and the local confinement on board, that, to particular persons, are a never-failing cause of vapours and dyspeptic feelings. The motions and actions of the stomach and intestinal canal are retarded and become irregular, and habitual costiveness at sea is common in many constitutions. I do not think that this depends so much on the sea diet as has been generally imagined. The situation itself affords less variety than most other conditions of life; day after day you go through the same kind of routine, the same objects are presented to the eyes, the same smells to the nose, and the same sounds to the organs of hearing. As all stimuli lose their effect by repetition, and as a peculiar train of ideas so naturally follows external impressions on the organs of sense, that condition of mind is generated which is usually styled nervous. But the effect appears to fall chiefly by sympathy or association on the stomach and bowels. This complaint, therefore, belongs with more propriety to the catalogue of the sea diseases than has been either suspected or believed; and, if we may judge from the multitude of cases which have come under our observation, it ought to be considered as a very common one. I have seen in a sick-birth, at one time, no less than five or six strongly-marked instances of violent hysteric. Long cruises in bad weather, joined to severe and irksome duty in the foggy and variable climate of the channel, will, at all times, produce these complaints; such is the duty of a blockade. On the contrary, I believe the disease is little known in the southern latitudes, for I have seen both officers and surgeons prefer a West-India station, solely with a view to escape it, which they could not do in the home cruises."

Independent, however, of the causes now enumerated, the author considers the disease as being particularly favoured by a gouty constitution, fevers and fluxes, the too liberal use of spices, but particularly hard drinking and frequent mercurial courses. Change of scene, and moderate exercise on shore, particularly on horseback, readily effect a cure.

Dr. Trotter's earliest labours were on the subject of scurvy, and the retrospect of them justly affords him considerable satisfaction. In the present volume, he slightly notices this disease, in order to express his disapprobation of the plan now in use in the navy for preventing it, that of continually giving an allowance of lemon juice to seamen. This he considers as unnatural in winter, and unnecessary, except when the disease has actually appeared. Vegetables, (which may always be carried out to sea,) and fresh meat, (when it can be procured), will effectually prevent it, but at the same time there should never fail to be a sufficient stock of lemon juice, or rather of the concrete acid of lemons, in hand, for the purpose of administering, whenever symptoms of scurvy appear.

The volume is concluded by an account of Capt. Markham's sick birth, and sick diet; a few observations on sea-sickness; and some communications from various navy surgeons on the malignant ulcer, so common and so obstinate among seamen.

The sea diet is very well worthy of observation, and the plan of it should be universally adopted through the navy, as affording to the sick sailor various comforts, which could not be furnished by the public, but at a very great expence.

"The plan," as is mentioned by the author in a letter to Sir Evan Nepean, "is to establish a mess for the sick, by the consent of each ship's company, which is to be done from the salted provisions, &c. which the sick are unable to eat when indisposed, and confined to the sick birth. There are numerous diseases, when it is either improper for the patient to use the ship's diet, or when, from want of appetite, he dislikes it. A large allowance, therefore, goes to his messmates, which if not devoured by them, has often been sold on shore to disadvantage. Now, instead of this superabundant allowance being given to a man whose appetite rejects it, or to his messmates, who may sell it for bad purposes, Captain Markham, of the Centaur, has been long in the habit of directing the purser to keep a book of credit for all such provisions, from a list daily furnished by the surgeon, which credit goes to the use of the sick, and is converted into a fund for supplying live stock, whether sheep or poultry, porter, vegetables, fruit, &c. when the ship goes to sea; from this also, new bread is daily baked for the use of the whole."

The present, we are informed, is the last volume of Medicina Nautica which will appear. Any communications on the subjects of the work, which may afterwards be received by the author, will be inserted in another edition.

ART. XIV. *Attempt to investigate the Cause of the Egyptian Ophthalmia, with Observations on its Nature and different Modes of Cure. By* GEORGE POWER, *Assistant Surgeon to the 23d Regiment of Foot, or Royal Welsh Fusileers.* pp. 72.

THE author of this essay had an opportunity, by being attached to the English army in Egypt, of seeing very numerous instances of the Egyptian ophthalmia, a disease which is peculiarly serious and obstinate. To this field of extensive observation, which enabled him to become acquainted with every form of the complaint, was added a severe attack of it in his own person, which gave him occasion to try the effects of opium, in order to relieve the excruciating pain with which it was attended.

"The first dose produced a very sensible cessation from pain, without inducing the least disposition to somnolency, but rather a degree of exhilaration, heightened of course by this pleasing change in my health. As those effects disappeared the pain returned, so that a repetition of the dose was found necessary during the night, and twice or thrice the next day, applying at the same time the vegetable poultice, and removing the discharge occasionally by syringing.

"Having persevered in this mode of cure for two days, on the third I was enabled to perform my duty."

A medical friend was soon after induced to employ the same remedy, which he did with so much success, that from that time it formed a part of the plan of cure in the military hospitals appropriated to ophthalmic patients; and it is affirmed as a fact, that, in the space of a month from its general use, every one of them was restored to the army, in a state either of convalescence, or of perfect health. The author considers the disease as one of debility, and in this manner accounts for the great advantage which opium produced in its cure; but whatever might be thought of the rationale of the practice, its success was perfectly sufficient to recommend it. In the early stage of the disease a collyrium of rose water, distilled vinegar, and a small quantity of opium or cerussa acetata, with a few doses of bark, were found to be sufficient to remove it. But when the high inflammatory stage had come on, which was generally the case before an application was made for relief, it became necessary to employ more vigorous measures. Besides the frequent injection of a stream of clear water into the eye by a syringe, a gentle laxative was generally administered;

"—after the operation of which, if not contra-indicated by a general phlogistic diathesis or plethora, a quarter of a grain or more opium was ordered every four or six hours, according to circumstances, on the first and second day; but diminishing the frequency as well as the quantity of the dose on the succeeding days, until the cure was accomplished, which a course of bark effectually confirmed."

When the inflammation appeared likely to advance, or had arrived at an alarming height, it was necessary to use general and local bleeding, blisters, and cold applications to the eye. We feel it difficult, however, to reconcile some parts of this practice, particularly the use of blood-letting, to the author's idea that the disease arises from a debility, which it is necessary to counteract. The œdema, or spasm of the eyelids, which sometimes remained after the inflammation had abated, were relieved by warm fomentations, or a blister, applied over the eyelids. If, on getting the eyelids opened, the cornea was found to be red, a solution of cerussa acetata was employed as a collyrium, or a blister applied behind the ear. When there were spots or specks upon the cornea, which were not particles of indurated matter, separable by aqueous injection, an active dry collyrium frequently removed them, though it is admitted that this was often unsuccessful. By first mentioning the plan of treatment recommended by the author, for the cure of the Egyptian ophthalmia, as we have inverted the order adopted in his work, it remains that we should state the result of his observations with regard to various circumstances connected with this disease. He is dissatisfied with all the causes which have been assigned for its production, and considers the absence of it among the Bedouin Arabs who inhabit the deserts, and its being scarcely observed in General Baird's army, which had a very long and perilous march through the deserts, to be proofs that the effects of

Digitized by Google

sand are not sufficient for its production. The author considers it as having a common origin with the plague and dysentery, and as arising with them from a putrid virus, diffused in the atmosphere, and produced by the union of putrid exhalations from animal and vegetable matter, with the various earthy and saline substances with which the air abounds. These circumstances are favoured by that state of corporeal debility which is so commonly observed among the inhabitants of Egypt, and so soon appears in Europeans in some degree. When they operate upon a system peculiarly debilitated and unable to resist them, they produce, according to the author,

"—that highly putrid fever called plague In a patient less relaxed, as the habit of body determines the disease either to the surface of the skin, or to the intestines, an eruptive fever or dysentery is produced. And when the putrid virus is but partially applied, to the eyes for instance, or to the mouth, or even on the surface of the body, ophthalmia, ulcerated fauces, or ichorous blotches on the skin ensue."

The hypothetical view of the subject which the author here communicates, is not very likely to prejudice the reader in favour of his philosophical powers. The circumstances stated as producing so long a train of diseases must be supposed to exist in an equal degree wherever the plague originates; and yet the ophthalmia, so prevalent in Egypt, does not appear as an epidemic in any other country. Much of this reasoning is upon data which are assumed, and we have yet to be informed of any experiments which justify him in his conclusion, that argillaceous and calcareous earths abound in the atmosphere, either in a separate state, or combined with sulphuric or carbonic acid.

The author gives an accurate account of the symptoms of the Egyptian ophthalmia, and mentions the practice which is usually, though, as he informs us, unsuccessfully adopted in its treatment.

ART. XV. *Observations on Diarrhœa and Dysentery, as those Diseases appeared in the British Army during the Campaign in Egypt*, 1801. *To which are prefixed a Description of the Climate of Egypt, and a Sketch of the Medical History of the Campaign. By* HENRY DEWAR, *late Assistant Surgeon to the Cambridgeshire Regiment of Foot.* pp. 161.

THE introduction to this work is occupied with a general account of the climate of Egypt, and various particulars relating to the medical history of the late campaign. To the many circumstances which were capable of affecting the health of the army in that country, the author thinks may with great propriety be added, the particular kind of tent employed, which universally consisted of a single covering, and was therefore a very ineffectual defence from the rays of the sun.

A few general remarks on bowel complaints precede the account which is given of diarrhœa. The author divides them into diarrhœa, dysentery, cholera, colica, and enteritis, and considers all of them, but particularly the two former, as demanding the peculiar attention of the army medical practitioner.

The symptoms of diarrhœa often went so imperceptibly into dysentery, that it was not easy to draw a proper line of distinction between them. The predisposing causes of this disease were the debility which follows acute diseases, hard drinking, fatigue, and change of diet from salt to fresh meat; but more particularly the high temperature of the atmosphere. The exciting causes were cold, eating and drinking acrimonious and putrid substances, inhalation of putrid effluvia, intemperance in eating, and drinking cold water in immoderate quantities. The author had occasion to observe a remarkable connexion between all the diseases which were produced by cold.

"A rheumatism in the arm or back, often alternates with diarrhœa and pain in the bowels. It is also very common for pains in the bowels sensibly to move backwards, and settle in the muscles of the loins, in the form of lumbago. These facts evince that a resemblance exists betwixt the two diseases; or rather, that they differ only in the part affected. This is more particularly to be remarked in such forms of these diseases as owe their origin to cold. When rheumatism is the effect of overstrained muscular exertion, or when diarrhœa is the effect of acrimonious or spoiled food, they do not alternate in the same manner. The disease is not then connected with a general diathesis in the animal system. It is more properly local in its nature, and therefore less easily shifted to different parts of the body. I have observed in some cases a similar connexion betwixt bowel

Digitized by Google

complaints and pneumonia, especially where the constitution has been impaired by a former dysentery. When the system has been exposed in a susceptible state to the effects of cold, symptoms of an incipient inflammation in the lungs were accompanied with uneasiness in the bowels; and where the disease was not stopped, it terminated sometimes in pneumonia, sometimes in diarrhœa. In Egypt, bowel complaints were observed by the medical gentlemen, both in the French service and ours, to alternate remarkably with ophthalmia. This last disease, though it did not in general yield to the administration of purgatives, often disappeared on the patient being attacked with diarrhœa. And, on the other hand, it frequently attacked a patient when a diarrhœa or a dysentery was cured. Diseases of the bowels are well known to alternate with the different species of lichen, and other cutaneous diseases."

The author does not consider the effects of obstructed perspiration in producing diarrhœa to arise from those humours which would have been thrown out by the skin being forced inwards on the bowels, but to the action of cold upon the sensible fibres of the skin, and to the sympathy of those fibres with those of the alimentary canal. In the cure of diarrhœa he principally trusts to opium, conjoined with some one or other of the various astringents in use. When they have assumed a chronic form, camphor and opium are often found to be the best remedies.

In his description of dysentery, the author is not disposed to consider fever as always forming a constituent part of this disease; he is rather of opinion that it is an independent disease, with which the intestinal affection is accidentally combined; and hence observes, that dysentery often appears as a collateral epidemic, during the prevalence of remittent fevers. Diarrhœa and dysentery, he is of opinion, are much more nearly connected than is generally allowed, and has had frequent occasion to remark, that dysentery either begins, or, in the course of some of its stages, has had a mixture of diarrhœal symptoms combined with it. The causes of dysentery are the same as those of diarrhœa, and, whatever may have been its origin, it generally is in course capable of being propagated by contagion. This the author also considers as applicable, though in a smaller degree, to diarrhœa. The cause of dysentery he attributes to irritations, which are attended with slight specific sensations in the parts affected, and which at first produce almost imperceptible changes in the alimentary canal, but by being in time accumulated, give rise to a train of diseased motions and painful feelings, which all at once force themselves upon the attention.

As preventives of this disease, the author recommends caution with regard to exercise, particularly in the heat of the day, flannel clothing, attention to diet and the state of the alimentary canal, and the use of aromatics, as cinnamon or ginger, on finding the least pain of the bowels. In the beginning of the complaint, the alimentary canal is to be cleared by purgatives of neutral salts, or castor oil; but during their operation it is strongly recommended to keep the bowels very warm by thick folds of flannel, secured by a flannel roller applied tight, and in a uniform manner, nearly to the arm pits, and to wear this until the complaint disappears. Emetics are necessary when there is much nausea and heaviness about the stomach, but they are to be given in divided doses, so as to operate by vomiting and stool. After the operation is over, opiates are to be exhibited to quiet the bowels, and after twenty-four or thirty-six hours the purgatives must be again had recourse to; and thus by alternately exciting the bowels and allowing them to rest, the greater number of dysenteries gradually yielded. When the flannel bandage was employed, the author remarks, that opiates were very seldom necessary, as the support which it gave to the bowels, together with the warmth kept up by it, were generally sufficient of themselves to produce considerable relief. The author speaks with great confidence of the use of this application, which he was first induced to employ from the recommendation of the late Dr. Whyte. He adverts to various other means of cure which have been employed by different authors, and concludes with some observations on the diet proper for dysenteric patients, and the treatment of some complaints consequent upon this serious disease.

Digitized by Google

ART. XVI. *An Account of the Epidemical Catarrhal Fever commonly called the Influenza, as it appeared at Bath in the Winter and Spring of the Year* 1803. *By* W. FALCONER, *M. D. F. R. S.* pp. 46.

THE epidemic which prevailed so universally in the beginning of last year, has given rise to several publications on its nature and treatment. The ample opportunities which have been so universally afforded, of witnessing every part of its phenomena, might reasonably be supposed to have elucidated every circumstance concerning it. We still however find, that there is considerable difference of opinion, not only with regard to some particulars of its treatment, but on its mode of propagation; many conceiving it to be of a contagious nature, and therefore capable of being communicated from an individual to another, while others consider it as arising from an epidemic constitution of the air to which all are equally exposed. The question is one of considerable difficulty, and we are not yet in possession of evidence sufficient to determine it. The mere statement of an opinion, with which authors for the most part content themselves, cannot be admitted as having much weight in an inquiry, which is only to be successfully prosecuted by a minute attention to facts, in the examination of which there are numerous sources of error. Some observations of Dr. Haygarth's, on the nature of the epidemics, of the years 1775 and 1782, which are published for the first time in an appendix to the account of the influenza now before us, seem to afford an example of the only proper way, by which the contagious nature of so universal a disease can be clearly ascertained: Information was carefully sought for and obtained, from various respectable persons, whether in the profession or not, of the particular periods at which the epidemic made its appearance, both in Chester, and the different towns and villages in its neighbourhood, and of the sources from whence it was supposed to have arisen. In the year 1775, the first person afflicted with the influenza in Chester, was the landlady of a principal inn, to whom it was supposed to have been communicated by some travellers from London; in a short time it spread through the whole town. In the year 1782, a gentleman ill of the influenza, went from London to the same place, and communicated the disease to a lady into whose family he came; in about a fortnight the complaint was general. In villages and scattered houses in the country, the disease always appeared later than in neighbouring towns, and its introduction could frequently be traced, without difficulty, to a particular individual. The following was the result of the information which Dr. Haygarth received on the rise of the epidemic in several towns in the neighbourhood of Chester.

"1. That the first patient who had the disease in Frodsham, was seized with it as he was returning from Manchester.—2. That at Malpas, the first patient was the landlady of the inn and her family, a week sooner than any other patient in the town.—3. That the first person who had the distemper in Middlewich brought it from Liverpool.—4. That the first person affected with the influenza at Mold, had been at Chester a few days before, in a family ill of that distemper.—5. That a gentleman arrived at Oswestry, ill of the influenza before the inhabitants were attacked.—6. That at Tarporley, the first person seized was a postilion who had driven a chaise thither from Warrington, where the distemper had previously appeared.—7. That at Wrexham, the first patient came from Chester, and the second from Shrewsbury. But my correspondents at Holywell and Ruthin did not recollect by whom it was brought into these towns."

Reasoning from the analogy of the former epidemics, and comparing their progress with what has happened in 1803, Dr. Haygarth has no doubt of the late influenza having been contagious, but in order to ascertain the fact by the most correct evidence, he advises practitioners to institute enquiries similar to those which he made, in order to discover the very individuals by whom the disease was transported from one place to another. This kind of evidence is certainly necessary to set the question at rest; and it is to be lamented, that the enquiries of Dr. Haygarth have not been equally directed to the investigation of the nature of the late influenza, as to that of the former one; or that other medical men of experience and observation, have not prosecuted the subject on a similar plan.

The principal circumstances which characterize the account given in this pamphlet, of the influenza as it appeared in Bath, and its neighbourhood, are the disposition which frequently shewed it-

self to peripneumony, and the consequent necessity there was, in such cases, for general blood-letting. The complaint came on with symptoms of general fever, which were soon followed by headach, cough, and difficult respiration; pain and throbbing of the temples, vertigo, and hot and dry skin. The pulse was variable, in some very quick, even to 150 in a minute; in others not exceeding 80 or 90. In one of the worst cases which Dr. Falconer saw, it did not exceed 70, and in upwards of 100 cases which appeared in the general hospital, it did not rise above 100. Six only of the cases which occurred in the hospital had peripneumonic symptoms, but they were much more frequent in private practice. Only four persons died in the author's practice, and all of them peripneumonic; he had not an opportunity of inspecting the appearances on dissection, but received the particulars of a case, in every respect similar to them, from Dr. Broderip, in which there was much inflammation in the substance of the lungs, with large adhesions, and considerable extravasations of coagulable lymph. When the peripneumonic symptoms were at all urgent, bleeding was absolutely necessary; but they were frequently checked in their progress, by the early employment of an emetic. Neither leeches nor blisters were adequate to the relief of the pectoral complaints. Ammoniacum and squills seemed to do harm, volatile alkali appeared to be serviceable, but most advantage was derived from opiates, given so as to abate the cough. The author considers the complaint as decidedly contagious, and remarks, that it was always followed by a great and characteristic debility, which remained for some time after the complaint had gone off. After giving the results of his own experience in this complaint, the author annexes an account, translated from the Moniteur, of the same disease as it appeared in Paris. He subjoins an abstract from the bills of mortality of Bath, in order to shew that the number was very materially increased, during the existence of the epidemic, but as far as his own practice extended, the disease was by no means a fatal one.

ART. XVII. *Observations on the Epidemic Catarrhal Fever, or Influenza of* 1803; *to which are subjoined Historical Abstracts concerning the Catarrhal Fevers of* 1762, 1775, *and* 1782, *and Communications from various Correspondents. Second Edition. By* RICHARD PEARSON, *M. D.* pp. 49.

THE late epidemic is here represented as having differed from a common cold, in the degree and kind of fever with which it was accompanied, and in the fever, not the catarrhal symptoms, constituting the essence of the disease. From these circumstances, the author is of opinion, that it should be termed epidemic catarrhal fever, or synochus catarrhalis, and not simply epidemic catarrh. The following are mentioned as its most frequent symptoms.

"After some alternations of chilliness and heat, the patient is seized with a heaviness or pain of the head, with sneezing, wateriness of the eyes, hoarseness and cough. These symptoms come on in the order here stated. In the course of a few hours the headach increases, the skin becomes hot, with pains in the back and limbs, or transitory stitches across the chest. The tongue is white; the pulse quick or frequent, and for the most part soft. There is more or less of sickness at the stomach, and sometimes vomiting. The bowels are generally costive; and considerable uneasiness, or even a distressing pain, is felt in some part of the abdomen in many instances. But the second or third night, the cough and fever become greatly aggravated. The former, viz. the cough, is strong and incessant, sometimes dry, but often accompanied (even at its first coming on) with an expectoration of thin, sharp mucus: the latter, viz. the fever, is attended with increased heat, and with extreme restlessness and anxiety. There is also some confusion of the head. At this time the pulse is often from 110 to 120. In the morning there is a considerable remission of the febrile symptoms; but the cough (with more or less dyspnœa) still continues urgent, and the patient complains of excessive languor and dejection of spirits.

"After the third or fifth day, where early perspirations have come on, or sufficient evacuations have been procured by the stomach and bowels, the fever declines: and although the cough continues, the expectoration is more free, the sputum being of a thicker consistence, and milder quality. The urine, which before was high-coloured and clear, now becomes turbid, or throws down a sediment. In other instances the cough continues very troublesome for many days, or even some weeks, after the abatement or cessation of the fever, and goes off very tediously without any remarkable degree of expectoration.

Digitized by Google

"The lassitude and depression of spirits, with restless nights, harass the patients for many days after the decline of the fever; which indeed, in several instances, does not go off after the fifth day, but becomes intermittent, the patient feeling himself worse every other day."

These symptoms were modified in various ways; in some there appearing a violent headach, and in others a sore throat, a peripneumonic disposition, or a disorder of the stomach and bowels. As the author considers the fever to be the essence of the complaint, his plan of cure is principally directed to the use of such remedies, as are capable of acting upon the system at large. Hence he recommends, at first, emetics, cathartics, and diaphoretics, and afterwards gentle opiates and the squill. Blisters were beneficial for the relief of the cough and dyspnœa, and when pneumonic symptoms appeared early, blood-letting was necessary. Great debility had remained after the symptoms had gone off, which was rather to be removed by bitters or myrrh, than bark or mineral acids.

The infectious nature of this disease, the author thinks is hardly to be doubted; but his opinion on this point appears to be rather derived from general reasoning, than the consideration of particular facts. Nothing but facts can justify a decided conclusion upon this subject; for though the origin of the complaint may not be referable to any perceptible change in the state of the air, yet it by no means follows from hence, that it is necessarily propagated by personal communication. It must still be admitted to have arisen from an unknown cause, the operation of which differs exceedingly from that of any contagion with which we are acquainted, and until it is unequivocally shewn that it has been conveyed only by personal intercourse, and has been confined within the limits to which this has extended, many doubts must still remain on this subject. In the communications from which the author gives abstracts, there is considerable difference of opinion with regard to the contagious nature of the complaint. Most of the correspondents consider it as an infectious disease, but one of them who is of this opinion, Mr. Du Gard, of Shrewsbury, mentions an instance of a boy, who was seized with it at a grammar school, on the 20th of February, was ill a week, and did not communicate the complaint to his bedfellow, nor any of the boys in the same room, who amounted to 20:

"—nor did any one in the house become attacked with the disease till this boy had been well eleven days, at which time, five or six were taken ill, and the same number daily till four fifths of the school were affected."

In general, the observations and practice of the author's correspondents pretty much agreed with his own. The disease very seldom assumed an inflammatory disposition, and bleeding was rarely necessary.

ART. XVIII. *A Plain Discourse on the Causes, Symptoms, Nature, and Cure of the prevailing Epidemical Disease, termed Influenza. By* JOHN HERDMAN, *M. D. Fellow of the Royal College of Surgeons of Edinburgh.* pp. 76.

THE author has entered upon the consideration of influenza, with hypothetical ideas on the general nature of diseases, unsupported by, and frequently repugnant to the inductions of the most cautious and attentive observation. He is a Brunonian, but his principles do not always accord with those of his master; for while the latter admitted the existence of diseases of excitement, requiring blood-letting and other evacuants, the former denies that such a morbid state of the system can ever occur; and hence concludes, that the debilitating plan of cure must, in every circumstance, be improper. The extent to which Dr. Herdman carries his speculative notions on the practice of medicine, which, it may however be remarked, are not novel, may be appreciated, from his determined reprobation of blood-letting in the most violent pneumonia. The more violent the inflammatory symptons are, the greater, in his opinion, is the degree of debility which has occasioned them, and the less, therefore, are the usual means for removing inflammation, adapted to the cure. A doctrine so extremely repugnant to the universal experience of medical practitioners, might do a great deal of harm, if it were not so evidently in contempt of every well established fact, and so clearly the result of a narrow and unphilosophical view of the subject. The author possesses, however, a great deal of self-complacency, and entertains no doubt of the firmness of the basis on which his reasoning and practice are built.

His doctrine and treatment of influen-

Digitized by Google

za (which has given rise to a long exposition of the principles which guide him in the practice of medicine) are simple; he considers it a disease of debility, produced by debilitating powers existing in the atmosphere, and to be cured by keeping the patient quiet, and by warmth; but should nature require more to relieve the complaint, you may then, says he, administer "your stimulant medicines and your warm cordial drinks, your opium, your warm wine, and your warm spirits and water."

ART. XIX. *On the Influenza, as it appeared in Bristol and its Vicinity during Part of February, March, and Part of April* 1803. *By* JOHN NOTT, *M. D.* pp. 25.

THE symptoms here described, and the method of cure recommended, do not materially differ from those which are mentioned in the other accounts of the epidemic already given. Bleeding was never necessary when the complaint appeared in its simple form; but when it was combined with peripneumonic symptoms, as was frequently the case, a corresponding mode of treatment became necessary. A full dose of opium has sometimes suspended the disease, but in general this medicine was found to be improper, for in such cases the complaint afterwards returned with increased violence. Syrup of poppies was a good anodyne; but opium itself, contrary to the experience of Dr. Falconer, seemed to do harm, by checking the expectoration. The author's experience of blisters differed from that of most other medical men: he found them to be of little or doubtful efficacy.

With regard to the nature of this complaint, the author is adverse to the opinion of its being contagious, and thinks it ascribable to some peculiarities in the air, which elude all medical research. The reasons which he adduces against its contagious nature, are the following, viz.—That two or three persons of a numerous family have had the disease, without any others being affected by it, till a fortnight after their recovery; that its propagation in public seminaries has been unfrequent and uncertain; that people who slept together frequently did not take it from each other; that it often attacked all the individuals of a large family at almost the same instant, which could hardly argue the progression of the contagion from one to another; and that remote villages, and solitary houses, have been affected at the precise time of its appearance in large cities. The last stated fact, it may be observed, is at variance with those which Dr. Falconer mentions on the same subject.

ART. XX. *Observations on the Epidemical Diseases now prevailing in London, with their Divisions, Mode of Treatment, &c. By* ROBERT HOOPER, *M. D. resident Physician to the St. Mary le-Bone Infirmary, &c.* pp. 43.

DR. Hooper describes the late epidemic as assuming a considerable diversity of forms, and as having its origin in causes which exist in the atmosphere. The forms under which the epidemic appeared, were peripneumonia vera, peripneumonia notha, catarrh and acute rheumatism. The symptoms of each of those species of the complaint, and the treatment required by them, are given under particular heads; but previous to their being thus separately considered, the author gives the remote causes, which seemed to him to dispose to their attack; and the general symptoms by which they were accompanied, together with the treatment which each of them seemed more especially to require. These symptoms are particularly referred to the head, chest, limbs, skin, pulse, tongue, bowels, and stomach, and the nature and degree of them a good deal depended upon the form of the epidemic with which the patient was attacked. The author describes the appearance of the tongue as having been very uniform.

"From the beginning of the disease," says he, "to the termination, it is white in the centre, and its edges are red, and studded with very florid papillæ.

"In some instances, the line which separates the red edges from the white centre is very distinctly marked, and frothy, while in others the whiteness is gradually lost towards the sides.

"The whiteness of the tongue appears to arise from change of colour in the papillæ of the tongue, and not from inspissated mucus covering that organ, though in some this has taken place.

"In many instances several of the papillæ are of a florid red colour, and distinct in the midst of the white papillæ. This appearance

Digitized by Google

resembles somewhat the strawberry seed elevated upon the strawberry, with this difference only, that the seeds of the strawberry are yellow, and not red. The strawberry tongue is sometimes observed in other diseases besides the prevalent epidemics, but in these it has been very common.

"The removal of the diseased states of the tongue depends on the removal of the other phenomena of the disease."

The treatment adopted by the author, did not differ from that usually employed in the cure of the complaints to which he referred the different forms of the epidemic.

ART. XXI. *Hygëia: or, Essays Moral and Medical, on the Causes affecting the Personal State of the middling and affluent Classes. By* THOMAS BEDDOES, *M. D.* 8vo. Three vols.

AMONG the multitude of writers on the '*art of preserving health*,' there are few who merit any particular attention. They have in general copied from each other, and detailed the common notions and prejudices of the age in which they lived, apparently with no object in view but to announce themselves to the world, as the proper guardians and dispensers of the blessings of health and longevity. Catalogues serve to record the books which they have written, but posterity is not in possession of any proofs of the good which they have done, or the benefits which they designed. When an author appears endowed with superior abilities to lay before the public a body of popular information on health, his writings have many claims to be studied with all the care and consideration required for so difficult and delicate a subject. Such is the author of the work now before us. The name of Dr. Beddoes must be familiar to all readers. The number and variety of his publications, the novelty and boldness of his views, and the peculiar originality of many of his speculations, have contributed to raise and to sink his fame in the scientific and literary world. For conveying instruction from the shrine of Hygëia, he has shewn himself possessed of talents of no common and ordinary cast. One of his most striking characteristics as a writer, is the power of drawing fine pictures of diseases; he delineates the most trivial complaints in the strongest colours, which fix the attention and captivate the imagination. He has proved himself a great enthusiast in whatever he undertakes, though in the present instance his ardour and zeal may by some persons be considered as misplaced.

This work is divided into eleven essays, which were published separately. These essays are written in a bold energetic style, yet there is too much frothy declamation, and frequently a careless or wanton forgetfulness of the subject. It is to be regretted, that they did not receive the form as they contain the substance of a general treatise. Much obscurity and useless prolixity would have been avoided, if the trifling and temporary topics had been placed in a subordinate digression or wholly omitted, instead of being interweaved with more interesting and general inquiries. This work, however, is only a prelude to a more comprehensive one; it is selected from a general treatise of physiology, which the author promises soon to bring forward, *for the use of all to whom their own nature is interesting*. We shall attempt to give an abstract view of the principal contents of these volumes.

The first essay, on personal prudence, and on prejudices respecting health, contains the greater part of the author's opinions on the means of avoiding habitual sickness and premature mortality. He tells us his intention, with regard to preventive medicine, in the following passage:

"What I could wish then, and what every one, who has taken serious pains to follow up the most irreparable and most regretted of human sufferings to their origin, will agree with me in wishing, is, that reasonable care should be taken to provide each individual with a set of ideas, exhibiting the precise relation in which his system, and the several organs of which it is compounded, stand to external agents, particularly to those with which he is likely to come most in contact; that these sets of ideas be so placed in his head, that he may refer to them with as little difficulty as to the watch he wears in his pocket; and that as by the one he adjusts his business to his time, so by the other he may be always able to accommodate his actions to his powers.

"The distance at which we at present stand from such a consummation is no reason why future generations should, like the past, be abandoned to their fate. The relation of the animated machine to the powers by which it is put in motion, is unhappily not enough understood for the purposes of minute medical philosophy; but so far as it

Digitized by Google

is understood, it constitutes, as I hope to shew in the sequel, a doctrine rich in lessons for common life."

Personal prudence is only to be acquired by an acquaintance with the structure and functions of the human body. For this purpose, Dr. Beddoes proposes, that lectures on select subjects of *anatomy*, adapted for a *mixed* audience, should be established in all our large towns; that one of the medical profession in each place should undertake the office of lecturer, or that travelling professors should engage in such an employment. The deep interest excited by a teacher of chemistry, when he treats of respiration, is adduced as an example to enforce the importance of this proposal. And precedents are produced from the success of a popular course of anatomical lectures at Bristol, and the lectures on *anthropology*, which are given in some foreign countries. To supply the want of lectures, books and engravings are recommended, and clinical lectures, to teach the method of applying physiological knowledge to domestic use.

Many objections present themselves to this general diffusion of medical knowledge. The arguments adduced in its favour by our ingenious author are not very consistent or convincing. There can be little doubt, that the ascertainment of causes has scarcely been more beneficial in preventing real danger, than in banishing false alarms; but it is the difficulty of ascertaining the causes of diseases, which renders a superficial knowledge of medicine or physiology more likely to induce, than to banish false fears. Medicine at present is imperfect, whether considered as an art or a science; it requires to be deeply studied, to be well practised and understood. Since it ought to be our first concern in the art of living, to ensure a continued succession of agreeable feelings, this general acquaintance with the human body and its complicated disorders, may be productive of more harm than good. It will render persons alive to sensations, trifling in themselves, that would otherwise escape attention, and imaginary and exaggerated complaints will form a more conspicuous part of the evils of life. We shall see people constantly swallowing pills to clear the *prime vie*, supposed to be deranged; and nobody will travel without a tourniquet to stop hæmorrhage, or caustic and a scalpel to prevent the mischief from the bite of a mad dog!

This consideration will be better illustrated by an example than by any general assertion. Let us then refer to our universities; let us enquire, whether hypochondriasis be not very common among medical students? According to Dr. Beddoes it ought not, but we will venture to assert, that among no class of men is it more frequent. Every student almost in the beginning of his studies is harassed by groundless apprehensions; through his want of more extensive knowledge and experience, he often has every disease in succession as he reads *Cullen's First Lines*, and where a constitutional tendency to low spirits has existed, some young men have appeared to die, not from any one particular disease, but from *Cullen's Nosology!* If such be the case with those who must be supposed to have acquired more information than can be derived from a few popular lectures, what must be the condition of a large portion of the community, when every person shall be taught in his youth a smattering of anatomy, and physiology, and diseases?

The aim and object of this popular instruction is highly laudable, if it could be attained within certain limits. It would lead men to avoid those things which gradually undermine the constitution, and might enable them to check diseases in the first stages; it would teach them when to call in medical assistance, and enable them to select rational and judicious practitioners. These good effects seem more likely to be counterbalanced by the bad, which have been already stated, and of which Dr. Beddoes seems fully aware. For he deprecates the custom of living by rule, and condemns very justly the *methodists* in meat and drink. His plan, however, seems calculated to increase the number of fanatics in physic, though in his *second essay* on the prevention of mischief he very properly sets forth the folly and absurdity of making private practitioners. The *lady and gentlemen doctors*, the hoarders of single infallible cures, the pedlars and hucksters in medicine are very ably and judiciously exposed. Alluding to the absurdity and evil tendency of books on domestic medicine, he expresses himself thus:

"Here let me beg the reader to consider the power and province of mere rules in practical affairs of the easiest kind. No one has, I suppose, yet come forward with pretensions to teach the coarsest handicraft by a book.

But in the tumult of literary projects, amid which we live, scarce any absurdity being impossible, let us imagine some adventurer, sufficiently intoxicated to undertake to communicate the capacity for exercising one of our humblest, and most useful trades, without apprenticeship, by a tract on *domestic shoe-making*. Should any one, after studying this tract, conceit himself qualified to handle the awl and the paring knife, I leave it to be imagined by the reader, how unmercifully the leather would be pricked and slashed, and what would be the condition of the poor toes, condemned to be lodged in the receptacle, prepared by these learned hands. Does common sense spurn at the idea of efficacious instruction in such an art by such means? Are the qualities, then, of leather more complicated than those of the living body? Does the art of managing the former to most advantage require a long apprenticeship, and not that of managing the latter? Are the tools that lie within the compass of the shoemaker's bench, more easy to employ properly, than the articles of the materia medica? I see, indeed, one essential difference: the incompetent mechanic will soon be marked; no clumsy workmanship of his can pass: whereas, in medicine, bunglers may go on, I know not how long, without disgrace. This chance of escaping detection is, no doubt, an encouragemnt for *private practitioners*, such as nothing can countervail, if they be agitated by the same restless dæmon that possessed Lord Chesterfield's blood-letting peer. But I have no hope of effecting any thing, except with active, but misguided benevolence. Insanity must be differently dealt with, and wrong-headedness is scarce to be reclaimed by plain dictates of prudence. Otherwise, a consideration, yet untouched, would be decisive! For the defect of the artisan, who leaves his work imperfect, can be afterwards supplied. But an amending hand may be vainly applied in case of omission during sickness, where it is often just as fatal to leave undone what is right, as to do what is wrong. What then shall we think of the defence, which conscious incapacity is so apt to set up by anticipation: very simple my advice is: you may be sure if it does no *good, it can do no harm*? Oh, yes, but if does no good, it *can* do harm —all possible harm, provided in killing there be harm. It can arrest the rescuing hand, till the silent, but progressive finger of fate move from *time is*, to *time is no more*. There are plenty of occasions on which water-gruel, upon the harmless principle, will do a man's business just as effectually as laurel-water. And what, I pray, does it signify to the killed, whether they come to their end by the saucepan or the still? To the killer, the difference, we know, is all in all. Yet he who simply thrusts his ignorance between the sick, and the means of recovery, will really have done more mischief, inasmuch as he will have more largely accumulated pain upon death. And surely, where law cannot interfere, the call is so much louder for public censure. It is by far too unequal a game to be allowed in society, where one party stakes empty professions of good-will against the other's existence."

To many persons the study of physiology must be well suited, as an interesting branch of natural philosophy. An inquiry into the structure of animal bodies, an investigation of the beautiful adaptation of different parts, and of the most wonderful effects produced by the simplest means, will be deemed far more interesting than the history of butterflies and cockle-shells. But the latter of these pursuits is less liable to abuse, and therefore better adapted for general readers; inasmuch as medical reading excites groundless anxieties, especially on hypochondriacs, which have so often been exhibited with exquisite humour. Some acquaintance with the general principles of medicine might be useful to the clergy, especially those residing in the country, as they may be called upon to judge of the propriety of sending for medical aid, and can enforce the regulations necessary for the preservation of health.

The third and fourth essays include a variety of curious and important observations on schools. Many of the instances of errors, mentioned in the fourth essay, might have been omitted with great propriety. Common decency and decorum require such omissions. The remarks on girls' schools appear just and well-founded; the lady abbesses of our temporary nunneries will blush at such a public declaration of the truth. It is to be hoped, that the faults are not so general or so enormous as detailed. The condition of children, with respect to food, is said to be improved, and there was room for improvement, as a curious fact is stated in another part of this work, *of forty girls at a school who fed for two successive days upon a single leg of mutton!*

The second volume commences with a series of useful details relating to animal temperature. Then follow two essays on *scrophula* and *consumption*, which include many excellent remarks, well deserving an attentive perusal. Did our limits permit, several interesting passages might be selected from these two important dissertations.

In the last volume, our author comes to treat of what is generally understood by the appellation of *nervous disorders*;

Digitized by Google

an appellation which pathological writers have never been able to form a distinct conception of, and nosologists have in vain attempted satisfactorily to define. To describe them, as Dr. Beddoes has done, is equally inconsistent with the spirit of analysis, and the true history of those diseases. His description would include all automatic motions, and the state of fatigue, arising from the occasional exercise of our perceptive and intellectual faculties, although these states of the system have never been considered as related to nervous affections. From the little we know of the origin and progress of this extensive tribe of fashionable complaints, it does not appear judicious to exclude from this class all those irregular actions of the nerves, in which some other part of the system is at all concerned, as cause and effect. Our author indeed seems convinced of the truth of this remark, for he enumerates various cautions against the derangement of organs closely connected with the functions of the brain. That an over-loaded stomach may give rise to frightful dreams and delirium; that hysteria, hypochondriasis, and epilepsy, are frequently connected with disorders of the bowels; that mania and melancholia are often brought on by intemperance or by fever, &c. are facts sufficiently ascertained for disclaiming any ground of distinction, originating in the remoteness or the different nature of the immediate cause of nervous disorders. Small-pox, our author observes, is sometimes accompanied with convulsions; is it for that reason to be classed among nervous diseases? No; but nervous affections, considered as a particular class of complaints, are sometimes induced by small-pox and other eruptive fevers, and they do not lose their specific character, because the exciting causes may indeterminately vary in different as well as in the same subject. When we object to Dr. Beddoes' definition of nervous disorders, we are far from intending to substitute another in its place. In order to be consistent, we do not feel disposed to exclaim against nosological histories, and then make a feeble attempt to delineate an outline of fanciful characters. It is better to acquiesce in the general notion of the vulgar, looking upon these diseases as related more particularly to a certain mobility of the nervous system, assuming in its effects all possible gradations, from simple frivolity to actual convulsions. Farther than this we conceive ourselves unable to penetrate through the medium of language. The department of the practical physician extends to the various associations of morbid phenomena, which he can discover as causes or effects of each other, and which he can frequently destroy, though unable to comprehend distinctly the nature of their necessary connexion. We are more disposed to insist on this point, because we are persuaded, that this part of pathology has suffered much from artificially separating diseases which nature has indissolubly united, by considering the diseases of the mind as diseases *sui generis*, and therefore out of the reach of the physical experimentalist. Groundless apprehensions of the consequences of materialism have operated as a check to the natural connexion of these two essential elements of rational physiology. When dispassionate reasoning has shewn the possibility of separating the useful application of a salutary doctrine from its adventitious abuses, no apology can be offered for supporting a view of natural phenomena, inconsistent with all the rules of inductive philosophy.

After premising these general remarks, on the plan which medical inquirers ought to follow in such intricate objects of investigation, we feel great pleasure in stating, that Dr. Beddoes has presented his readers with an excellent specimen of what may be done by a method apparently so tedious and unpromising. The case is that of an intelligent foreigner, who was afflicted seven years with epileptic fits, and kept an accurate journal of all the circumstances connected with the accession of different paroxysms, as they fell under his own observation or that of his attendants. This account furnishes a number of data concerning the occasional state of the organs of intellect, which in ordinary practice could hardly be obtained in any manner adapted for any useful application. There are numerous difficulties in the way of increasing the number of such historical reports. A patient sends for a physician as to the regulator of his disturbed nerves and broken spirits, when the doctor perhaps is hurried from house to house, from one case to another, unwilling to listen to long stories about dreams, reveries, stupors, &c. and chills his patient in the warmth of his narrative zeal. Allowing the possibility, that mankind and medical science might

Digitized by Google

be benefited by his patience, the fashionable physician has learnt, that a call at an apothecary's shop, or some jocose remark on the news of the day, conduces more to increase his fortune and professional reputation, than the most profound speculations on the tremors and interesting sensibility of delicate females. The ingenious author of these essays must be applauded for his laudable courage, in upbraiding the leaders of fashion for their senseless course of routes, balls, and other such sickly joys. "It is a notorious fact, that at the close of the season in London women appear worn out, haggard, and spent. During their stay in the country, their shrunk countenances regain a degree of plumpness, their muscles recover their tone, and they really feel somewhat of that flow of spirits, which they often afterwards so miserably affect." But as if Dr. B. apprehended some danger from this bold and disinterested remark, he courts favour again, upon the happy recollection of the rules of good breeding, that have confined to the pulpit the privilege of declaiming with safety against the vices and follies of the age.

"Persons, it is commonly seen, who are governed by different habits, conceive towards each other a species of antipathy, so quick and inveterate, that it may almost pass for instinctive; and many a fine lady, on hearing the œconomy of her time arraigned by the sedate, has persuaded herself that the censure proceeds from this feeling, and not from any foundation in reason. But it is only necessary for her to revert to the influence of her days upon her nights, to be convinced that the sober part of mankind do not barely arrogate to themselves a superiority, such as any clan or cast may arbitrarily found upon some insignificant distinctions, but which no other need acknowledge. On the contrary, the advantage they enjoy is no less solid and permanent than the laws, according to which nature has ordained that the human frame shall be affected. The throngs, by which the followers of high life are perpetually pressed; the dazzling scenes which they frequent in quick succession; their unceasing hurry of body and mind; the anxiety (to say nothing of the mortification) which every candidate for admiration must undergo; all contribute to stir up a correspondent tumult of imagination as soon as they are sunk into slumber. When they have tossed themselves awake, how can they help feeling more weary by half than on going to bed? Without spirit to raise their head from the pillow, even if they have suspected this to be the best measure they could adopt, and in spite of constant disappointments, they still hope to find refreshment in an additional nap. But another and another leave them but in more languid plight. We cannot, therefore, be at a loss to comprehend the tendency of that mode of existence, to which we see our countrywomen so emulously devoting themselves. The night is the season in which the vulture of fashion flies abroad for prey. Many of the primrose cheeks and aspen constitutions, which are to be met with so abundantly in the great world, exhibit the consequences of his secret depredations."

In the ninth essay Dr. Beddoes wanders through all the roads, lanes, and alleys, of the nervous labyrinth, in the least connected with a derangement of the intellectual faculties. Not one is omitted; epilepsy, hysteria, catalepsy, convulsions and spasms, have long been known as belonging to this old tribe; but giddiness, chills, shiverings, heats, tremors, and starting form a new addition to the list, not the less formidable, we believe, from their apparent insignificance. It is one of the merits of this part of the work, to extend our views of those baneful disorders, to shew with more than common accuracy the relations that these deviations from the healthy state bear to each other. The perusal of this and the following essay may be amusing and instructive to medical inquirers, but in spite of the benevolence and good intentions of the author, we cannot recommend them to that particular set of persons whom they equally concern, and for whom they were designed. Even our tried spirits have been more than once almost smothered under the heavy load of predisposition to these horrible maladies, attendant upon human nature; and we still tremble and shake at the idea of impending danger. Nothing but a laudable confidence in the *vis medicatrix naturæ* could have preserved the author himself from sinking under the workings of his vigorous imagination. How dreadful must be the situation of those who read these essays, and have no experience or knowledge of such friendly aid!

In the tenth essay, Dr. Beddoes proceeds in the same strain to the consideration of those disorders, more strictly called *mental*, known by the names of *mania* and *melancholia*. This is not the place for enlarging upon these important topics of human miseries. Our author is less original here than in other parts of this work, for with the exception of some witty remarks on public characters, who boast of understanding human nature, when they

Digitized by Google

can hardly attend to the perceptions of their own senses, we find nothing but what might as well be extracted from Mr. Haslam's and Dr. Pinel's excellent books on insanity.

Upon the whole, we believe that the end held in view by Dr. Beddoes, when he published this *Hygëia*, has never been seriously submitted to the controul of his judgment. It is a work undoubtedly which comes from the hand of genius, of a man whose conceptions are always grand, whose style is bold and fascinating. It is much to be regretted, that he has ever misconceived the application of his talents. This last performance is unworthy of his pen; it will be censured as too superficial by his brethren, and it will be considered as too abstruse and splenetic by other classes of readers.—The principle of *popular medicine* is fundamentally wrong; and all attempts to revive, under a new garb, the spirit of universal quackery, ought to be deprecated and shunned, as prejudicial to the advancement of science, and to the happiness and comfort of our fellow-creatures.

ART. XXII. *The Report on the Cow-pock Inoculation, from the Practice at the Vaccine Pock Institution, during the Years* 1801 *and* 1802, *&c. Written by the Physicians to the Institution.* 8vo. pp. 150.

TOGETHER with the History of the Vaccine Institution, this publication contains the results of the practice carried on within its walls, up to the end of 1802. The number inoculated to this time is stated to be 1202, a number comparatively small, but amply sufficient for the basis of the valuable pathological observations here laid before the public by the physicians to the institution, Drs. Pearson, Nihell, and Nelson.

These observations are given as commentaries upon the *principia* of vaccination, which are drawn up in the aphoristic form with eminent skill, perspicuity, and accuracy. These aphorisms or propositions are twenty-three in number, and they briefly discuss both the acknowledged points, and those that are still controverted. A few of these we shall notice:

Proposition 2.—"No one has died from the inoculation of the cow-pox." The authors are aware that this assertion requires some modification, and the following is given:

"Here however, perhaps, we ought to except a few instances, which have been published, of deaths of very young children, apparently occasioned by ulcerations of the inoculated part. These ulcerations were, in all probability, occasioned by exposure to cold, scratching, pressure, adhering of the linen to the ruptured vesicle, or sore from the torn off scab, together with the application of dirt, or other extraneous matter among very poor people, whose children were half starved and half naked. It has been too commonly the practice to blame the inoculator in these instances, by imputing the mischief to using matter from a pock older than the ninth day; and also, on equally unjustifiable grounds, to refer these bad consequences to using some other matter different from the vaccine, or to the mode of inoculation. We have heard of no death from the ulceration or inflammation among children duly nursed."

We agree with the author, that there has often been too much readiness to throw blame on the inoculator or the matter; but such cases of excessive inflammation are certainly not always to be imputed to carelessness in nursing and external injury, as indeed is allowed in the very next page, in speaking of the extent of local inflammation.

"We do not, however, mean to allege, that in no instance do such sore arms occur, independent of mechanical injury, from the irritation of the vaccine vesicle or scab itself; for, in truth, we have seen such cases in private practice, particularly in scrofulous patients."

The next proposition contains several most important points, which will admit of some discussion. The proposition states the general uniformity in the progress and appearance of the vesicle during its growth and maturation. The following exceptions require some notice: "The red areola generally took place, but when it was absent, in other respects the pock was the usual one; and the susceptibility of the small-pox was equally destroyed, as when the most extensive erythema appeared on the inoculated part."

"In some cases a large pimple, or gnat bite-like eruption only was excited, but permanent for the usual time, yet, on reinoculation with the vaccine and variolous matter, the susceptibility of the small-pox appeared to have been destroyed.

"By scratching, the common appearance of the vaccine pock was altered, but the effect of unsusceptibility of the small-pox was produced.

Digitized by Google

"In some cases the progress of the affection was so slow, that the pock on the eighth day had the common appearance of that of the fourth, and that of the sixteenth was like the usual one on the eighth or tenth. We have been shewn a case in which no signs appeared of the infection having taken place for five weeks; but in six days, after a second inoculation, a pock appeared, and alike from both inoculations.

"In two or three rare instances, an irregular figured pock, followed by a yellow rough large irregular figured scab, was produced on repeated inoculation; yet the subject could not take the small-pox subsequently.

"In one case a large mulberry-like pock only was excited, yet the susceptibility of the small-pox was destroyed by it.

"In no case was the susceptibility of the cow-pock, and of course of the small-pox, destroyed, when the pimple or pock excited, disappeared within ten or twelve days, although the inflammation was seen on the day after inoculation, and when also no cicatrix was left behind.

"The areola is neither essential in the same, nor different constitutions; nor connected with the fever; nor with the age of the matter; nor with the quantity of it; nor with the mode of inoculation; but with apparently the state of the skin, in even different arms of the same person, one arm had borne a pock with a large red areola, and the other had a pock with none at all; some have had no areola, and yet a fever; and others no observable fever, yet there was a considerable areola."

The reader will see from the above passage, that the authors make the test of sufficient vaccination to be, not the presence of the areola, nor even the form of the vesicle, but simply the time of its duration. This opinion indeed is not expressed absolutely, and refers chiefly to the individual cases on which it is founded; but experience would have justified a caution, not to rely implicitly on this test alone, as positive evidence might be brought of its insecurity.

The intervention of many of the diseases in every stage of vaccination, and of the small-pox in its earlier progress, is explained and illustrated in a very satisfactory manner.

We shall transcribe the whole of the twelfth proposition, with the subjoined remarks, as they relate to a point of practice which has been more controverted than any other;

"No difference could be perceived in the agency of the vaccine matter, according to the age of the pock, or to the presence or absence of areola, except in certain early ages of it, being more efficacious than others.

"It was the usage of the institution almost always to inoculate with matters of the eighth, or eleventh and twelfth days; and from our ample experience we affirm, that if the pock of the eleventh or twelfth day was not yet in the scabbing stage, or was but just beginning, the matter was equally efficacious with that of the eighth day; yet, if the pock had begun to scab, or was advanced to that state, this old matter oftener failed than younger matter; but when the matter of such old pocks failed to excite the vaccina, considerable inflammation or phlegmonous eruption or pimple (which is improperly called spurious cow-pock), did not more frequently occur than from younger matter of the distinct cow-pock, when it failed, and the bad consequences did not ensue more frequently from such old matter, than from matter of the eighth day, or earlier.

"Whether the matter was taken from a pock which had an areola or not, the effect was not on that account different. We have used matter when it could be had, as early as the fifth day, but it excited the vaccina with the usual appearances; and certainly it was not on account of the age of the matter more mild.

"Matter from a pock still containing lymph, though as late as the fifteenth day; and even pus, when the vesicle had become a pustule, generally produced no effect at all except like that of a common scratch; but sometimes it took effect, and then it produced the genuine distinct vaccina.

"In the same arms, matter of the eighth day and of the twelfth has been employed, and the event was, that each sort excited the genuine and similar vaccine pocks; and the same effects were seen from matter, so inoculated, of the eleventh and fifteenth days."

It is a curious question to determine the effect of diluting the virus. The reporters mixed the matter of a single pustule with a quarter of an ounce measure of warm water, and produced the perfect disease by subsequent inoculation with this diluted virus. We should think the proportion of dilution might be full an hundred fold in this instance.

An appendix is added to these elementary propositions, containing further illustrations derived from the practice of the institution, and abounding with acute observation; and the whole concludes with documents on the mortality of small-pox, and miscellaneous papers relative to the plan of the institution. Two beautiful coloured plates are prefixed, containing several views of the vaccine pustule, of some of its anomalies, and of the genuine small-pox pustule.

This publication merits every attention; though concise, it abounds with instruction, and the observations are often

Digitized by Google

original, always weighty. When such use is made of the opportunities of observation, afforded by an institution of limited means and moderate patronage, we have additional reason to join in the author's concluding sentence, that "*so much good has rarely, if ever, been done at so small an expence.*"

ART. XXIII. *A Treatise on the Cow-Pox, containing the History of the Vaccine Inoculation, and an Account of the various Publications which have appeared on that Subject in Great Britain, and other Parts of the World. By* JOHN RING, *Member of the Royal College of Surgeons.* 8vo. pp. 1038.

THE aspect of the work before us is truly a phenomenon in book-making; two full-sized octavo volumes without a single break or division into chapters, heads, or sections; without a table of contents or any of the common helps (a good index excepted) to assist the reader in cultivating an acquaintance with his author!

The first volume of this collection was published 1801, and begins the history of vaccine inoculation, with Dr Jenner's first experiments: the second volume carries down the history to May 1803, and the establishment of the Royal Jennerian Society in London. So much has now been written on this infinitely important subject, so many questions more or less intimately connected with it have been agitated, and above all, so many thousands have partaken of the benefit of vaccine inoculation, that, though the subject is by no means exhausted, it has become a very useful undertaking to exhibit under one comprehensive point of view, a full, clear, and impartial representation of all that has hitherto been done to establish cow-pock inoculation.

Mr. Ring in the preface to the first volume thus announces his plan.

"*Boerhaave*, speaking of the small-pox, says, 'there is reason to hope a specific may be found to correct this malady; and we are impelled to seek for such a specific, by the vast advantage that would thence accrue to mankind.'

"His words are prophetic; his hope is realized; a specific is discovered for that disease, which has been the scourge of Europe for a thousand years, and committed the most dreadful ravages in every quarter of the world.

"May the author of that discovery, which so eminently distinguishes him as the benefactor of the human race, live to reap the fruits of his labours! and to receive every possible demonstration of private and public gratitude and esteem!

"The vast number of remarks published on vaccine inoculation, both at home and abroad, having swollen this treatise far beyond the bulk at first intended, it was deemed expedient to divide it into two parts. The continual occurrence of new facts, and publication of new treatises on the subject, rendered it impracticable to preserve a strict and methodical arrangement. The intention of the author was, to collect and combine the substance of all that has hitherto been ascertained on this interesting subject; and rather to incur the censure of prolixity, than to deserve the charge of omitting any thing of importance, on an occasion where the welfare and happiness of the whole human race are so immediately concerned."

Mr. Ring's name stands eminently conspicuous as one of the earliest, most indefatigable, and most zealous promoters of the new inoculation, and we therefore give him full credit for the importance which he attaches to every iota that has ever been done or said on the subject: but as he professes in the present publication to *combine* as well as *collect*, we must suggest to him that combination, in a case like the present, implies an assortment or arrangement of heterogeneous materials, and not a mere republication of the original documents in the order in which they happened to be inserted in the Medical Journal or appeared in the booksellers' shops. We believe too that most of his readers would have wished for a little more *selection* as well as arrangement.

Let not our readers suppose, however, that the present is a mere compilation. The author enters into the subject so heartily, and is so much at home in every question of controversy that has ever been started on these topics, that his pages abound with remarks which agreeably, and generally usefully, break the tedious uniformity of narrative: nor are wanting to enliven the reader, the satirical touch and the apt classical quotation.

We shall not attempt a description of a work that defies analysis; nor would the task, if performed, be interesting to our readers, as it would chiefly present to them in another form what must be already quite familiar to them. We turn with much more satisfaction to the

part where the author speaks of his own efforts in this important cause.

" I come now to the last part of the task I have undertaken; which is, to state the result of my own practice. Deeply impressed with the magnitude and importance of this discovery, and of the benefits that would accrue to society from its adoption, I considered it as a duty incumbent on me to promote it to the utmost of my power. In consequence of this opinion, I laboured to overcome the prejudices which prevailed; and not altogether without success.

" Much experience has convinced me, that the prejudice of the public in general is not insurmountable; and that the prejudice of certain individuals would not be insurmountable, nor rise to such a height, were not a little of the leaven of self-interest blended with that prejudice. The annihilation of the small-pox is the annihilation of one of the principal branches of the medical revenue.

" Having overcome the first difficulty, by prevailing on a few families to submit to the new inoculation, having also ascertained the mildness of the disease, and its efficacy in protecting the patient from the small-pox, I resolved never to inoculate with variolous matter again, unless the vaccine fluid should prove less capable of superseding a previous infection of the small-pox.

" Nor should I deem it a perfect discharge of duty, in any professional man, on an occasion like this, did he not exert every faculty of his mind to remove the obstacles that retard the progress of this improvement; did he not explain the advantage of the practice to *all ranks of people*; did he not exhort and encourage, and *enable all ranks of people* to avail themselves of that advantage.

" Impressed with these sentiments, I have held out every encouragement in my power to all persons; but especially to that order of society, of which a very great majority have hitherto tasted only the bitter fruits of inoculation. To the rich it has proved a blessing; but to the poor in general, at least in this metropolis, it has proved a bane.

" Favourable as the opinion was, which I first entertained of the new practice, the success which has attended it has exceeded my most sanguine expectations. For a while it had some difficulties to encounter, like every other innovation; but when a few in any neighbourhood were inoculated, and its mild nature was ascertained, the tide of popularity turned in its favour; and instead of 800, which is about the number that I have now inoculated, if time and other avocations had permitted, I might have inoculated at least as many thousands.

" In the populous villages of Lambeth, Walworth, Newington, Bermondsey, and Rotherhithe, and in the Borough itself, there is no vaccine institution, nor inoculation hospital; nor was this practice scarcely known to any of the labouring poor, who constitute the bulk of society every where, but there in particular.

" In these parts in general, the houses and apartments are small and crowded; the streets narrow, the accommodations very scanty, the air in many places unhealthy; the people in general, from their situation in life, are ill-informed, and unable to procure good medical advice; and from a combination of these causes, the small-pox in that district is very fatal.

" Anxious to extend the blessings of this happy discovery, to acquire and communicate all the knowledge I possibly could of the subject, to dispel the mist of prejudice which was excited by certain malignant persons, and to establish the practice on a solid foundation, I devoted every moment which I could spare, and more than I could well spare, to these important objects. This is the reason why the present treatise has been so long delayed; and, I trust, will plead some apology for those imperfections which it now contains.

" In pursuance of this plan, I have assiduously sought for patients, whom I might inoculate with the vaccine virus; and laboured to remove every obstacle that opposed my progress. With the multitude, I have reason to believe, the expence of inoculation at home, and the trouble of having it performed at a distant place, are the principal objections to the practice: objections which, I sincerely hope, will soon be removed

" It is now unnecessary to exhibit a tabular statement of cases, or to detail those which are regular; I shall therefore confine my observations to those which tend to some practical inference, or serve to confirm, in a striking degree, the principal axioms laid down by the great advocates for this invention."

Of the great success which is likely to crown the endeavours of those who have zeal enough to give, not merely their money, but their time, and *personal* attention to this object, the author speaks in the following very satisfactory terms; and from all that we can collect, *he* has a good right so to speak.

" About the same time I inoculated a child of a wet nurse, who was suckling the child of Mr. Bourne, whose case is before mentioned. Anxious to propagate the practice, and to render it popular; anxious also to acquire all the knowledge I possibly could, of the nature and treatment of a disease on which I proposed to write, I embraced every opportunity of recommending this inoculation, and spared no pains in persuading the parents of children, who had not had the small-pox, to comply with my advice. This child was at nurse in York-street, Newington-causeway; and the woman who had the care of her neglecting to bring her to me, I

Digitized by Google

went to that place, and inoculated the infant. Observing a number of poor people in the neighbourhood, I determined to inform them of the advantages of this new practice, to which they were perfect strangers; and, by various arguments, especially by an offer of gratuitous inoculation at their own houses, found it not very difficult to prevail.

"Every proselyte which I gained facilitated the conversion of others; and my efforts were powerfully seconded by the encomiums lavished on this practice by those who experienced its good effects; but above all, by the benign appearance of the disease. Hence, instead of seeking for subjects to be inoculated, in a short time I had numerous applications; and was earnestly solicited to diffuse the benefits of this happy discovery in every direction.

"Could I have employed my whole time in the prosecution of this pleasing task, by which so much good may be done with so little trouble, and at so little expence, the number which I might have inoculated is incalculable. But many impediments lay in my way. The places were distant from my residence, and from each other; and, in addition to unavoidable avocations, a considerable part of the day was occupied in explaining the nature of the practice to those who requested information, and collecting matter to supply the increasing demand."

Mr. Ring, in his zeal to preserve the immaculate purity of the vaccine virus, speaks of some of the original experiments with more asperity than we ought to expect from a reformer.

"The virus generated by similar mal-practice has already been attended with ill consequences; already spread consternation in Great Britain and other parts of the world; and proved fatal in more places than one. It has disseminated a destructive pestilence far and wide under a fictitious name, and attacked unawares those who were totally unprepared for its reception. This ought to have been a warning to all men; and particularly to the parties immediately concerned in its dissemination.

"Such a practice, equally repugnant to every principle of reason, justice, and humanity, is a monster which ought to be strangled in the birth. It contains, however, within itself the seeds of its own dissolution.—By lessening public confidence, lessening the number of patients, and lessening the demand for a lucrative commodity, it will at length work its own downfall.

"If those who ask for the small-pox at one house, receive the cow-pox, and those who ask for the cow-pox at the other receive the small-pox, they will in time lose all patience; and exclaim with Mercutio, 'A pox on both your houses.'

"How accurately is this rage of making idle, useless, and wanton experiments, delineated by the masterly pen of Dr. Gregory, in his Address to the Manager of the Royal Infirmary at Edinburgh!"

The experiments here alluded to were neither idle, useless, nor wanton; they established some very important points which at that time were disputed, and the very reason for avoiding a repetition of them, is derived from the decisive information which they then afforded, and which could only have been acquired by such means.

Mr. Ring scorns to compliment the *good sense and liberality of the British public* at the expence of truth: he speaks his opinion plainly and forcibly with regard to the reception which the new inoculation has met with in this island.

"I lately received from Dr. Moore, who left England last year, a pamphlet published by Dr. Anderson, Physician-General at Madras, from which it appears that vaccination is welcomed there with the warmest enthusiasm; and that the governors, and medical officers of the British establishments in India, vie with each other in their zealous exertions to promote the practice.

"This is very different from the reception it met with in our frigid climate, where it first occasioned *a very long and general cold fit*; then *a very short and partial hot fit*, which terminated in *a critical sweat of a few guineas*.

"How unlike the profuse and salutary perspiration of certain individuals, on the rumour of an invasion! and the sacrifices they offer *at the shrine of patriotism*, and *on the altar of humanity*, when their own dear persons and property are in danger!

"Parliament, which gave its mite to one of the greatest benefactors of mankind, *in consequence of his humble petition*, and acknowledged the importance of the practice in the most unqualified terms, has done nothing to put that practice into execution.—But parliament has nothing to fear from the small-pox."

In this disheartening sentiment, we entirely concur with this zealous friend of vaccination; we agree with him that the reception of this discovery has been marked with a singular degree of coldness and indifference; that barren patronage has taken the place of active efficient co-operation; and that the examples of a contrary line of conduct, though individually numerous and respectable, include so small a proportion of the leading and influencing part of the community, as to shew that the mere preservation of human life is not regarded as an object of public concern. Abundance of praise has been lavished on the *liberality*,

Digitized by Google

discernment, and *public spirit* of parents who have satisfied themselves with procuring for their own offspring the advantages of a practice, which interests the sordid equally with the benevolent feelings. That parental affection must be ardent which will not shrink at the harassing duty of tending a child through a painful and loathsome pestilence; and cool economy will calculate the cost of present sickness, the wear and tear of constitution, and the damage to future prospects in life, when the smooth harmony of the female features is ploughed up by the seams of a merciless distemper.

A coloured plate is added to the second volume, which gives a most faithful and perfect resemblance of the vaccine pustule in its several stages, and is executed in a manner very creditable to the artist.

ART. XXIV. *Five Common Sense Arguments to evince the Efficacy, and enforce the Duty of Inoculation with the Cow-Pox.* By JOSEPH SIMMONS. 8vo. pp. 42.

A PERSUASIVE to cow-pox inoculation, principally taken from Mr. Addington's neat comparative view of the two diseases, and from the circumstances attending the establishment of the Royal Jennerian society.

ART. XXV. *A Fifth Dissertation on Fever, containing the History of, and Remedies to be employed in, irregular continued Fevers; together with a general Conclusion of the four preceding and present Dissertations. By the late* GEORGE FORDYCE, *M. D. F. R. S. Fellow of the Royal College of Physicians, Senior Physician to St. Thomas's Hospital, and Reader on the Practice of Physic in London. Edited by* CHARLES WELLS, *M. D. F. R. S. and Physician to St. Thomas's Hospital.* pp. 70.

THE present dissertation, which completes the view of fever originally proposed, is very nearly in the state in which it was left by its learned and venerable author, who, a short time before his death, desired that Dr. Wells might be requested to superintend its publication. Its design is to point out the diseases which may be complicated with, and the irregularities and accidents which may occur in continued fevers. General inflammation is the first disease which the author treats of, as sometimes forming a part of such combination, and its particular nature he has described at some length in a former dissertation. The union of this complaint with continued fever, he tells us, often takes place in the beginning of the latter disease, in men of strong constitutions, but very seldom shews itself in great towns, where the habits of life are unfavourable to general vigour. Cold climates and seasons are much more favourable to the occurrence of general inflammation than the reverse, and this the author endeavours principally to account for by reasons dependent upon the nature of muscular contraction.—Blood vessels are tubes, which, however they may change their capacity from the different quantities of blood contained in them, are always cylindrical. This circumstance arises from a constant contraction of their parietes round the blood, which, in proportion to its diminution in quantity, requires a greater exertion of the powers of the vessel to accommodate it to the change, and to keep up the same form. This the author conceives, requires an exertion of the vital power, which, as the contraction is permanent, and not casual as in muscular contraction, must be a continued source of expenditure to the vital power. When the diminution of blood proceeds to a certain degree, the vital power thus necessary for contracting the vessels may be withdrawn in such quantity as to produce death.

In order to apply this reasoning to the production of a disposition to general inflammation, the author states, that as the external vessels are much more distended with blood in warm than cold climates, the internal, in such circumstances, must have a smaller than usual quantity contained in them. Hence they must be more contracted; and as this contraction supposes the abstraction of a greater quantity of vital power, than happens when they are of a larger size, the general strength of the body must be more diminished, and therefore a smaller tendency exist to general inflammation. The same reasoning is applied by the author to different circumstances of the body in cold and warm weather.

On this theory we would only remark, that it is by no means proved that a constant exertion of such a contraction as requires vital power to support it, is necessary in proportion to the diminution

of the size of vessels. There is a certain extent, beyond which vessels cannot be emptied, and as we know that they possess an elastic force, it is not improbable that this may be sufficient for producing a change of dimensions. When general inflammation occurs in intermittent fevers, the author conceives that there can be no doubt of the propriety of bloodletting, because the system has time to recover, and the vessels are enabled to fill themselves before the next paroxysm; but in continued fevers, the practitioner ought to satisfy himself well on the propriety of the measure, from the existence of some urgent symptoms, such as determination to the head, before he have recourse to it. But when it is once resolved upon, he thinks that as much should be taken at once as is necessary to remove the symptoms of general inflammation. The propriety of general bleeding, in the continued fevers of this country, is at all times extremely problematical, if not decidedly improper, on account of reasons stated by the author; and it is much to be doubted, whether the symptoms of general inflammation, indicated particularly by hardness of the pulse and a buffy coat to the blood, even in such cases shew themselves, without any degree of local inflammation. Several irregularities are particularized by the author as occasionally shewing themselves in continued fevers. The first of them is the want of some particular symptom which is usually present, or a disproportion between the violence of some one symptom and the others. This circumstance is frequently regarded as a favourable one, but Dr. Fordyce is of opinion that in general it is not so, and enumerates the cases in which he has had occasion to make this remark.

"Sometimes a fever does not attack a patient all at once, and he cannot exactly ascertain the time at which the first attack took place. In this case most commonly the system is not equally affected. In the next place, it sometimes happens, that although the fever came on in such a manner, that the patient can perfectly ascertain the time of the attack, yet at that time he felt no sense of coldness, or, as he generally expresses himself, chilliness. If this should happen, the fever is often irregular; but not so frequently as in the former case. In the third place, when the attack comes on, the depression of strength is sometimes in a much greater degree than the appearances of the contraction of the small vessels, and sometimes the reverse. If the depression of strength be greater than in proportion to the contraction of the small vessels, there is greater danger of delirium, such as has already been described, at the beginning of the second week of fever. If the appearances of contraction of the small vessels be greater in proportion than the depression of strength, there is less chance of a crisis, and a greater probability of the disease running out to a great length. In the fourth place, the symptoms not found in particular parts of the body are the patient's being either totally free from head-ach, or very slightly affected with it; the tongue's not being covered with a crust, not only at the beginning, but likewise through the first week of the disease; there being no costiveness, but rather too great evacuations from the intestines. This last symptom sometimes increases to a diarrhœa, which, besides the irregularity it shows in a want of equal affection in the disease, tends also very much to weaken the patient. The appetite not being totally lost is a very deceitful symptom, because it would give an inexperienced practitioner the idea, that food might be easily digested, and so the strength be prevented from being exhausted during the progress of the disease. The skin's being soft and moist, and the sleep not being at the beginning of the fever very much disturbed, are also to be regarded as irregularities. If one, or two, or three of these mild appearances should take place, and all the other symptoms should not be equally mild, the fever is likely to run out for a great length of time, and has a much less chance of being terminated by a crisis.

"This is not only the case, but every attempt to carry off the fever by any remedy is frustrated. Every medicine, such as preparations of antimony, ipecacuanha, &c. which tends to produce symptoms similar to those which take place in the crisis of fever, has its whole force exhausted upon those parts, in which the appearances of fever are slight, and does not at all affect those parts which are most afflicted by the disease. For example, if there should be considerable pain in the forehead, and the skin should be soft and moist, preparations of antimony being exhibited, the patient will fall into a profuse sweat, without the least relief of the pain in the forehead.

"It is further to be observed, that not only if there should be a want of febrile symptoms in any one particular part of the body, but if even those appearances should arise, which take place in a crisis, in some particular part of the body, and not in the whole at the same time, the mischief is much greater, and the patient in such a case rarely recovers. If, for example, there be a lateritious sediment in the urine from the beginning of the disease, or if it take place before the middle of the second week, and neither the head-ach nor delirium is any way diminished; if the skin should remain hot, contracted, and dry, the tongue covered with a mucous crust, and the pulse continue of

Digitized by Google

equal frequency; it hardly ever happens that the patient recovers from the disease. In like manner, the skin having been dry and contracted at the beginning, if a profuse sweat afterward takes place, and continue for some time without any diminution of the other symptoms of the disease; that is, if there should be no lateritious sediment in the urine; if the costiveness and the head-ach should continue; instead of being favourable appearances of the disease, we are to expect that it will prove fatal. Independently of the mischief arising from inequality of the disease, any evacuation will weaken the patient, and render him incapable of supporting the further progress of it, if there be not at the same time an alleviation of the other appearances of the disease."

When such irregularities as have now been described exist, the author knows of no means by which we are able to increase the appearances of fever in those cases where they are wanting. Another irregularity mentioned in this work is, when the fever instead of going on to its acme, and then gradually declining, has alternate exacerbations and remissions of two or three days duration, which in time wear out the patient. In those cases we should employ such means as tend to produce an artificial crisis; but if those are ineffectual before the tenth day, they should not be persisted in, but the disease left to wear itself out; the practitioner taking care to keep up the strength of the patient, to bear him through the complaint. Cinchona has sometimes had a good effect when given in large doses during the remissions.

Hysteric symptoms, and an imperfect crisis, are mentioned by the author as forming irregularities which are occasionally observed in continued fevers. The first are very alarming to the patient and his friends; but are no otherwise prejudicial, than as they often prevent the disease from subsiding in its ordinary course. An imperfect crisis, such as occurs when the delirium does not subside, or the pulse remains very frequent, the sleep continues unrefreshing, and the appetite is bad, though there is in other respects a concurrence of critical symptoms, generally indicates an unfavourable termination. Where hysteric symptoms make their appearance, the patient should be supported by nourishing food, and should have occasional doses of laudanum, with some antispasmodic, as Russian castor.

To the present dissertation is annexed a general summary of the opinions which the author has advanced in his essays on fever, and a reply to some objections which have been made against them.

ART. XXVI. *Essays on the Diseases of Children, with Cases and Dissections. Essay 2d. On the Bowel Complaints more immediately connected with the Biliary Secretion, and particularly of Atrophia Ablactatorum, or Weaning Brash. By* JOHN CHEYNE, *M. D. Fellow of the Royal College of Surgeons of Edinburgh.* pp. 80.

IN our last volume we gave an account of the first of the author's essays on the diseases of children, that on the subject of cynanche trachealis or croup. The second essay, which we are now to notice, is prefaced by a few observations on the importance of the hepatic system in the animal œconomy, and by a statement of the change which takes place in the circulation connected with the liver, after birth. During the fœtal state nature seems to have prepared for the functions which were afterwards to be exercised, by the large size and maturity to which the liver was brought. Whether, however, the secretion of bile, immediately after birth, is established in the way in which it is intended by nature that it should continue, may admit of doubt; for though the author considers the evacuation of the meconium as the natural consequence of the stimulus applied to the intestines, yet nature seems to have aimed at more effectually securing this in another way, by the purgative effects of the milk first secreted by the mother.

The first of the complaints connected with the biliary secretion, which the author takes into consideration, is the jaundice, which occasionally attacks children a few days after birth. This disease has been supposed to arise from the ducts being obstructed by meconium, mucus, or viscid matter; or from pressure on the common duct by milk coagulated in the stomach or duodenum. Such causes, the author is of opinion, may give rise to these slighter species of the complaint, which disappear in a few days, but are insufficient to produce the jaundice, which sometimes terminates fatally. This species is attended 'with languor, flatulence, and bilious urine,' and continues many days, or even weeks, sometimes going away gradually, but generally

Digitized by Google

terminating in a fatal marasmus. It is not to be removed by emetics, purgatives, or the warm bath, the usual remedies for obstructions in the ducts; and hence it is conceived by the author to arise from

"—atrophia ablactatorum; in the first place it will be found superabundant, and eventually it will appear to be possessed of unusual acrimony. In the icterus infantum there is often a complete obstruction to the passage of the bile.

"Taking these diseases in the order of time in which they occur, I shall first mention that species of jaundice which attacks infants a few days after birth. This is always an alarming disease, for when infants do recover it is with great difficulty. It generally comes on about the third day after birth; for it is necessary that this time should elapse before the complete absorption and subsequent deposition of the bile into the blood can take place. It is attended with languor, flatulence, and bilious urine, and continues many days or even weeks. Sometimes it goes gradually away, but generally ends in a fatal marasmus.

"When this disease is fatal, it in all probability is so from an original malconformation in the liver; for we do not find, upon dissection, that it is a disease of the hepatic or of the common ducts, which, though somewhat contracted, from the thickening of their coats, are always pervious. The malconformation is probably an impermeable thickening of the beginnings of the hepatic duct, or, as they are called, the pori bilarii."

Gentle laxatives, frictions of the abdomen, and emetics, are the only medicines which promise advantage.

Another derangement of the function to which the liver is subject in early infancy, is a discharge of bile by vomiting or purging, which is often accompanied with convulsions, fever, gripings, &c. The complaint originates from improper food or cold, and is cured by vomits and cathartics,

"—especially cathartic glysters; and should the disease, or any symptom of it denoting great irritation, continue after the full operation of these medicines, we must have recourse to opiates and testaceous powders; but we must be cautious in giving opiates until the purgative medicines have operated."

When there is merely a purging, it is called by nurses the green scour.

The principal object of this essay is the description of a disease, which is known in Scotland by the name of *weaning brash*, and which the author thinks may properly be designated *atrophia ablactatorum*. The purging which accompanies this complaint has generally, by practitioners, been supposed to originate from teething, or from a mesenteric enlargement in scrophulous children; and for some time the author was himself induced to adopt the latter opinion. The indispositions which sometimes accompany teething may occasionally meet in the same child with the weaning brash, but that there is no necessary connexion between them, he considers as proved, by the latter frequently existing where no affection of the gums, or appearance of pain in the mouth, are to be observed, and where the teeth have frequently been cut easily; but more particularly by its frequently coming on in children long before the teething period.

The weaning brash is an atrophy, says the author,

"—the consequence of weaning children too suddenly at an unfavourable season of the year.

"This disease sometimes comes on two or three days after weaning; frequently not for three or four weeks; sometimes not before five or six weeks have elapsed.

"The first symptom is a purging, with griping pain, in which the dejections are usually of a green colour. When this purging is neglected, and after continuing for some time, there is added a retching, with or without vomiting; when accompanied by vomiting, the matter brought up is frequently covered with bile.

"These increased and painful actions of the alimentary canal produce a loathing of every kind of food, and naturally are attended with emaciation and softness of the flesh, with restlessness, thirst, and fever.

"After some weeks I have often observed a hectic blush on the cheek; but the most characteristic symptom of this disease is a constant peevishness, the effect of unceasing griping pain, expressed by the whine of the child, but especially by the settled discontent of his features; and this expression of discontent is strengthened towards the conclusion of the disease, when the countenance has shared in the emaciation of the body.

"In the progress of the disease, the evacuations from the belly show very different actions of the intestines, and great changes in the biliary secretion; for they are sometimes of a natural colour, at other times slimy and ash-coloured, and sometimes lienteric.

"Towards the end of the disease the extremities swell, and the child becomes exceedingly drowsy; but these I rather conceive to arise from debility than to be pathognomic (pathognomonic) symptoms. It is remarkable, in the advanced stages of the disease, that the purging sometimes ceases for a day or two, but without any amelioration of

Digitized by Google

the bad symptoms; nay, I think that children decay even faster than when the purging is most violent.

"The disease seldom proves fatal before the sixth or seventh week; and in this short time I have seen the finest children miserably wasted. I have seen, though rarely, a child recovered after the disease had continued three or four months; and again, I have seen the disease cut short by death in the second, third, or fourth week, before it had reached the acme; the sudden termination having been occasioned by an incessant vomiting and purging, or by convulsions from the immense irritation in the bowels.

"The disease is more frequent in children who have been weaned before the eighth or ninth month, and in particular in those who, in consequence of some accident happening to the nurse, have been weaned abruptly."

It is a disease of the autumnal months, and is most likely to occur in delicate constitutions, such as might be supposed to be, in future, liable to scrophula.

The peculiar nature of this disease the author thinks he has detected by dissection, which, instead of confirming his first opinion, has given him reason to conclude, that it originates in an increased secretion of acrid bile, or rather in the morbid state of the liver, which occasions it. He observed,

"—in every instance, that the intestinal canal, from the stomach downward, abounded with singular contractions, and had in its course one or more intus-susceptions; that the liver was exceedingly firm, larger than natural, and of a bright red colour, and that the enlarged gall bladder contained a dark green bile. In some dissections the mesenteric glands were swelled and inflamed; in others, however, they were scarcely enlarged, and had no appearance of inflammation.

"These contractions and intus-susceptions were entirely of a spasmodic nature, as in the latter the contained part of the gut was easily disengaged from that which formed its sac; and in no part of the entanglement was there adhesion, or even the mark of inflammation; and the contracted portions of the intestine were again permanently dilated by pushing the finger into them."

The connexion which the author presumes to exist between these appearances, and an increased secretion of acrid bile, he infers from some positions which may be regarded as rather hypothetical. When a child is weaned abruptly, and at an improper period, the food on which it is put becomes too violent a stimulus to the intestines. The liver is connected with the intestines by a very close sympathy, and is hence excited to unusual action, which produces a large and vitiated secretion of bile, to which the long-continued purging, and the various phænomena observed by dissection, are supposed to be owing. The green stools, which are observed at an early period of this complaint, discover an increased secretion from the liver; and though, at some stages of it, the fæces are clay-coloured, and therefore seem to indicate a defect of bile, yet this circumstance seems to the author accountable, upon the supposition that when the gall bladder is distended with bile, it presses so much upon the cystic duct, and so much increases its natural curvature, as to prevent it from flowing out freely; hence it becomes concentrated and more acrid, and when by some action of the stomach and duodenum the enlarged gall bladder is compressed, the intestines are inundated with bile. This supposition, however, requires the necessity of an interruption to the passage of the secreted bile, which could be poured into the intestine by the hepatic and common ducts, notwithstanding any obstacle to its flow from the gall bladder.

With regard to the cure of this complaint, the author, after trying without success various means of relief, was at last induced to employ calomel, and from the use of this medicine has had many very satisfactory results. He gives it generally in doses of half a grain every morning and evening, and until its operation on the liver has taken place, moderates the griping, purging, or vomiting, by opiate glysters. The same plan has been found efficacious in the diarrhœas of children. Whatever opinion may be formed of the author's theory of this disease, the practice which he recommends, of giving calomel for its removal, is certainly a very proper one, but at the same time it is too general to admit of its being received as a new idea. The author annexes several cases to exemplify the effects of his practice, and to illustrate the appearance observable on dissection. Two well executed and coloured plates exhibit the morbid appearances in two cases which terminated fatally.

A few pages at the conclusion of this essay, which are intended to be placed with that part of his work to which they refer, are devoted to the defence of some of the author's ideas on croup. He entertains an extreme aversion to the operation of bronchotomy, which he is of opinion no circumstances can ever justify, and now gives some observations

with a view to strengthen his former arguments. He does not, however, appear to have placed the question in a new light, or to make it necessary to add any thing to what we have remarked upon this subject in our last volume.

We approve of the author's plan in thus publishing, in separate parts, the results of his experience in a numerous and important class of diseases; but at the same time we cannot forbear observing, that the style of publication is very unnecessarily expensive.

ART. XXVII. *Observations on the Origin and Treatment of internal and external Diseases and Management of Children. By Mr.* HUME, *one of his Majesty's State Surgeons, and Senior Attendant of Mercer's Hospital.* 8vo. pp. 290.

THE author informs us, that the work which we are now to notice is the result of an extensive practice and long experience in medicine and surgery. Whatever, therefore, may be the opinions entertained of its merit, the medical world must feel itself obliged to an individual, who, at a late period of life, conquers his disinclination to appear before the public, from the hope of rendering some degree of service to his profession. We are sorry that we have not been able to discover, either in the theoretical or practical discussions of this work, much that is likely to improve the medical practitioner, and likewise regret that we are obliged to notice the very great inaccuracy of the composition, which is every where apparent.

ART. XXVIII. *An Account of the Discovery and Operation of a new Medicine for the Gout.* 8vo. pp. 194.

THE annunciation, by an anonymous writer, of a concealed remedy for a disease which has hitherto been an opprobrium to the regular practitioner, and has long afforded numberless opportunities to the empiric, of imposing upon credulity, comes with so suspicious an aspect, as to require all the care and precautions of the author, to give it any claim to professional consideration. Various circumstances, we are informed, prevent it from being thought proper, either to publish the name of the author, or of the medicine here recommended; but in order to ascertain fully its particular effects, before an ultimate decision is made upon the best means of communicating it to the world, it has been placed at the disposal of Drs. Beddoes and Bradley, whose reports, contained in the present work, afford a confirmation of its efficacy, and a sanction to its employment. If the trials of this medicine still continue, we may soon expect to have additional evidence on the subject from various professional quarters; but we cannot help expressing our fears, that, as has been by no means unusual in similar cases, experience will not be found to warrant the flattering expectations at present formed of it. It is hardly necessary to give any particulars of its success from the cases given, either by the author or his friends. It will be sufficient to state the circumstances which led to its employment. The author informs us, that he had a very early aptitude at determining by the eye the qualities of vegetable substances, as whether such or such a tree bore sweet or sour apples by the configuration of the leaf or the twig. Hence he frequently felt a very urgent desire to taste the fruit, the leaf, or the bark, of any new untried plant that he chanced to meet with. About fourteen years ago, during the affliction of an acute rheumatism, he first tasted the fruit, whose juice affords the medicine afterwards applied to the use of gout. He found relief by it, and was induced to repeat it until a cure was effected. Some time afterwards, on a return of the same complaint, the same medicine was resorted to, and with similar good effects. The author has been for some years subject to the gout, but in 1798 he had a fit of extreme severity, which recalled to his mind the good effects which he experienced by the use of the fruit abovementioned when affected with rheumatism. He was hence induced to try it, and was agreeably surprised to find the first dose followed by the production of sleep, and the permanent removal of pain. The use of the medicine produced a gradual recession of the swelling, in a few days enabled him to ride and walk, and in

Digitized by Google

a short time completely restored his health.

"The medicine seemed to effect as much in so many days, as nature or rather the passive plan would have done in so many weeks; and the constitution remained quite unimpaired by the attack."

ART. XXIX. *Advice to Mothers on the Subject of their own Health, and on the Means of promoting the Health, Strength, and Beauty of their Offspring. By* W. BUCHAN, *M. D. Fellow of the Royal College of Physicians, and Author of Domestic Medicine.* pp. 419.

THE author of this publication deserves great credit for his strenuous endeavours to remove the prejudices which so much tend to affect the health of females and their offspring; and which it is to be lamented still too generally prevail. The careful observation of a long life has pointed out in strong terms the various disadvantages which arise from the common mode of managing children, and the facility with which those disadvantages might be avoided, by attending more closely to the plan which nature and common sense dictate in so important an object. The physician and the philosopher seem to consider it as beneath them to turn their attention to the cares which are proper in the nursery, and thus unfortunately leave to the management of ignorance and self-conceit, a very important period in the life of the rising generation.

The circumstances to which it is necessary to attend, for the purpose of procuring to females that permanent state of robust health, which is necessary to fit them for the proper performance of the maternal office, is the first object of consideration with the author in the present work. He possesses an elevated idea of the dignity of the maternal character, which he justly considers as capable of materially influencing the future destiny of the offspring, and he views with a well merited veneration the exertions of a female who faithfully discharges her parental duties.

The education and conduct of females of the present day, are justly considered as worthy of severe reprehension, and the author strenuously endeavours to bring them back to the mode of life which nature has intended them to pursue, as that which is best fitted for making them good wives and good mothers. A weak, languid, nervous, or deformed woman may become a wife, but she is wholly unfit to become a mother.

"She risks her own life—she disappoints the natural wishes of a husband—and should she have children, her puny, sickly offspring, as I before observed, will have little cause to thank her for their wretched existence. The evil is not confined to her own family; society at large is materially injured; its well-being depends on the vigour of the members that compose it; and universal experience has fully proved, that the frame of a husbandman or a hero is not to be moulded or cherished in the womb of debility, and that the bold eagle will never be brought forth by the timid dove."

The observations made in the chapters which relate to the conduct proper to be observed during pregnancy and child-birth, are very judicious and worthy of attention, but we should hope that the author has deviated far from accuracy, when he represents it as no uncommon thing for a married woman to endeavour to procure abortion, merely from an apprehension of a large family, or to avoid the trouble of bearing and bringing up children.

The second and greater part of this treatise relates to the nursing and rearing of children. Very little medicine the author considers as necessary for infants, and this he had an opportunity of determining, upon a large scale, many years ago, at an extensive establishment at Ackworth, in Yorkshire where the consumption of drugs was by his means greatly diminished, and the health of the children materially increased. The indiscriminate use of cold water, for the purpose of daily washing infants, he is of opinion does a great deal of harm, and is at best a very unnecessary severity, which ought to be laid aside. When the mother is able to suckle her child, nothing more than her milk need be given for some months, but this may then be gradually diminished, and other food substituted, that the change in weaning may not be sudden.

In this as in the other parts of the work, the observations are in general creditable to the author's good sense, knowledge of the world, and philanthropy; and if attended to, will, we have no

Digitized by Google

doubt, prove eminently serviceable. In an appendix the author has transcribed a considerable part of Dr. Cadogan's treatise on the nursing and management of children.

ART. XXX. *The Elements of Physiology, &c. Translated from the French of* A. RICHERAND, *by Robert Kerrison, Member of the Royal College of Surgeons, London.* 8vo. pp. 500.

IT has been remarked by a French writer, that there is no subject on which any one can come to think right, till he has exhausted all the folly and absurdity into which it may lead him. If this observation be just, every reader, as well as every author, will have reason to be satisfied with it, because it always inspires the hopes of acquiring some new truth, or making some discovery. Should these hopes be disappointed, it must be pleasing and consolatory to reflect, that the quantum of error is diminished, although no addition has been made to our knowledge. Hence authors might be divided into two classes—1st, into those who improve science directly by their genius and exertions; and 2dly, into those who benefit science indirectly, by exhausting some of the nonsense and absurdity with which it is encumbered. Physiology has been chiefly cultivated unfortunately by the latter species; and even to the present time, few have studied it, that belong to the first distinguished order.

Within these few years, however, in consequence of the rapid progress of physical science, the animal economy has been investigated with more accuracy and success. Our knowledge of several functions, though still imperfect, has been greatly increased; and what we do know, does not rest on plausible reasoning, or hypothetical conjecture, but on the solid basis of observation and experiment. An explanation or a theory addressed to the imagination is not now sufficient to satisfy our inquiries, we must have numerous facts and legitimate theories formed by induction, and these only can result from following the plan that Bacon pointed out, and Newton exemplified. To collect and arrange the elements of physiology, becomes therefore a very difficult task. The facts connected with the structure and functions of different parts are so numerous, in consequence of a more general acquaintance with the chemical characters of the solids and fluids of the body, that extensive research and considerable powers of mind are required to select and condense them into a systematic and elementary form. Whoever executes such a desirable work, would confer a lasting benefit on science. M. Richerand does not seem to possess the qualifications necessary for such an undertaking. In the preface to this work, he informs us, that he has followed the model of Haller's smaller treatise on physiology (Primæ Lineæ Physiologiæ, 8vo.). It is only in the title-page that these publications bear any resemblance, for we have in vain looked in the book before us for that valuable selection of curious and interesting facts, that order and lucid arrangement, which distinguished every page of Haller's immortal work. Many important facts are collected together from various authors by M. Richerand, but on the most interesting subjects there is the greatest deficiency, and the arrangement of the whole work is calculated rather to confuse and mislead than to instruct. We shall endeavour to lay before our readers some general account of what the author has done, though it would be almost as easy to state what he has omitted to do.

In the 'introduction,' which occupies fifty pages, M. Richerand has given some general remarks on the vital powers, on sensibility, contractility, on the differences between organized and inorganized bodies, and has offered a theory of inflammation. Most of these remarks are so superficial and vague, that it is difficult to discover any meaning in them. We find ourselves quite at a loss to know what the author means, when he talks of the *vital principle*, *vital power*, &c.; for in one place he says, that it is only used as an abridged formula, to signify the aggregation of those powers which animate living bodies, and distinguish them from inert matter—and in another page, he considers the vital principle as a single agent, that presides over all the phenomena, and influences and directs them. Some of these expressions are borrowed from Cuvier, and others from Chaussier and Dumas; but M. Richerand does not seem decided which opinion to adopt, so he has confounded them both, and has not clearly stated either the one or the other. There is the same want of accu-

Digitized by Google

racy in his theory of inflammation. "Inflammation (says he) in my opinion may be defined, *an augmentation of the vital powers of that part which is the seat of it.* Sensibility there becomes more lively, mobility greater; and from this increase of sensibility and motion arise all the symptoms that denote the inflammatory state," p. 16.—Now this definition is bad, because it expresses none of the phenomena of inflammation, and still more, because it involves an hypothesis, which is contradicted by experience. Those morbid actions which constitute inflammation take place in different degrees, and in very opposite states of the system, and of the part. In some cases there is increased action of the vascular system, increased sensibility, &c. and in others the healthy actions are diminished, and an evident loss of power exists.

The observations in the second section on the relation of physiology to the other sciences are just, and the author with great propriety has insisted on the utility and importance of comparative anatomy. So much cannot be said in praise of his account of the "system of the great sympathetic nerves." Let us hear what the author has thought worthy of republication on this subject:

"The great sympathetic nerves should be considered as a medium destined to unite the organs that are animated by the assimilating powers, and by means of which man grows, developes himself, and constantly repairs the continual loss from vital motion. They form a nervous system, very distinct from the system of the cerebral nerves; and as the latter are instruments of the functions by which we have a relation to external objects, so the great sympathetic nerves give motion and validity to the internal, assimilating, or digestive functions.

"Is not the nervous system of animals without vertebræ, that floats in the cavities with the viscera they supply, entirely confined to the great sympathetic nerves? It distributes itself chiefly on the organs of internal life, the activity of which seems to increase in animals, in proportion to the weakness of their external senses, and power of loco-motion. If the great sympathetic nerves exist in all animals that have a distinct nervous system, do they not peculiarly contain the principle of this vegetative life, essential to the existence of every organized being, and to which belong the phenomena of digestion, absorption, the circulation, secretion, and of nutrition? Is it not, in fact, probable, that in man, the system of the great sympathetic nerves has the most important influence in a great number of complaints; and that it is to its numerous ganglions that its affecting impressions have a relation, whilst the brain is, exclusively, the seat of intelligence and reflection?"

We must confess that we are so dull of comprehension, or so fastidious, as to hesitate in coinciding with our author's sentiments upon this point. He appears to have formed this general conclusion in a hasty manner: it does not seem so clear, that because the sympathetic nerves are numerous, and perform very important purposes in the animal economy, that they form a separate and distinct system. The different parts of the whole body, and especially the nervous system, are so connected together, that no part can be said to be independent of the others. Some of the branches of the sympathetic nerves only serve as media of communication, and they have all an intimate relation to one centre, the brain. Like most theorists, M. Richerand has magnified the importance of these nerves, and makes them the seat of all our pleasures and pains. In answer to the question about the use of these nerves in some animals, it may be remarked, first, that in animals without vertebræ, there is no great sympathetic nerve. And 2dly, that the heart, stomach, and intestines, whose actions are involuntary in animals possessing sympathetic nerves, are immediately and powerfully influenced by the communication with the brain being interrupted or cut off.

Chapter 1st, on Digestion.—Many things are here said, but to little purpose. The author adopts the opinion, that this function is performed by a solution of aliment in the gastric juice: he takes no notice of the different explanations which have been proposed, he mentions no interesting experiments, and refers to no sources for farther information. This whole chapter might be read by any student, without his having an idea that Spallanzani ever lived, or that Stevens, Hunter, and Fordyce ever wrote. When speaking of the organs which secrete bile, M. Richerand has adopted the common error, in supposing that the hepatic artery only supplies blood necessary for the nourishment of the liver. He ought to have known that this artery contributes to the secretion of bile, as has been established by an accidental discovery of a singular termination of the vena portæ in the vena cava. Under the article digestion many subjects are

Digitized by Google

included, such as hunger and thirst, mastication of the food, action of the intestines, excretion of the fæces, secretion of urine, physical and chemical properties of this fluid, and a few short remarks on the differences in the digestive organs in different animals.

The second chapter treats of *absorption*, in which there is nothing new or interesting to arrest attention. This account is chiefly taken from the valuable and splendid work of Mascagni. The doctrine of cutaneous absorption is cursorily noticed, but none of the objections to it are stated. The author is an advocate for absorption by the skin; his arguments, however, are not very convincing, nor indeed can any reasoning determine this matter, till we have more numerous experiments.

The third chapter on the *circulation of the blood* is more full and complete than any other: it contains the principal facts, and gives the most general views relating to this subject. Among these there is a mixture of some absurdities, as in the following passage:

"From the time of Galen, the pulse has offered to physicians one of the principal means of distinguishing diseases. The force, regularity, equality of its motions, contrasted with its weakness, inequality, irregularity, and intermission, enable us to form a judgment of the kind and magnitude of a disease, of the powers of nature to effect a cure, of the organ particularly affected, of the time or period of the complaint, &c. No person has employed himself more successfully than Borden, on the doctrine of the pulse, considered in these points of view; his modifications indicative of the periods of disease, establish, in the opinion of this celebrated physician, as may be seen in his *Recherches sur le Pouls par Rapport aux Crises*, the pulse of crudity, of irritation, and of coction. Certain general characters indicate whether the affection occupy a part situated above or below the diaphragm; and from this is formed the distinction of superior and inferior pulses; and, lastly, peculiar characters denote the injury of each individual organ which constitutes the nasal, guttural, pectoral, stomachic, hepatic, intestinal, renal, uterine pulses, &c."

These distinctions are frivolous and nugatory, and in many there is no difference. It is impossible from the pulse alone to determine the seat of the disease, or the violence of the symptoms: in some cases the pulse is our best and surest guide, but in other instances of masked disease we learn nothing from attending exclusively to it. It was formerly the custom to lay great stress on the number and frequency of pulsations; the Chinese physicians regulate their practice by attending to indications derived from this source alone; but amongst us, though the state of the vascular system deservedly engages considerable attention, many opinions relating to it have been wisely laid aside, with the self-sufficiency of the gold-headed cane and full-bottom wig.

Respiration forms the subject of the fourth chapter, and this leads to the consideration of animal heat, pulmonary transpiration, asphyxia, and certain phenomena connected with the action of the lungs. The quantity of air inhaled into the lungs of an adult, is stated generally to be from thirty to forty cubic inches, but it is said that some physiologists believe the volume of air inspired to be much less, and that Professor Gregory, of Edinburgh, teaches in his public lectures, that hardly two inches enter at each inspiration. No reference is made to the source of this information, which we are strongly disposed to consider incorrect, because such a calculation is refuted by all the experiments made by Jurin, Menzies, Lavoisier, and Davy. The quantity of air inspired will vary in different persons, according to the size, age, sex, &c. and even in the same person at different times; but the average capacity of the lungs may be stated at forty cubic inches. M. Richerand adopts the theory of Dr. Crawford; he has wholly omitted to mention the interesting experiments made by Lavoisier, Seguin, and Davy, and seems never to have heard of the speculations of Hassenfratz and La Grange.

The fifth and sixth chapters contain a short history of secretion and nutrition. The chemical analysis of the blood is very imperfectly given, and the author attributes properties to the halitus or vapour, to which it has no claim. It is stated also, that the red colour of the blood is occasioned by the presence of *phosphate of lime*; we suppose this to be a typographical error, or some false translation, although the same phrase is repeated. Probably the author means *phosphate of iron*.

The actions of the nervous system are considered at great length in the seventh chapter, under the title of *sensations*. The author has adduced some experiments made by himself (and they appear conclusive), to prove that the motions of

the brain, when exposed, are exclusively communicated to it by the pulsations of the arteries situated at its basis.

The eighth chapter is occupied with an account of muscular motion; and we here meet with some ingenious remarks on the preponderance of the flexor over the extensor muscles. The merit of this theory is claimed by M. Richerand, and he is certainly entitled to some praise for his ingenuity.

"The flexor muscles, therefore, have longer and more numerous fibres than the extensors; their insertion into bones is farther from the centre of their motions, under an angle more open, and which increases in proportion as the limbs are in a state of flexion: it is to these causes united that the flexors are indebted for the superiority they possess; and the disposition of articular surfaces, which are mostly inclined towards the side of flexure, is to be attributed to the great extent of motion effected by these muscles.

"This preponderance of the flexor muscles varies according to the periods of age. In the fœtus all parts are reflected on themselves without proportion. This convolution of the new individual on itself may be perceived from the time of early gestation, when it resembles a French bean, suspended by the umbilical chord in the midst of the liquor of the amnion; the embryo floats in a cavity, where it becomes progressively more confined as it advances towards the time of birth. This extraordinary flexion of parts, necessary for the product of conception, accommodates itself to the elliptical form of the uterus, and concurs to afford the muscles that effect it, the superiority which they maintain during the remainder of life.

"The new-born infant preserves in a remarkable manner the habits of gestation, but as it advances in growth it becomes less curved: frequent pandiculations or stretchings denote the endeavour to establish a just proportion between the muscular powers. When the infant is able to stand erect, and left to itself, all its parts are in a state of semi-flexion, its walk tottering, continually pressing towards the point of support. But in middle life the preponderance of the flexors over the extensors become less apparent; man possesses the full and entire exercise of his loco-motive faculties, but as he advances in age this vigour abandons him; the extensor muscles gradually return to that state of relative debility, in which they were during infancy, and become incapable of completing the action of standing in a firm and durable manner.

"The state of our limbs during sleep resembles that of the fœtus, which, according to Buffon's remarks, may be considered in a sound sleep: its cessation in man, as well as the generality of animals, is followed by frequent pandiculations. We stretch the limbs to restore to the extensors a degree of tone necessary for the functions that they are to perform when awake. Barthez refers the crowing and fluttering of wings, by which the cock announces his waking, to a similar purpose."

The three remaining chapters are on the voice and speech, on generation, on ages, temperaments, the varieties of the human species, &c. and these, with some observations on old age, the probabilities of human life, on death, and putrefaction, conclude the volume.

In composing these elements of physiology, M. Richerand has made ample use of the labours of others, and has added very little of his own. Except in two instances, we have not found an original observation relative to the animal economy: the author seldom rises above the quotation of a surgical case, and these are not much to the point. An elementary work ought to contain the principal and most striking facts arranged in a proper manner, and detailed in plain and simple language. In these respects the present work is very deficient; it may be found useful, however, to those who are desirous of becoming acquainted with some of the general doctrines of physiology, and it may serve as a work of reference to those who may want to refresh their memory with the rudiments of this science. We cannot say how faithful the translation may be, as we have not had an opportunity of comparing it with the original. Very little can be said in praise of its elegance and perspicuity. Many words occur like the following: *musculosity*, *quiesce*, *cherubims*, p. 29, &c.

ART. XXXI. *A Course of Medical Studies: containing a comparative View of the anatomical Structure of Man, and of Animals; a History of Diseases; and an Account of the Knowledge hitherto acquired with regard to the regular Action of the different Organs. A Work chiefly designed for the Use of medical Students. By* J. BURDIN, *M. D. Translated from the French.* 3 vols. 8vo.

THE object of this work is to convey popular instruction on the physical nature of man, by giving a comparative view of the anatomical structure of animal bo-

Digitized by Google

dies, and of the phenomena exhibited by the different organs in health and disease. This is a mode of communicating knowledge, which the French seem very fond of; there is scarcely any subject which has not furnished them with *un cours* & *un dictionaire*. Such collections have their use; they afford information and entertainment to most readers, and may give general notions to many, who have not opportunities to acquire all that knowledge which can only be obtained by more profound research and extensive enquiry. Dr. Burdin has executed his design with great diligence, he has collected together a variety of interesting and important facts, and condensed a vast body of information within the limits of three volumes. Although this work is said to be chiefly designed for medical students, the author, in a preliminary discourse, enlarges his ideas of its utility, and flatters himself that every intelligent person, by reading his book, will render himself master of the subjects on which it treats. He hopes to banish quackery by a more general diffusion of medical knowledge, and in this opinion he is not singular. The grounds of such expectations may reasonably be doubted. Instead of its being the means of putting an end to quackery, a superficial knowledge of diseases, a smattering of medical science, seems most likely to encourage it. To say that a person who has learnt that the body is composed of bones, muscles, and nerves, &c. is best qualified to take care of his own health, and restore it when deranged, is like saying that every soldier is duly qualified to repair his own firelock, if he happens to know that the barrel is made of iron, and the bullet is discharged by the sudden extrication of an elastic gas. Who purchase quack medicines? Who take these medicines unnecessarily? Who are most frequently indisposed from imaginary complaints? Who neglect the precious moments for arresting the progress of acute and dangerous diseases? The readers of *Buchan's Domestic Medicine*, the family prescribers, and nostrum mongers. Quackery will continue as long as knaves and fools remain to dupe and be duped, and this probably as long as men continue "to wag their beards." One advantage of these popular views of medical subjects may be, to prevent sensible persons from being imposed upon by the grimace and affected sapience of ignorant practitioners, in the same way as a general knowledge of the principles of law and justice, assisted by common sense, may prevent imposition by crafty and pettifogging attornies. Many persons consider themselves the best qualified to judge of their disorders by their sensations, which is a very equivocal test, because at the beginning of any disease the nervous system is generally affected, and false conceptions are produced in the mind. "Every man his own physician," is an unfortunate adage for many hypochondriacs, and besides it is a satire upon the medical profession.

This course of medical studies is divided into three parts:—the first comprehends the organic structure of the body, the osteology, the muscular and nervous system, the senses, the function of digestion, circulation, and generation. The second part includes the history of diseases; and the third part is occupied with physiological disquisitions on the vital functions, the action of the brain and nerves, &c. In a work so very general as that of Dr. Burdin, which includes such a variety of topics, some faults and imperfections are to be expected. It would be tedious to enumerate all those which have attracted our notice; a few remarks may be sufficient to convey some notion of its defects, as well as its merits. The first volume contains many curious facts with regard to the anatomical structure of the lower animals, selected from the valuable lectures on comparative anatomy, by Cuvier and Dumeril. In describing the muscles, the author has employed the nomenclature of Chaussier and Dumas. Many objections may be started to the adoption of these terms; they are difficult to be understood, and still more so to be remembered. Winslow long ago showed the propriety of distinguishing muscles by names which marked their origin and insertion. But Chaussier and Dumas, in adopting this principle, have carried it too far. In framing their new nomenclature, they seem to have forgotten one of the great purposes of language, that of dispatch. Their compound names in general are bad descriptions, they are with difficulty pronounced or remembered, and what is worse, they do not apply to other animals besides man; for many muscles that have similar situations and functions, have not the same origin and insertion in all animals. In

Digitized by Google

the context, the new names alone are employed; but at the end of each chapter, tables of the bones, muscles, nerves, and blood-vessels are given, and both the old and new names are mentioned.

The account of diseases is chiefly confined to a detail of the principal symptoms; the causes, diagnosis, prognosis, and method of cure is seldom noticed, and only in a superficial manner. This diminishes the value of the work to medical students; for no information is given on those points on which they are most desirous of acquiring some instruction. It does not appear well judged to consider the functions of parts separate from a description of their anatomical structure; the third volume should have been the continuation of the first.

Dr. Burdin would certainly have appeared to greater advantage, if he had written in a more simple and unaffected style, and if he had fallen into the hands of a better translator. The French idiom is so closely adhered to in the translation that some passages are almost unintelligible, and many absurd and bombast expressions have been servilely copied. For instance: "the lungs become hard as if *carnified*," p. 89. vol. 2. "the urine becomes *spumous*," and in another place "*sanguinolent*." We are told of the *otecope pains*" in syphilis, and *the vulvo-uterine conduit*," &c. &c. It is to be regretted that persons who undertake to translate from one language into another, appear so often ignorant of both, especially of their own mother tongue. Notwithstanding these defects, the work upon the whole is entitled to commendation. It labours, however, under the general fault of all French publications, the want of reference to any author, or to the sources for farther information.

There is one assertion made by our author, which, as it is quite erroneous, ought not to be passed unnoticed. He states the temperature of arterial blood to be 40° of the centigrade thermometer, which is equal to 104° Fahrenheit's scale. Now it is well known, that the average temperature of the blood in health is 96° or 98°, and that the animal heat seldom exceeds 102°, even in violent and acute febrile disorders.

ART. XXXII. *The Natural History of the Human Teeth; including a particular Elucidation of the Changes which take place during the second Dentition, and describing a proper Mode of Treatment to prevent Irregularities of the Teeth: To which is added, an Account of the Diseases which affect Children during the first Dentition. Illustrated by Copper-plates. By* Jos. Fox, *Member of the Royal College of Surgeons, London, and of the Society of Medicine, Paris.* 4to.

IN our last volume, we had occasion to notice a very valuable work on the subject of the teeth, by Dr. Blake. The present, which is like that, the production of a man of observation, and practical experience, affords an interesting view of the various phænomena of dentition, which in most particulars agree with those which we had occasion to notice in the article to which we have referred. Mr. Fox does not seem to admit the adhesion of the membrane to the neck of the tooth, after the ossification is completed, and therefore describes the membrane and gum as being equally subject to pressure by the rising of the tooth; a circumstance which, according to Dr. Blake, only applies to the gum. The descriptions of the author are perspicuous, and the plates by which they are illustrated are numerous, well executed, and accurate. Ulceration and absorption he frequently uses as synonimous terms, and therefore in describing the removal of the fangs of the temporary teeth, and the rise of the teeth through the gums, refers to the agency of the one process, what he should have attributed to the other. An analysis of human teeth is annexed to this work, by Mr. W. H. Pepys, jun. By this it appears that the enamel consists in 100 parts, of

Phosphate of lime	78
Carbonate of lime	6
	84
Water of composition and loss	16
	100

"Bone, or roots of teeth, yielded by analysis in 100 grains,

Phosphate of lime	58
Carbonate of lime	4
Gelatin	28
	90
Water of composition and loss	10
	100

Digitized by Google

" The teeth of adults yielded, on analysis in 100 grains,

Phosphate of lime	64
Carbonate of lime	6
Gelatin	20
	90
Water of composition and loss	10
	100

Specific gravity of adult's teeth 2.2727.

" The shedding, or primary teeth of children, yielded on analysis in 100 grains,

Phosphate of lime	62
Carbonate of lime	6
Gelatin	20
	88
Water of composition and loss	12
	100

Specific gravity of children's teeth 2.0833."

ART. XXXIII. *A new Anatomical Nomenclature.* By DR. BARCLAY.

SO much of the best spirit of a moderate, sagacious and truly philosophical reformer appears in this essay, as immediately to lay to rest all that hostility to mere innovation which naturally arises when reform is *dictated* and not advised; and to ensure, at least, a respectful attention, if not to enforce conviction.

The subject of scientific nomenclature is curious, important and entertaining, and involves many interesting enquiries relative to the origin, progress, and capacity of language. The author but slightly touches on these topics, confining himself principally to the precise object expressed in the title page, that of anatomical nomenclature.

Dr. Barclay judiciously begins by shewing the faults of the present system; the most unpardonable of which, where it occurs, is ambiguity. Many of the common terms of relative situation lie under this censure; *superior, inferior, anterior, posterior, within, without*, &c. &c. are all occasionally used in more than one sense, and therefore must frequently mislead the learner. Our continental neighbours, the French, stimulated doubtless by the deserved success of their chemical nomenclature, have attempted a reform in that of anatomy; but though undertaken by such able men as Vicq d'Azyr and Chaussier, Dr. Barclay has shewn that these attempts have not answered expectation, owing to a preference (now so fashionable) of cumberous minuteness to useful condensation.

The author proceeds to enquire which is the best language to furnish the radicals of a scientific nomenclature. The scholar will at once decide in favour of Greek or Latin; and, with justice we apprehend, because they are the only languages common to science, over the greater part of the philosophical world, because they are the least liable to change being fixed by indelible standards, which will endure as long as learning and taste are valued, and because they possess a modulating harmony which admits of extensive variety and useful combination. Dr. Barclay comes to the same result by a different mode of reasoning, and proceeds to demonstrate anatomically (and we must add a little whimsically) the 1,125,899,906,842,623 possible combinations of the muscles that contribute to the human voice, whence he infers that no living vocal language can preserve its stability against such an array of millions of chances of variation; and hence that the classic languages, now nearly extinct as living tongues, and resting on the solid basis of written record, are to be preferred as the basis of philosophical nomenclature.

Dr. Barclay allows, however, a large latitude in the combination of these languages, " notwithstanding the opprobrium attached by some to certain connections and intermarriages among harmless vocables," and where utility would be much consulted, he would not refuse the union of the two languages in the same compound. In this he is supported by some authority; for though the classic ears of our continental name-reforming neighbours might be shocked at *diventer* or *bigastric*, they have judiciously tolerated *centilitre, milligramme*, &c. for the conveniency of their metrical system.

With some remarks on the present system of chemical nomenclature, Dr. Barclay proceeds to point out the imperfections of the anatomical:

" Many of the present terms of anatomy have been condemned for not expressing some quality or circumstance of the objects which they signify, and others, containing a kind of a short definition or description, have been substituted for them. As it may be both wished and expected that the new terms brought into anatomy were all of this sort, a previous inquiry into their nature, uses, and peculiar advantages, will not be improper. The French have lately adopted such terms in their modern calendar: the words *nivose*,

pluviose, and *thermidor*, are intended to shew the species of weather which prevails at certain periods of the year. Let us see the improvement: the weather being variable even in France, and the rain and snow not happening to fall always at the time foretold in the calendar, these terms become so many lying predictions; and in countries where the seasons and climate are different, are an absurd unintelligible jargon. But what are the descriptive terms in anatomy? Not a great deal better. Many of these, as *sphenoides*, *ethmoides*, *astragalus*, *cuboides*, which are founded on vague and remote analogies, scarcely convey the most distant idea of the forms which they were meant to express:—many which contain allusions to functions, and seem to communicate something of importance, deceive thousands of the indolent and credulous, who trust to their lame and imperfect information;—some, again, as *levator scapulæ*, and *supinator radii longus*, are almost unavoidable sources of error, from directly insinuating what is not true;—and some, as it were taking advantage of a partial and erroneous classification, pretend to inform us of what belongs to this or that function, excluding, by a kind of secret reservation, some of the principal organs employed. This is evident in our distinction and arrangement of muscles into *flexors*, *extensors*, *pronators*, and *supinators*. But by no means the least numerous class are those which allude to frivolous circumstances; some of which, like *sella turcica*, and the word *hippocampus*, seem intended to illustrate the things which we see, and which we may handle, by comparing them to objects which we either have not seen, or have seldom an opportunity of observing. Much discernment, therefore, and caution, are highly requisite in the use and application of such terms; for wherever their descriptions are frivolous or vague, or wherever they are false, whether founded on ignorance, error, or hypothesis, they can hardly fail, if used in their primary and original sense, to be hurtful to science; nay, even when true and accurately just, they cannot be admitted unless when concise; for be their powers what they will, they become ridiculous when they run out to the length of sentences.

"Are all such terms then to be rejected from the language of anatomy? And ought there to be a complete revolution in its nomenclature? To answer these questions it may be observed, that no where perhaps is prudence more necessary than in our attempts to innovate on habits and established customs. Those terms may surely be retained which are just and accurate, and not too long; those which assist us in discriminating objects; and those likewise, however absurd their general allusions, that, in course of time, have laid aside their primary sense, and begun to be used as arbitrary names."

Let us pursue this subject a little farther than our author, and give some of the leading features of the present system of anatomical nomenclature, if system it may be called. A very large class of names is that which expresses the *form* of the organ, either absolutely as *biceps*, *triceps*, *serratus*, or from a resemblance more or less accurate with other visible objects, as *lambdoid*, *styliform*, *stapes*, *malleus*, *incus*, &c. Another class shews the real or supposed *use* of the part, as *adductor*, *accelerator urinæ*, *sartorius*; another class, though small and constantly diminishing, commemorates the name of the inventor, as *Cooper's glands*, *Eustachian tube*, *Schneider's membrane*, and a few terms are derived from an erroneous or whimsical origin, such as *artery*, *pia mater*, *pomum Adami*, or, like the *os innominatum*, are absurd appellations; but the larger class of names is expressive of relative situation, either in the form of a definition, like the compound term *occipito-frontalis*, denoting both the origin and insertion of a muscle; or, more generally, as implying connection with a particular organ, as *hepatic artery*.

Dr. Barclay appears to be most exclusively attached to the latter class, which, when well contrived, answers the purpose of topographical description, and on that account is highly estimable; but we cannot entirely agree with him in the objection, qualified as it is, which he urges against many of the terms of our first-mentioned class. However far-fetched and distant be the resemblance to other objects, though not one out of ten thousand students should ever have seen a Turkish saddle in his travels, or a hippocampus in his books of natural history, though the os scaphoides should not put them in mind of a boat, or the corner of a ploughshare; yet when the resemblance is once pointed out, the mind catches at the association, and it soon becomes indelible. The tax on the memory in anatomy is so heavy, and, as far as nomenclature is concerned, is so much greater than in chemistry, that every artificial means of lessening its burthen should be studiously encouraged; and we appeal to the experience of every learner, whether the terms that express resemblance in shape to known objects, however remote, are not precisely those which the soonest lay hold of the memory, and cling to it the most tenaciously.

Of the singularly happy names, perhaps none is superior to that of the first vertebra. The classical allusion con-

tained in the *Atlas*, implies a firm elevated support to an organ of commanding importance, and ingeniously describes in a single word the circumstance both of use and relative situation; but such fortunate combinations are very rare, and it has been a real labour to the most prolific imagination to devise terms sufficiently distinct and appropriate to follow the ever ramifying search of the anatomist; therefore, though Highmore has surrendered his exclusive claim to the maxillary antrum, and of late the crural arch has been refused to Poupart; and though we should be glad to see a *name* substituted to a *definition*, when speaking of the *iter a tertio ad quartum ventriculum*, or the *additamentum suturæ lambdoidalis*, we are not sanguine enough to entertain the hope of seeing the entire system of anatomical nomenclature simplified to a single principle, without encreasing the difficulty of the learner by the excessive recurrence of the same leading terms, and overloading the mechanical part of memory by depriving it of the assistance of the imagination.

The system proposed by Dr. Barclay does not, however, go to a total change of the present nomenclature, nor can we entirely infer from what is said, that it is the author's intention so to extend it. The present plan only proposes a reformation in all the terms relative to position and aspect, to be substituted for *upper*, *lower*, *internal*, *external*, *right*, *left*, and others of the same class.

The human anatomy has been the prototype of the comparative; all the terms of relative situation are therefore derived from it, and the anatomist has generally chosen the erect posture as the most convenient for the delineation of his subject. But it requires a great stretch of the imagination to transfer this position, the *os hominis sublime*, to the brute creation; and in so doing, all the natural distinctions of situation in the inferior animals are distorted, whence infinite perplexity ensues. To remedy this evil, the author, extending his views to every branch of anatomy, has with great judgment, and, in our opinion, with equal success, devised a system of relative terms, founded on those features of universal anatomy which are invariable, and capable of general application. The former plan resembles the *right* and *left* of a map, which gives correct ideas only on one projection; the latter is the *east* and *west*, always accurate.

As our limits will not allow us to explain this system with sufficient minuteness to do it justice, we shall only enumerate a few of the terms, as a specimen of the author's talent for philosophical nomenclature. Three sets of names are separately devoted to imply relative situation in the trunk, the extremities and the head. For the trunk, a line drawn from the atlas to the sacrum furnishes the well contrived terms of ATLANTAL and SACRAL, to correspond with *upper* and *lower*; another line, from the sternum to the back, expresses *anterior* and *posterior* by the denominations STERNAL and DORSAL. A plane passing along the neck, mediastinum and linea alba, is called the MESION, whence MESIAL and LATERAL will be equivalent to *internal* and *external*, in one of the senses in which these two terms are employed; whilst DERMAL and CENTRAL is substituted for the same terms, when they imply *superficial* and *deep*.

The anatomy of the head requires a greater variety of combinations, and the author distinctly makes out ten different aspects, to be described by appropriate names. This provision affords a facility for comparative anatomy, superior to any thing that has yet been devised, and it is in every way worthy of attention.

The greatest stretch of system that we have observed, occurs in the extension of the terms atlantal and sacral to the head. These, as we have before observed, imply relatively, superior, and inferior, and are derived from the extreme points (in the trunk the opposite *poles*) of the atlas and sacrum. "Continue this line," says the author, "perpendicular to the plane of the foramen magnum occipitale, till it fall on some bone of the cranium or face, and let this bone, whatever it be, be called the *atlantal*. In man the line will terminate on the sagittal, a little behind the coronal suture;" now "if the term *sacral* be applied to the head, it must always denote that side which is opposed to the atlantal, and may easily be found from observing the place of the foramen magnum."

According to this plan it will follow, that the parts of the head the most *remote* from the atlas, will be termed atlantal, and those the most *contiguous* to it, will be called sacral; nor can it be otherwise, consistently with the general system. It may indeed be argued, and not without reason, that these terms so applied have here only a relative signification, like

north and south, and wherever one is employed absolutely, the other must be used relatively as its opponent; but till by long habit we come to sink the etymology of these terms altogether, such a stretch of nomenclature must appear as strange as if, in a reformed geography of this island, Tweed and Thames were assumed as synonimous with north and south, and the traveller was directed to turn his horse's head *Tweedwards*, to find his way from Stirling to Inverness.

Dr. Barclay has not thrown his system before the public in the state of an unfinished sketch, but has filled up many of the minuter parts with care, and obviated some objections which would naturally occur. One that he suggests is the following:—The terms denoting *aspect* are uniformly derived by the author from the names of certain organs, whose relative position is sufficiently invariable for his purpose; so that all the common appellations of situation, upper, outer, &c. are totally discarded; but the derivatives from these selected terms would also naturally imply something belonging to, or proceeding from the part itself; thus a *fibular* artery (which is one of the new terms) would imply both an artery situated on the fibular or *external* side of the lower extremity, and an artery belonging to the bone called the fibula. The author has no other way of avoiding this difficulty, than by changing the termination, giving to the former meaning fibu*lar*, and to the latter fibu*len*. This distinction stands on a par with the sulp*hate* and sulp*hite* of the chemists; that is to say, sufficient where due stress is laid on the terminating syllable, but far inferior to the antient terms of *vitriolic* and *sulphureous*.

The author has given some good outline plates in explanation of his system; a system which has convinced us of the practicability, as we long have been of the utility, of effecting a thorough reform in all the erroneous or defective parts of anatomical nomenclature.

ART. XXXIV. *Cases of the successful Practice of Vesicæ Lotura, for the Cure of diseased Bladders. Parts* I. *and* II. *By* JESSE FOOT, *Esq.* 8vo. pp. 139.

THE idea of injecting liquids into the bladder has been occasionally adopted in different diseases of this organ. As the readiest and directest means of applying any supposed solvent liquid to calculus when contained within this cavity, it has been employed experimentally by several eminent men; but the success has not corresponded with expectation. One great reason of failure has been the difficulty of ascertaining previously the nature of the calculus (except Colonel Martin's celebrated filing or scooping plan were adopted), and analysis has shewn such a vast variety in the composition of calculi that no single solvent could be applied with a certainty of success. But the chief reason for laying it aside appears to have been the pain, trouble, and difficulty of persevering in it for a sufficient time to give it a fair trial, considering that a bladder, even in its healthy state, and still more irritated by a painful disease, is not quite the properest vessel for chemical experiments.

But there is another kind of disease in this organ in which the injection of liquids may often prove of essential service; it is where the bladder has been exposed to great and habitual irritation, unconnected with calculus, and attended with the most distressing symptom of incontinence of urine, owing to an actual thickening of the coats and diminution of its cavity. Dissection fully shews that this is a frequent state of disease.

It is in both the above cases, but principally the latter, that the author recommends the injection, and in this he revives a practice mentioned by Le Dran, who has given a very good case in point which is quoted in the present publication. Mr. F. attempts to establish the following diagnostic rule.

"In the fifth edition of my "Critical Enquiry into Diseases of the Urethra and Bladder" I have particularly noticed this observation; and I have there pointed out, for the first time, I believe, that it has ever been observed, a leading principle, by which a diseased bladder is always to be detected, and distinguished from any other cause with which it might be otherwise confounded. It is this: that at no time the bladder can hold more than a certain portion of urine, and of course that at no time, more than that portion, if so much, can be ever discharged at once. For example thus: suppose that a patient, for a series of time, has not been able to evacuate more than two spoonfuls of urine, upon any effort: and suppose that such has been the habit without any exception, for two or three months; suppose that

Digitized by Google

mucus comes away with the urine, and at the same time the urethra has been carefully listended by bougies; in that case I should have no hesitation in declaring, that the capacity of the bladder was contracted, and that its contraction was just in proportion to the liminished quantity it would contain, from a comparative view formed with a sound bladder. Whereas in all other possible affections of the bladder, there will be times when it is not contracted, that the full contents of a capacious bladder can be evacuated. This is a distinction *a priori*; but injecting the bladder will readily decide the question *a posteriori*, for just so much as the bladder will possibly hold, can be injected; and by the fluid being measured when it is evacuated, any further doubt about the nature of the case is completely removed."

Several cases are given in which the injection was used with success. A part of the first we shall quote, it is given in the patient's own words.

"To afford as clear an idea of my case as I possibly can, I conceive I should detail it, by stating what my symptoms were before the injection was applied to the bladder, and what they were after.

"My symptoms before, were an almost continual inclination to urine, in the day time, and in the night rising for that purpose from the bed seven, eight, and nine times, with seldom any thing like a continued stream of urine, the volume small, and the quantity from two to three spoonsful, and that with great uneasiness. From the first of my finding the difficulty of urining abovementioned, my urine was accompanied with mucus; and it generally was of a strong red colour, mostly turbid, sometimes ropy, and it hath continued thus for many years. Another formidable symptom was growing on me apace, a constant state of irritability, and which the most trivial incident, notwithstanding my own mental precautions, would frequently provoke; feeling at these times great irritation and uneasiness in the region of my bladder. Walking on wet grass, and being in damp rooms, would bring on a stranguary.

"Such, Sir, was my state as nearly as I can recollect, previous to the operation of injecting my bladder. Time by neglect, and the want of proper treatment, of course gradually reducing me to a worse and worse condition.

"The account of my subsequent condition will, happily for me, be more comfortable and pleasing. My urine has been no way perturbed or mucus discharged, since March last. I retain it much longer in the day time, and I rise upon an average three times in the night only. The quantity of urine discharged in the night at those three times, is generally about three half pints. The quantity my bladder would hold when you first began to injeet it, could not possibly over amount to three ounces, with mucus included. You encreased the capacity of my bladder, so much by the operation of injection, as when you left off this time twelve month, it would contain nearly fourteen ounces. And I have by injecting myself occasionally since, rather gained upon that quantity, although I have purposely discontinued it for more than a fortnight at times, without finding that I lost ground. The irritation of the bladder, I have greatly though not entirely subdued, by a rigid adherence to your directions of lessening my quantity of animal food; and I have experienced, that if at any time I forget myself and indulge myself, I am punished."

The term *capacity of the bladder* is however liable to some misconception. A bladder may be so diminished in size from the thickening of its coats, or from a condensation of mucus into membrane lining its cavity, that it actually will not contain more than three or four ounces of liquid; or it may become so habitually irritable as not to allow of being filled to more than three or four ounces, without bringing on the natural efforts to expel its contents. The cases given by the author may be of a mixed kind, partaking of the nature of both these morbid states; and it appears very largely of the latter; since by use of the injection, the irritability of the bladder seems to have declined in proportion as its capacity for liquid has enlarged. This is proved by the circumstance that the *time* in which the injected liquid or the natural secretion could be retained, has lengthened, as its quantity has encreased. It does not however detract from the importance which may attach to this practice.

The second part contains several additional cases of irritability of the bladder and incontinence of urine, arising from abscess in the kidnies, some of them fatal. The injection in some of them appears to have done what could rationally have been expected, that is, it proved a useful palliative for one of the most distressing symptoms of a dangerous and commonly fatal disease.

The author in relating them takes an opportunity of throwing extreme censure on the use of the caustic in strictures; and he does not scruple to affirm that in two thirds of the cases for which caustic is applied, no other obstruction is present than what arises from the irritation of a diseased kidney.

The author considers phymosis as a cause of disease of the whole urinary organs, and thus explains it.

Digitized by Google

"The cause of this affection is shewn by the stream of urine being obstructed in its passage from the bladder; from its not having that equal and proportionate egress out of the urethra as it is poured into the urethra from the bladder. The contracted prepuce makes a pressure upon the glans penis, by which the urine recoils upon the neck of the bladder, irritating and inflaming it more and more, till the bladder, and in process of time, the kidnies, become as much diseased from this cause, (as the following cases will demonstrate) as they possibly can be, from any other cause whatsoever."

The cases do not appear to us perfectly conclusive. In the operation for phymosis, which the author recommends, he only divides the inner duplicature of the prepuce. He employs a small bill-hook knife, a plate of which is given; we shall give his description of the operation.

"About the sixth of an inch of the outer cutis, is to be divided from within outward; so that the point of the knife shall be seen passing out, and dividing about one-sixth of an inch of the outer cutis; and this is all of the outer cutis that needs to be divided. This will naturally enable as much of the cutis as is divided, to be slid back; when only the duplicature will present itself; as much as does present itself must be divided in the same manner. This will allow fresh undivided duplicature to present itself, which is also to be divided after the same manner; and so on, till the whole is thus divided, and till the whole can be slid back behind the glans penis, leaving it completely denudated.

"The treatment of the part is to be according to the principles of common surgery; to be dependent upon the degree of inflammation, and the previous habit and age of the patient. One point must be always attended to; the prepuce must never be suffered to remain, for any time, slid back, as in one instance, where that was the case, it was with the utmost difficulty, that I could again bring it forward. The strangulated glans had hydatids upon it, and in the shortest time must have sloughed away. When the consequent inflammation will permit it, the prepuce should be slid backward and forward two or three times in a day, and whilst that was doing, the glans should be smeared over with oil of almonds. This will be sufficient in the simplest cases, and the whole will be well in a fortnight."

A plate is given with the second part, shewing the instrument for injecting the bladder. It is simply an elastic gum bottle, to the neck of which is fixed a flexible catheter.

ART. XXXV. *Anatomical Plates of the Thoracic and Abdominal Viscera, for the Use of Students in Anatomy, and Artists; accompanied by explanatory Maps. By* ROBERT HOOPER, *M. D. Fellow of the Linnæan and London Medical Societies, resident Physician to the St. Mary-le-bone Infirmary, &c. &c.*

THE title of this little work sufficiently explains its contents. The size of the plates is the same as that of the author's reduced Albinus, and as the parts here represented are larger and not so much involved as the muscles, the student may obtain from them a very good general idea of the situation of the thoracic and abdominal viscera. They have every claim to be as well received as the former fasciculus.

ART. XXXVI. *A Diagram of the Human Eye.*

A Single-coloured plate giving a very accurate transverse section of the eye much magnified, accompanied with a short explanation.

The exact ratio of enlargement is not mentioned; the length of the figure is nine inches, which well adapts it for demonstration in a lecture room.

ART. XXXVII. *A Map of the Human Ear.*

AN enlarged coloured view of the external and internal ear. The explanation is not so full as that of the eye, and Dr. Hooper has equally omitted to mention the natural dimensions. From this plate the operation of puncturing the tympanum may be seen with great correctness.

ART. XXXVIII. *The Anatomy of the Human Body, Vol. III: containing the Nervous System; with Plates. Part I. The Anatomy of the Brain and Description of the Course of the Nerves. Part II. The Anatomy of the Eye and Ear. By* CHARLES BELL, *Fellow of the Royal College of Surgeons of Edinburgh.* 8vo.

THOUGH nominally a third volume, this work may with propriety be considered separately, the two former volumes being written by a different

Digitized by Google

author, and the present being only connected with them as it completes the joint design of the two authors, in giving a comprehensive system of human anatomy.

A writer, himself an accurate and practised anatomist, and in a situation to avail himself of the best published authorities, will find a greater treasure of curious, beautiful, and recondite anatomy on the subject of the nervous system, than on any other part of anatomical science. Who is unacquainted, by report at least, with the admirable works of Scarpa, Vicq d'Azyr, Zinn, Soemerring, Monro, Walter, and many other men of eminence, whose lives have been devoted to anatomy, and who have made the nervous system their peculiar care?

But, even to follow the demonstrations of these excellent anatomists requires a very considerable share of previous knowledge, both of that substantial kind which is gained by long and dexterous use of the knife, and of that familiarity with artificial distinctions and points of controversy which is acquired by consulting books.

It is but justice to Mr. Charles Bell to say, that he appears well qualified for the task he has undertaken; his drawings, some of them original, in the particular point of view in which they are represented, and his general mode of description, shew that he does not teach merely by rote, but from personal experience, and the authorities which furnish the basis of his work are of the best kind, and well selected.

The work before us is chiefly anatomical; with small admixture of physiological discussion, or any other of the many interesting enquiries connected with the functions of the noblest organ of the human body; and as simple anatomical description of intricate parts is of all things the most intolerable to read without plates or preparations, or dissected subjects, we shall content ourselves with giving a cursory view of the contents of this volume.

The author begins with a very slight introductory view of the nervous system, chiefly relating to the structure of the brain and nerves, of ganglions and plexus. The mutual dependency of the nervous and circulating systems is thus described.

"The brain, the nerves, and the nervous expansions in the organs of the senses, are dependent for the perpetual renewal and support of their function upon the circulation of the blood. We should be tempted to imagine, that the nervous system were a nobler part of the economy, did we not frequently see the powers of the mind as well as the functions of the nerves disturbed, or altogether overthrown by the irregularities of the bodily system; were we not thus reminded of that circle of connexions and mutual dependency which support the whole. If the tide of blood flow too rapidly upon the brain, the intellect is disordered, the ideas come in rapid and irregular succession. If the exit of the blood from the head be obstructed, there is an obstruction to the circulation of the blood in the extremity of the vessels of the brain; the function of the brain is suddenly suppressed, because, though its attributes seem so peculiar, it requires the perpetual circulation of the blood through it to renovate its powers.

"The effect of the circulation of the blood through the nerves of the limb is not less remarkable. If the nerve of a limb be cut or tied, the animal can no longer move the limb, having lost the power of the will over it. But if the great artery of a limb be tied, the function of the nerve is, in a short time, equally destroyed; because the circulation of the blood through the nerve being obstructed, its loses its powers, and is no longer a living part."

"Thus, whilst the moving powers of the circulation of the blood are dependent on the state of the nervous system, the nervous system is as immediately dependent on the healthy state of the blood, and the velocity of the circulation."

Though the interruption of the functions of the nervous system, by a derangement in the other parts of the animal economy, does not absolutely invalidate the term *nobler part* of the system, it is very proper to point out the dependence of the nervous, on the arterial functions.

The anatomical description of the membranes of the brain, and the texture of the brain itself forms the subject of the first chapter.

The veins and sinusses follow, and are described with care.

The author is willing to attach considerable importance to the *glandulæ Pacchioni*, or small tubercles appearing like silk-worms' eggs, as the inventor describes, and studding the inside of the longitudinal sinus. Mr. Bell conceives, that they act as valves to the veins that open into this sinus.

The use of the sinusses of the brain is an important speculation. Mr. Bell

Digitized by Google

gives the following observations on this subject.

"The importance of the sinuses in the circulation of the blood in the brain, is either vaguely described, or imperfectly understood by authors. We find it said, that the sinuses support the blood against compression, and protect its free circulation. This to me seems an erroneous idea. The lesser veins are as in other parts of the body, and have no such provision; and since, within the head, there can be no such partial compression as in the limbs, any cause which would compress the greater veins, were they not supported, must fall upon their extremities with worse effect. The circulation is the only power which can act mechanically upon the brain; but this can never cause a compression of its veins, because the increased action of the arteries must tend more to the distention of the veins than it will be the occasion of the brain compressing them.

"The more general idea conceived of the use of the sinuses is nearer the truth; viz. to prevent the sudden and violent action of the muscles of respiration, or of the muscles of the head and neck, from repelling the blood into the vena cava, or internal jugular veins; and consequently preventing the impulse from being communicated to the blood in the small and tender veins of the brain, which might endanger a rupture of them. Yet this is not exactly the manner in which the sinuses preserve the lesser veins; they do not suffocate nor take off the force of the impulse from the regurgitating blood, so much as they would do if they were like the trunks of veins in other parts; because, being incapable of distention, they throw the undulation of the blood, when it is thus checked in its exit, backwards upon the extremities of the veins. But then the effect is, that no particular vein or trunk receives the shock; all suffer in a lesser degree, and equally, which is their safety. All the veins in the base of the brain, which would be liable to rupture, or distention, from receiving, in their sudden turns, the shock of the blood, checked by the muscles of respiration, or otherwise, are preserved by being inclosed in sinuses, and covered by the strong lamellæ of the dura mater. The lesser vessels again are removed from the shock: its force is spent, because it has spread among many branches; and it has become a general impulse upon the brain, which the brain resists, because it is incompressible."

Monro's explanation of the use of the sinusses, to which the author refers, in a note, is not given quite correctly. Dr. Monro does not say that the sinusses prevent the repulsion of blood, by the sudden action of the muscles of respiration into the vena cava and internal jugular, but that when the blood is so repelled "the impulse may not be communicated to the blood in the small and tender veins of the brain, which would endanger a rupture of these," and in confirmation of this opinion, he adds, that "generally a very small quantity only of any liquor injected into the sinusses enters the small veins of the brain and cerebellum."

The ventricles of the brain and origin of the nerves are described in the following chapter. Mr. Bell takes Willis's arrangement of the nerves, allowing only nine of the encephalon; whence the facial and auditory is included in the seventh pair, the glosso-pharyngeum, the vagum, and accessorium in the eighth, and the sub-occipital or tenth of Willis forms the first cervical pair, as Haller has proposed.

We shall give a single specimen of the author's talents for anatomical description, that our readers may form some opinion of the execution of the work. Let us take part of the description of the par vagum, as being one of superior importance.

"The par vagum is the great and important division of the eighth pair. It is the middle fasciculus of the three nerves as they lie within the scull. In its exit, it is separated from the internal jugular vein by a thin bony plate; and sometimes two or three fibres of the nerve pass the bone distinct from the others, and afterwards unite into the proper trunk of the par vagum. Deep under the lower jaw and the mastoid process, the glosso-pharyngeal nerve, the par vagum, the spinal accessory, the sympathetic nerve, the portio dura of the seventh, and the upper cervical nerves, are entangled in a way which will fatigue the dissector, and may account for every degree of sympathy of parts. The par vagum, lying behind the internal carotid artery, and as it were escaping from the confusion of the ninth accessory and glosso-pharyngeal nerves, descends and swells out into a kind of ganglion. We now observe three branches to be sent off: the first and second pharyngeal nerves, which pass to the constrictor pharyngis muscle, and the internal laryngeal nerve. This last mentioned nerve is even larger than the glosso-pharyngeal nerve. It is behind the carotid artery, and passes obliquely downward and forward. In its progress the principal branch passes under the hyo-thyroideus muscle, and betwixt the os hyoides and the thyroid cartilage; while others, more superficial, pass down and are connected with the external laryngeal, or pharyngo-laryngeus; which is a nerve formed by the sympathetic, and par vagum conjointly. The principal branch of the internal laryngeal nerve, which runs

Digitized by Google

under the hyo-thyroideus, is distributed to the small muscles moving the cartilages. The minute extremities of this nerve pass also to the apex of the epiglottis, and the glandular membrane covering the glottis. We have, at the same time, to remark a very particular communicating nerve betwixt this internal laryngeal nerve, and the recurrent branch of the par vagum. This branch is described by Galen. The par vagum continues its uninterrupted course betwixt the carotid artery and jugular vein, and is involved in the same sheath with these vessels. In this course down the neck, it sometimes sends back a twig which unites with the ninth pair, and when near the lower part of the neck, it sends forward twigs to unite with those from the sympathethic nerve, which pass down to the great vessels of the heart, to form the superior cardiac plexus. On the right side, these nerves to the great vessels are in general given off by the recurrent nerve.

"The par vagum now penetrates into the thorax by passing before the subclavian artery; it then splits into two. The main nerve passes on by the side of the trachea, and behind the root of the lungs; while the branch, on the right side, turns round under the subclavian artery; on the left, under the arch of the aorta, and ascends behind the trachea to the larynx.

"This ascending branch of the par vagum is the recurrent nerve. On the right side it is sometimes double. It ascends behind the carotid artery, and sometimes is thrown round the root of the thyroid artery. On the left side, which, from its turning round the arch of the aorta, is much lower than on the right, it gives off filaments which go to the lower cardiac plexus, after having united with the branches of the sympathetic. Under the subclavian of the right side, also, there are sent branches from the recurrent to the cardiac plexus; and on both sides there pass branches of communication betwixt the sympathetic nerve and the recurrent. When the recurrent nerve has turned round the artery, it ascends in a direction to get behind the trachea, and it lies betwixt the trachea and æsophagus. It here sends off many branches to the back and membranous part of the trachea which pierce this posterior part, to supply the internal membrane. It gives also branches to the æsophagus and thyroid gland. The final distribution of this nerve is to the larynx. It pierces betwixt the thyroid and cricoid cartilages, and separates into many filaments, which terminate in the crico-arytenoideus lateralis and posticus, and thryo-arytenoideus, and in the membrane of the larynx. We have already mentioned the branch of communication betwixt the recurrent and internal laryngeal nerves, and Sabatier describes a branch of the recurrent, which sometimes ascends and joins the sympathetic high in the neck.

"Two cases, mentioned by Galen, of scrophulous tumours in the neck opened, where the consequence was loss of voice, have tempted many anatomists to institute experiments on the recurrent and internal laryngeal nerves. Notwithstanding the deep situation of those recurrent nerves, Galen says, they were cut in these cases, and he believed that the branch of communication betwixt the laryngeal and recurrent restored the voice after some time had elapsed. Both the internal laryngeal and recurrent nerves are necessary to the formation of the voice. Experiments have been made upon them in dogs, and the result is curious; although the lesser changes of the strength, acuteness, and modulation of the voice could not be well observed in the lower animals. When the laryngeal nerve is cut, the voice is feeble but acute; when the recurrent nerve is cut, there is a relaxation of those muscles moving the arytenoid cartilages which command the opening of the glottis, and in consequence the voice is flatter or graver, or more raucous."

"Thus we see that the par vagum has a most appropriate name, and that it is nearly as extensive in its connections as the sympathetic itself. It is distributed 'to the œsophagus, pharynx, and larynx; to the thyroid gland, vessels of the neck and heart, to the lungs, liver, and spleen, stomach, duodenum, and sometimes to the diaphragm.' The recollection of this distribution will explain to us many sympathies; for example, the hysterical affection of the throat when the stomach is distended with flatus, the exciting of vomiting by tickling the throat, the effect which vomiting has in diminishing the sense of suffocation, that state of the stomach which is found upon dissection to accompany hydrophobia, whether spontaneous, or from the bite of a dog."

The second part is devoted to the organs of the senses, of which the eye and the phenomena of vision, occupy (as from their importance they well deserve to do) a large portion of the volume. The ear, both of man and of other animals, is also considered much at large.

The chapter on vision begins with a short abstract of the most essential propositions in optics, perhaps rather too brief for the very minute description of parts which follows.

We shall not analyze this chapter, as the matter is too copious for condensation. A few observations may be made on particular parts. The following is a favourable instance of the author's accuracy of remark.

"There is a circumstance in the operation of extracting the cataract, which I have seen

Digitized by Google

but little attended to, and yet it is sufficiently evident. When the cornea has been cut, operators, disappointed in not finding the cataract protruded, keep the eye staring in the light, and press the ball of the eye; but while the eye is thus exposed to the excitement of the light, the pupil is contracted, and the lens propelled by the action of the muscles; and, still more, by the pressure made on the eye-ball, is in danger of bursting through and tearing the iris. The best operators have been in the custom of shutting the eye-lids the instant the incision was made in the cornea; by this means, the eye is for a time supported in some degree during the violent spasm of the recti muscles, and the iris being allowed to dilate, the lens is protruded into the anterior chamber of the aqueous humour through the pupils, and is ready to slip from under the cut cornea, when the eye-lids are again opened. By this means, if the incision of the cornea is of the proper extent, the lens is not extracted, but is protruded, by the action of the muscles of the eye."

In describing the effects of light on the retina, we rather expected to have found some notice of Buffon's experiments on ocular spectra, and of Dr. R. Darwin's close imitation of them. They certainly deserved a place, on account of the important physiological observations deducible from them.

On the membrana pupillaris the author, after describing its structure, gives the following original explanation of its use.

"To explain the effect of this membrane, then, we have only to consider that it is of the nature of the iris to contract its circular fibres during the operation of light, so as to close or nearly close the pupil; that, on the other hand, the pupil is completely dilated through the operation of the radiated fibres of the iris in darkness. To the question, then, why it is not dilated during the fœtal state? the answer, I think, is decidedly this: The iris is not loose in the fœtal state, it is connected and stretched to the middle degree of contraction and dilatation by the membrana pupillaris. Were the iris in a full state of contraction, during the life of the fœtus, it could not receive its full nourishment, proper degree of extension, and due powers; but being preserved stationary and extended, the disposition to contraction, which it must have when the retina is without excitement, is counteracted, until it is about to receive, by the birth of the child, that degree of excitement which is to keep up the preponderance towards the contracted state of the pupil."

The much agitated controversy concerning the method by which the eye adapts itself to different focal distances, the imagined encrease of convexity in the cornea, the supposed muscularity of the crystalline, and the other questions relating to this subject, are collected with industry, and detailed with fairness. It is a little surprising, however, that the author, in giving an abstract of Dr. Young's most ingenious paper (the Bakerian Lecture, in the Transactions for 1801) should have overlooked the most important experiment of all (we mean that of enclosing the eye in water behind a convex lens, and ascertaining the same change of focal distance) and one on which the inventor himself justly lays the greatest stress.

Mr. Bell appears equally deficient in the conclusions which he draws from all the experiments on this subject. After acknowledging himself entirely undetermined which hypothesis to adopt, he thinks proper to reject all, and from the following reasoning.

"I have often doubted, whether these experimenters were not in search of the explanation of an effect which has no existence. I have never been able to determine, why a very slight degree of convexity in the cornea of a short-sighted eye should be so permanent during a whole life-time, notwithstanding the perfect elasticity of the cornea, and its being so adapted as to alter its convexity by the action of the muscles. Again, a near-sighted person, with the assistance of a concave glass, can command the objects to the distance of some miles, and with the glass still held to the eye, can see minute objects within three inches of the eye. Now, I cannot conceive how the concave glass should give so great a range to the sight; as there can be no change in the glass, it must be the eye which adapts itself to the variety of distances; yet, without the glass it cannot command the perfect vision of objects for a few feet. Again, a short-sighted person sees an object distinctly at three inches from his eye; at twelve feet, less distinctly; and when he looks upon the object at twelve feet, the objects beyond it are confused, just as in other men's eyes; but when he directs his attention to the more remote objects, those nearer become indistinct. Now this indistinctness of the object, seen when he examines narrowly the object beyond them, would argue (did we admit this muscular power in the eye of adapting itself to objects), that the cornea or the lens has become less convex, were we not previously convinced that the utmost powers of the eye could not bring the object at the distance of twelve feet, or any other intermediate distance, to be more distinctly seen than the fixed and permanent constitution of the eye admits."

Digitized by Google

We do not understand why the excessive convexity of a short-sighted eye should not be as permanent as the natural convexity of a perfect eye; the same cause that preserves this figure to the latter will equally apply to the former if owing to original conformation. Mr. B. seems also to confound the proper focal distance of the eye, with the distance at which objects can be seen; and to suppose that a concave glass gives to a short-sighted person a range of focal distance, or sphere of *distinct* vision of some miles. By the description of Dr. Young's simple optometer he would find that a concave glass to a short sighted person does no more than put him on a par with an unassisted perfect eye, and in both the power of accommodation to distinct vision only extends a few inches.

The chapter concludes with observations on squinting and defective vision, taken chiefly from Reid's Enquiry and Jurin's Essay.

The chapter on the ear is finished with much care, and all the latter observations of anatomists are included. With regard to the external ear of fishes, asserted by Monro and denied by Scarpa, Mr. B. inclines to the latter opinion from the probable inconvenience to which an external ear would expose an animal living in so dense an element as water.

"We have seen that water conveys the sound of vibrating bodies with a shock almost intolerable to the ear, and with a particular and distinct sensation over the whole body. We see also that, in the greater number of fishes, there is confessedly no external opening, the whole organ is placed under the squamous bones of the head. Yet the cartilaginous fishes, which are supposed to have an external ear, swim in the same element, and are in no essential point peculiar in their habits. And we should receive with caution the account of any peculiarity in the organ of hearing of one class of fishes, which is not common to all inhabiting the same fluid.

"Such animals as occasionally pass from the water into the air, must have a membrane capable of vibrating in the air; but, even in them, it is expanded under the common integuments, and protected by them. Were it otherwise, when the creature plunged into the water, it would be assailed with that noise (confounding all regular sounds), of which man is sensible when he plunges under water. It appears opposite to the general law of nature, to suppose any species of fish having that simple and more delicate membrane, which is evidently intended to convey atmospheric sounds only, while, on the other hand, creatures living in the water alone, should have an organization fit to endure the stronger vibrations of the denser fluid, and which would be useless and absurd in those existing in our atmosphere."

A short account of the other organs of sense concludes the volume.

A considerable number of small plates and sketches are given to assist the reader; they are executed, some rather coarsely, others with great elegance, but all of them with clearness and accuracy. It would have been a great addition to the utility of the work, if the author had given the directions to which he is so thoroughly competent, for demonstrating the particular parts of the brain in the order of dissection, in the manner of the excellent system of dissections formerly published by the same partnership. As it is impossible for the pupil to have a just idea of these parts without the actual use of the knife, a work so full and accurate as the present will be resorted to as the guide in private dissection; and therefore we should have been glad to see the steps of the demonstration more fully pointed out, as for example, the way of inflating the veins of the pia mater, of exhibiting the septum lucidum, the communication between the ventricles, and the other niceties in the manual operations, on which so much of the clearness of demonstration depends. The style is plain and easy, free from acrimonious personalities, and from the affectation of recondite learning, introduced under the guise of entertaining the reader with obsolete follies. The printing is not very correct.

On the whole we have no hesitation in recommending it as an excellent elementary book, that bears the marks of much industry on the part of the author, who also shews that he thoroughly understands the subject which he describes, a point not always attended to by the numerous writers of elementary treatises.

ART. XXXIX. *A Series of Engravings, explaining the Course of the Nerves. By* CHARLES BELL, *Fellow of the Royal College of Surgeons.*

THIS collection, together with the plates on the brain, formerly published by the same author, properly accompany the last mentioned article, and together will give the student a very tolerable idea of the nervous system, as far as books

Digitized by Google

and engravings will teach him. The execution of the present series is in the same style of soft engraving as the former, a style favourable to effect as a picture, and to the imitations of real dissection. However the plates, when very comprehensive, though finished with much care, have the defect of not being sufficiently distinct: the eye is pained to pursue even important branches in the intricacies of the thoracic and abdominal viscera, and for the sake of the picturesque effect the references are so minute, that it is with extreme difficulty that they can all be followed when the dotted lines proceeding from them lead to the inner parts of the plate. These defects could hardly have been remedied but by separate unshaded sketches for the references, or by using a larger scale. The latter was not in the author's plan; the former might have been introduced, at least to the most intricate.

Still they are an elegant and useful series of plates, and will be received, we doubt not, with the same approbation which has distinguished the former publications of this able anatomist.

ART. XL. JOHN GOTTLIEB WALTER'S *Plates of the thoracic and abdominal Nerves, reduced from the Original, and published by Order of the Royal Academy of Sciences at Berlin; accompanied by Explanations and a Description of the Par Vagum, great Sympathetic, and Phrenic Nerves.*

PROFESSOR WALTER'S incomparable plates are well known by anatomists to be one of the most accurate, most complete, and altogether most perfect specimens of Neurology ever published, and fully to merit the encomium of Sœmmerring of being "opus consummatissimum, maximâ curâ, diligentiâ, et perspicuitate difficillimam doctrinæ nervorum partem exhibens."

They were first published in the Memoirs of the Berlin Academy for the year 1780, and are there executed in the most masterly style of engraving. Being now not easily procurable, Dr. Hooper has done a great service to anatomy in republishing them in a reduced form, accompanied with the original explanations, to which he has added a short account of the par vagum, great sympathetic and phrenic nerve.

Dr. Hooper has also adopted the very useful plan of some of his former anatomical selections, of accompanying the finished plate with a variously-coloured outline sketch, to which all letters of reference are transferred, a plan which preserves the unity and clearness of the engraving, and is of most material assistance to the reader. The plates of this collection are executed in a remarkably distinct and elegant manner, and do great credit to the artist, Mr. Kirtland.

ART. XLI. *Practical Observations on the Management of Ruptures, in two Parts. Part I. New Inventions and Directions for ruptured Persons. Part II. A familiar Account of the Nature of Ruptures in both Sexes. By* WILLIAM HALL TIMBRELL, *Esq. To which are prefixed two recommendatory Letters, by William Blair, A. M. Member of the Royal College of Surgeons; Fellow of the Medical Societies of London, Paris, and Brussels; Surgeon of the Lock Hospital and Asylum, and of the Bloomsbury Dispensary, &c. The third Edition, with Additions, illustrated by three Engravings.*

THE author, a gentleman not in the profession, and long a sufferer under this complaint, has obtained the honourable distinction of the gold medal of the Society of Arts for his improvement in the construction of trusses. The most material point in the construction of this truss is a calico cushion to be worn under the pad. For this we shall give the author's words:

"I will now add the description and uses of the cushions of coarse calico, and the instructions how to form one; first observing, that calico has elastic and adhesive properties which do not exist in linen or flannel.

"Cut or tear a slip of coarse calico, about twelve inches in length, and for adults three inches in breadth; fold it into a square of a size that will project a quarter of an inch round the edges of the pad of the truss, except that end next the thigh, which should have no projection beyond the neck of the pad. The rough edges of the cushion are worn upwards and downwards. Over the first slip many others are folded, or doubled on each other, to the thickness of about three quarters of an inch, but the thickness must be regulated by the size of the patient. When the hollow in the groin is completely filled up, and the cushion quite immoveable, it is properly formed.

"This calico cushion is to be worn under

Digitized by Google

the pad or pads of the truss; and from time to time an outer slip or two may be changed at pleasure, for the purposes of cleanliness, or restoring the cushion to a proper degree of thickness.

"This cushion, when judiciously made, even with a bad truss, if it be in a line with the aperture, will materially assist in keeping upon a reducible rupture,

"The properties of the calico cushion are,

"First, That it protects the spermatic cord from being injured by the hard pad of the truss; which injury, in common trusses, often produces hydrocele, inflammation of the spermatic vessels, hernia humoralis, &c. &c.

"Secondly, By protecting the spermatic vessels from the injuries of pressure, it fulfils a desideratum never before obtained. It enables the patient to girt the truss round the body with such an effective degree of tightness, that the rupture cannot descend.

"Thirdly, By uniting the properties of softness and solidity, it yields to the form of the abdomen, and thus completely fills up the aperture or ring in the external oblique abdominal muscle through which the rupture descends.

"Fourthly, It affords an additional column of pressure; and the truss being tightly fastened keeps the omentum and intestines, all round and above the aperture, in a state of quietude, preventing any internal or partial descent of the bowels, &c.

"It is necessary to repeat, that this cushion, to obtain all its advantages, must be formed of separate slips folded over each other, and not of one piece of calico."

Familiar directions are given for the use of the ruptured. Beyond the precise object of this little treatise, the author's improvement, they are but trifling. He takes upon him to forbid the use of dumb bells to children, because he once saw a rupture produced by using them! He might with equal propriety forbid a boy ever to mount a horse, since many ruptures have come down when on horseback.

ART. XLII. *Observations on Crural Hernia: to which is prefixed a general Account of the other Varieties of Hernia. Illustrated by Engravings. By* ALEXANDER MONRO, *jun. M.D. F.R.S. E. and Professor of Anatomy and Surgery in the University of Edinburgh.* 8vo. pp. 120.

THE title page of this work excited our particular attention. It professes to contain a series of observations (we supposed practical as well as speculative) on one of the most delicate and important points in surgical pathology; it is the first production of the professor of anatomy and surgery in the first medical school in Europe; and we are informed, by an advertisement, that it has been read before the Royal Society of Edinburgh. In looking at the table of contents our expectations were raised still higher, for we found twenty-five different subjects enumerated, some of them on difficult and controverted points, and all of them very interesting to practitioners. This delusion began to vanish on referring to the size of the book, as we saw all these subjects, which have filled volumes, discussed and determined in ninety-two octavo pages, with the assistance of large type, frequent spaces, and abundance of margin!! Perhaps our expectations were raised too high, for certain it is, that all our hopes of instruction and improvement have been followed by disappointment and regret. The following analysis of this work will, probably, be sufficient to satisfy our readers. To the observations on crural hernia, which is the professed object of the book, a general account of all the varieties of hernia is prefixed. Here are strange and wonderful cases, some related at full length, others only hinted at, none of which serve to illustrate any theory, or to furnish any practical conclusion. Next follows a dull enumeration of the causes of hernia, and some general remarks on the nature of the hernial sac, on the diagnosis, prognosis, &c. At page 44, the observations on crural hernia begin; and first, an anatomical description of the crural arch is given. Mr. Gimbernat, a Spanish surgeon, first pointed out the peculiar termination of the oblique muscles, and described the formation of what he called the crural arch. He showed the propriety of attending to this structure in performing the operation for crural hernia, though his description is not very accurate or easily understood. Dr. Monro has not been more successful in his description, but he has excelled Mr. Gimbernat in his representation of the crural arch, in a drawing. The situation of the blood vessels, in respect to the hernial sac, then engages our author's attention, and some acute and pertinent remarks are made on the course of the epigastric artery.

Digitized by Google

Camper's opinion on the impossibility of dividing this artery is ably controverted, and a long passage is quoted from Rougemont's translation of Richter's treatise. We remembered to have read these sensible criticisms, which were published without a name in a northern periodical journal. There can be no doubt of the author, as, on comparing the passages, we find the remarks precisely the same, and expressed in the same clear and decided language. No allusion, however, is made to that publication. After describing Gimbernat's mode of operating, our author quotes the operation proposed by his father so far back as many years ago, which has always been recommended in his surgical lectures. With this quotation the volume terminates; but an appendix, consisting of sixteen pages, is added, which is wholly occupied with an extract from Dr. Monro's treatise on the *bursæ mucosæ*. The use of this appendix is not very evident, except it was to serve as stuffing, to make something like a book; for the practice there recommended of not dividing the hernial sac is dangerous, and often impracticable.

The merits of this first essay cannot be rated very high: it will not entitle the author to the smallest niche in the temple of fame. If we consider it as an inaugural dissertation, and it resembles the generality of these first flights, it is entitled to some praise, and may be read "*haud sine fructu.*" There is great industry and assiduity displayed in collecting materials; almost every sentence can boast of its derivation from some writer or some respectable practitioner. Books and conversation appear to have furnished Dr. Monro with all the substance of his work—"*ore trahit quodcunque potest, atque addit acervo.*" We are unable to guess his reasons for choosing such a subject. The faults in his manner of treating it may be ascribed more to his situation, as an operator on the dead body, than to any want of abilities for such pursuits. We should therefore caution him not to venture again before the public on such a practical subject, where he has such slender opportunity for displaying his acquirements, and where so many things contribute to expose and aggravate his defects.

The plates connected with this work are six in number; they are very neatly engraved, apparently from very accurate drawings. The names of the artists are not mentioned, although they contribute so large a share to the merit and price of the publication: "*sic vos non vobis, &c.*"

ART. XLIII. *The Soldier's Friend; containing familiar Instructions to the Loyal Volunteers, Yeomanry Corps, and Military Men in general, on the Preservation and Recovery of their Health. By* WILLIAM BLAIR, *A.M. Member of the Royal College of Surgeons, Fellow of the Medical Societies of London, Paris, and Brussels, &c.*

AMONG the many publications of temporary interest, which the general arming of the nation has given rise to, the present compilation will be favourably distinguished, as containing much useful matter, selected from good and various authorities, on all the functions of the hospital surgeon, and that important part of the duties of the officer which relates to the preservation of the health of his men.

An abstract of this little compilation would be useless; the whole forms a very useful manual of health for the camp and military hospital. The chapter on diet and cookery is perhaps the best.

A few wooden cuts are added, on the tourniquet and its application, the camp-ventilator, and a spring waggon for conveying the wounded.

ART. XLIV. *Anthropology, or the Natural History of Man; with a comparative View of the Structure and Functions of animated Beings in general. By* WILLIAM BLAIR, *A M. Member of the Royal College of Surgeons, Surgeon of the Lock Hospital, &c.* pp. 163. 8vo.

A COPIOUS syllabus of the author's lectures on physiology, which, if well filled up, would grow into a system nearly as complete as the present state of knowledge would allow of. To conclude with *eclat*, Mr. Blair magnanimously attacks the renowned system of craniognomy, devised by Dr. Gall, of Vienna, and congratulates us on our escape from a "general contamination" of materialism, a system in which there is "too little of sound philosophy for thinking men, and too little of common sense for the vulgar."

Digitized by Google

ART. XLV. *Illustrations of some of the Injuries to which the lower Limbs are exposed. By* CHARLES BRANDON TRYE, *Member of the late Corporation of Surgeons in London, of the Royal Medical Society in Edinburgh, of the Medical Society in London, and Surgeon of the Gloucester Infirmary.* 4to. pp. 87.

OBSERVATIONS of this kind made from cases actually occurring are always valuable. The author has had the opportunity of examining, in two instances, after death, the state of parts deranged by violent, but not of itself fatal, external injury: the one a dislocation of the femur, the other a fracture of the neck of the upper articulating head of the same bone, without complete dislocation. These cases are the basis of the present short publication, and have furnished seven plates of the appearances after dissection.

It is well known to surgeons that, of these two accidents, dislocation without fracture, though generally caused by terrible violence, producing immediate deformity, and requiring often excessive exertion to be reduced, is less formidable than a fracture of the neck of the femur; which last is incurable, no instance being well authenticated, we believe, of a perfect cure of this calamitous injury. The diagnosis of the two is therefore important, but sometimes difficult, especially in stout, corpulent, and muscular subjects.

In the present case, the dislocation was upwards and outwards; and on account of the other injuries, which soon proved mortal, no reduction was attempted.

In two other cases which occurred to the author, the attempts at reduction were successful; and the following remarks upon this operation may interest our readers.

"The taxis or reduction of the dislocated thigh bone is often a difficult operation. I know of no mode which invariably promises success. Much must be left to the ingenuity of the surgeon, who will vary the posture of the patient, and the application of his own effort, to reduce the bone, as his judgment shall direct him in the instance before him.

"One principle, however, I think may be laid down, viz. to fix the pelvis firmly whenever extension of the limb is to be made. In a strong muscular man, whose thigh had been dislocated upwards and outwards, after fruitlessly trying other methods, the following process succeeded. He was laid prone upon a bed; a sheet was passed between his thigh, and held firmly by two assistants. I then knelt upon the pelvis, in order to keep it steady, and resist its being raised up when the extension should be made. Three men then pulled at a towel, fastened round the thigh above the knee, and drew it in such a direction as to carry the thigh upwards; that is, in relation to the trunk, backwards. I then rested my two hands on the head of the bone, and pushed it downwards and forwards with all my strength; and after a short exertion of our powers in this manner, I directed a gentleman who held the leg to twist the toes suddenly outwards, upon which the head rushed into the acetabulum with a loud noise.

"I tried the same, and a variety of other methods, in a very muscular middle-aged woman, unsuccessfully, within six hours after her accident. She took half a drachm of Dover's powders at bed-time the succeeding night, and the next morning used the warm bath, and was well sweated for two hours before the intended time of repeating the taxis. She was laid upon a bed, on the sound side. I then pressed my left hand against the head of the bone, one of my knees against its body, a little higher than the middle, and with the other hand I drew her knee outwards. The leg was supported by an assistant, the knee bent to a right angle. Three persons made steady the pelvis by holding a sheet passed between the thighs, and three others made the extension. In this manner our strength was exerted for some time, and I plainly felt the head of the bone move, but the reduction was not completed. We renewed our attempts in the same manner, except that a gentleman, who became one of the extenders, placed his foot firmly against the arch of the pubis (properly defended) and thereby both increased his power of extension, and, at the same time, rendered the pelvis more steady and fixed. The force being continued for some time, and my hands and knee being applied in the manner already described, I directed the assistant, who supported the bent leg, suddenly to carry the internal ancle towards the other leg, and to twist the toes outwards, and then the head slipped into the acetabulum. The day on which the accident took place there was uncommon rigidity and hardness of the muscles; but after the operation of the sudorific and the bath, the tension and resistance were greatly diminished."

A good case is added of compound luxation of the tarsus, in which, as the bones could not be returned, and there was no alternative but amputation, or removing the protruded bone; the latter was adopted, and the astragalus was entirely taken out.

The patient recovered, and was able to walk, in six months, with the assistance, however, of a stick, a jointed iron from the hip, and a high shoe. The

Digitized by Google

case shews the powers of nature in recovery from such serious injury, but we question whether amputation would not have been preferable.

The plates are executed in an extremely coarse style. The work is very handsomely dedicated to the governors of the Gloucester Infirmary.

ART. XLVI. *Practical Observations on the Treatment of Strictures in the Urethra and in the Æsophagus. By* EVERARD HOME, *Esq. F. R. S. Surgeon to St. George's Hospital.* Vol. II. 8vo.

OUR readers are too well acquainted with the former volume of this work to require to be informed of its contents, any further than to remind them, that in it the author treats very fully of the method of removing stricture by caustic first proposed by John Hunter, explains the structure of the parts, gives very full directions for the application of the caustic, and relates a variety of cases, both of the more frequent kind, and where other morbid symptoms accompanied the stricture, and often interfered with the proposed mode of cure. The stricture of the æsophagus is also noticed briefly in the first volume.

In the present volume Mr. H. takes a much wider range; he first endeavours to point out a sufficient diagnosis between temporary spasm of the urethra and permanent stricture; after which he assumes the position, that stricture is in itself a primary cause of a great variety of diseases, chiefly of the organs connected with its seat, or contiguous to it, often unsuspected, and often going on to a fatal termination after severe and protracted misery.

The general complexion of the work, therefore, is to direct the attention of the practitioner more particularly to this disease than has hitherto been done, to induce him to bear constantly in mind the possibility of its existence, where any morbid affection of the organs exist; and to lead him to have recourse to the Hunterian method of cure with caution and perseverance.

The propriety of use of the caustic in the extensive manner in which Mr. H. recommends, and very largely practises, has been, and still is, the subject of much controversy. We do not think it incumbent upon us to enter into it in this place, our present object being briefly to state the arguments for the practice here brought by its ablest defender.

The author in the preface relates the particulars of a successful case where the caustic was condemned by Mr. Benjamin Bell, the only one of his opposers whom he personally notices.

The first chapter contains general observations upon strictures, from which, as it is in some degree the summary of the opinions afterwards maintained, and unembarrassed by cases, we shall extract several passages.

First, of the symptoms of constitutional diseases, induced by stricture, the author thus speaks.

"The constitutional symptoms, which belong to a stricture in the urethra, have been more frequently mistaken for an original disease than those of any other local complaint; and it is only within these few years that this error has been detected. I have been enabled to determine, that the following constitutional affections, which I shall soon mention, occasionally belong to strictures in the urethra, by three different modes. The first is, that patients are liable to them when labouring under that disease; the second, that they very often are brought on in the course of a few hours after an armed bougie has been applied to the stricture; and whenever they follow such an application, it has been found that the symptom then produced has, at a former period, been met with in the same patient. The third is, that after the removal of the stricture the symptoms disappear, although the patient had been liable to them for a number of years. Such evidence, when collected upon a large scale by a person of extensive experience, can admit of little if any fallacy."

The particular symptoms are paroxysms resembling that of a regular intermittent, (also often brought on by the application of caustic,) feverish indisposition, extreme irritability both of mind and body, derangement in the digestive organs, sometimes erysipelas, and eruptions of the skin.

The stricture, when of long duration, often changes from being only a membranous band to a hard cartilaginous body, requiring all the skill of the surgeon, and we imagine that degree of resolute patience in the sufferer, which would only be endured, generally speaking, in diseases of the part here affected. The inference, from much experience, Mr. H. lays down with confidence.

"This mode of treating strictures having

Digitized by Google

been in use now for eight years, a sufficient time is elapsed to admit of some conclusion being drawn respecting the consequences which are produced by it, and the permanency of its effects; and so great has been the number of those who have submitted to it, that, notwithstanding the many difficulties which still attend the subject, the following conclusions are given as formed upon a very extensive series of observations.

"That it does not dispose the parts to take on any other disease is sufficiently established, as there is no one instance within my observation in which that has been the case.

"That the parts recover themselves after the use of caustic, and acquire the natural smooth surface they originally possessed in common with the rest of the urethra, is also completely ascertained.

"That removing the strictures restores the parts to all their natural functions has been proved by the effect on patients in a married state, who had for years palliated the symptoms by means of bougies, and during that period had not begot children; but who were afterwards capable of doing so during the same marriage.

"These are the essential points which could not be determined by any reasoning, and were therefore only to be ascertained by experience."

Several causes of what may be called spurious stricture, or temporary obstruction of the urethra, are related, all of which have been mistaken for true stricture, and occasionally have exposed the sufferers to the use of the caustic, whereby extreme mischief has been produced and the practice itself brought into discredit. A most calamitous case is related of inflammation of the bladder producing permanent obstruction of urine and constant pain, which had so much the appearance of stricture as to induce the surgeon to apply caustic several times, and with temporary relief to the strangury. The latter part of the case is so instructive, that we must relate it in the author's words.

"In this state he came to town, and put himself under my care. He was now very much emaciated, and appeared to be in a state beyond recovery, independently of the state of the complaint in his bladder. Upon examining the urethra by a bougie, this could not be passed beyond the bulb of the urethra; I could not, however, procure any impression upon the point of it, so as to satisfy my mind of the real state of the part. He requested me to use the caustic, as the only means of giving him ease, from the distressing pain he had at the glans penis; and upon applying it, he found himself next day easier. I made several attempts to get an impression of the stricture upon the bougie, but in vain; and always applied the caustic, to give my patient a temporary relief. After using the bougie four or five times, I passed a silver catheter, of a size larger than the bougie I had used, and found it went with perfect ease into the bladder. This explained to me the present state of the case; and I informed the patient, that there was now no stricture, the passage was perfectly open, and the whole of the remaining disease was in the internal membrane of the bladder, and therefore the only object was to enable the parts to recover themselves by soothing them, and to strengthen the constitution by nourishment. He became, however, weaker and weaker, and in the course of three months died.

"During this period he had frequent rigors and cold sweats, which are common attendants upon diseases of the bladder; but the symptoms of which he died were wasting of flesh, loathing of food, occasional sickness, without his being aware of his gradual decay. At last he was so weak as scarcely to bear being moved. He had his faculties perfectly clear, and his recollection complete, till within a few hours of his death.

"Upon inspecting the parts after death, it appeared that there had been no stricture in any part of the urethra. The internal membrane of the bladder was in a state of ulceration, particularly the lower part, where the ureters enter into it, except a line not broader than the eighth of an inch, extending from each ureter to the middle line, where the two streams would unite. The orifices of the ureters were in a state of ulceration, and inflammation had extended itself along the internal surface of the left ureter to the kidney, the pelvis and infundibula of which were in a state of ulceration.

"The use of the caustic had made five different holes through the membrane of the urethra, of the size of the end of a common bougie, at a small distance from each other; a large abscess had formed between the perinæum and buttock, into which the urine escaped by these orifices. The immediate cause of his death, I should believe, was the state of the kidney, having seen two other cases in which a diseased state of the pelvis of the kidney produced similar symptoms."

A more instructive warning against the *rash* application of the caustic could hardly have been found; and notwithstanding the original disease of the bladder and kidney, we can hardly refuse to attribute a very large share of the fatal event to the caustic itself, the dreadful effects of which Mr. H. has so candidly related.

In such cases as these it does not appear that the author has any other criterion of the existence of stricture than

Digitized by Google

the impression made on the point of the bougie.

The author next relates several very interesting cases of strictures requiring an unusual number of applications of the caustic for their removal. He attributes this to a change in the texture of the original stricture, and a supposed complication of action and re-action between old and new strictures. In one of the cases the caustic had been applied during six years no less than 486 times. The final success was considerable and probably would be compleat, and a just observation is added which will apply to many of these excessively tedious cases.

"In 1803 this patient continued free from any relapse, but was under the necessity of passing a bougie daily, and leaving it in the urethra for half an hour, to keep the canal in a state of tranquillity; for he found that when he omitted to do so, occasional symptoms of irritation came on.

"On contemplating the sufferings of the patient during so long a period as six years, it may be observed, that few men would have had the same degree of perseverance, and that a cure was hardly worth so dear a price. This, however, is not by any means a just view of the case, since the whole time he was under this treatment he suffered less, both in body and mind, from the effects of the caustic, than he had done from the symptoms of the disease previous to its being adopted, and the degree of relief he received from the immediate effect of the applications upon the parts irritated, was more than sufficient to counterbalance the local pain it produced."

A very long and very prolix but highly valuable case is given by the patient himself, a general officer, past the middle age, who had long suffered under severe stricture, that had baffled Daran, Hunter, and many of the men of peculiar eminence in diseases of this organ. The case is a daily register for five months of incessant application of caustic at as short intervals as could possibly be allowed of, and attended with the final success of making a complete passage through a great variety of strictures into the bladder.

After this point was secured, the patient recovered to so great a degree as to enjoy life very considerably, though the power of retaining urine was so much impaired as to prevent him from mixing freely in society, and a mucous discharge from the bladder remained. It is flattering to the practitioner, after so long and assiduous attendance, to have his patient thus describe his feelings and his sentiments.

"Now for the bright side of the picture; my general health is so much improved, that I am congratulated by all my acquaintance upon my appearance. I can ride ten miles with much satisfaction, and whenever I have a call to make water, it passes without difficulty. I feel no pain of any kind; in short, could I surmount the frequency of making water, there would be very few men of my age (sixty-five) more robust. This amazing change from a life of pain and misery I attribute entirely to the operation of the caustic. This copy of the journal, which I kept during the operation, I give to Mr. Home, and hope he will be pleased to consider it as an acknowledgment of his professional abilities, and of my grateful remembrance of their exertion."

Four years afterwards this patient died. The irritability of the bladder, which had never left him, encreased, calculous concretions formed, and his complicated sufferings put an end to his existence. On dissection the cause of death was traced to the bladder, but the urethra remained sound and uniform through its whole extent.

Our limits will not allow us to examine the other cases of disease occasioned by and accompanying stricture.

A valuable chapter, already published in the second volume of the transactions of a society for promoting medical and chirurgical knowledge, is here very properly inserted, containing cases in which suppression of urine, in consequence of stricture, has required puncturing the bladder.

Some cases are given of strictures in the æsophagus, cured by the bougie simple, or armed with caustic. The following valuable diagnostic remarks we shall transcribe. Besides the stricture, the æsophagus is liable to two other diseases, both of which produce difficulty of swallowing.

"One of these is a thickening of the coats of the æsophagus, which extends to the surrounding parts, and in the end generally becomes cancerous, or, in other words, an incurable disease: the other is an ulcer on the lining of the æsophagus; this last is commonly a little below the seat of the stricture, and is upon the posterior part which lies on the vertebræ of the neck. Both of these produce a difficulty in swallowing, and in their early stages are only to be distinguished from stricture by an examination with the bougie; when the disease is more advanced, the other

Digitized by Google

symptoms which arise sufficiently explain the nature of the disease.

"Strictures appear to be a disease belonging to the earlier periods of life, while the other two are more commonly met with at an advanced age.

"Passing a bougie in cases of stricture in the æsophagus requires considerable dexterity as well as in those of the urethra, and I have found that it is more easily done while the tongue is brought forwards out of the mouth, than in any other state of the parts."

* * * *

"When a bougie is passed with a view to determine the nature of the complaint, and it passes down to the distance of eight inches, measuring from the cutting edge of the front teeth in the upper jaw, the surgeon may be satisfied that it is beyond the usual seat of the stricture; and if it is brought back without any resistance, he may conclude, that the aperture of the æsophagus considerably exceeds the size of the bougie which had been used. But if the bougie stops at the distance of six and a-half inches, or even lower, he is to retain it there with an uniform steady pressure for half a minute, so as to receive on its point an impression of the surface to which it was opposed. If the end of the bougie retains its natural form, or nearly so, and there is an indentation like the mark of a cord on its side, whether all round, or only partially, he may decide that the disease is a stricture; but if, on the other hand, the bougie passes without any difficulty to the distance of seven and a half inches, and when brought back the point has an irregular jagged surface, it is equally clear that the disease is an ulcer on the posterior surface of the æsophagus."

A successful case of strictured rectum, cured by caustic, concludes the work.

Such are the general contents of this volume. The whole subject is highly important to surgeons, as embracing a very interesting part of surgical practice, one which is much controverted, and which is of too serious a nature to be taken up or rejected lightly. Mr. Home is fully aware that he is wielding a most active and hazardous weapon, and a statement like the present was demanded of one who stood a conspicuous advocate for its use. We do not think he has altogether made out so satisfactorily, (and perhaps the thing is in its nature impossible) the extent of *injury* which the caustic is capable of committing, as the *benefit* which may attend its use, but we are convinced, that no one can peruse the volume before us without participating in some of the advantages which the author himself has acquired by very successful and very extensive practice.

ART. XLVII. *Facts and Observations respecting the Air-Pump Vapour-Bath in Gout, Rheumatism, Palsy, and other Diseases. By* RALPH BLEGBOROUGH, *M. D. Member of the Royal College of Surgeons, London.* 8vo.

IT is necessary to inform our readers what this air-pump vapour-bath is. It is, as its name imports, an air-pump; what answers to the receiver is an oblong truncated wooden box, made very strong and tight, somewhat in the form of a fracture-box for the leg, but perfectly close, excepting an opening at one end, just wide enough to admit the limb, and with a broad border of oil-silk, which, when the limb is in the box, draws round it, and the opening where it entered, so as to exclude the external air. At the other end of the box, is a common piston for exhausting the air, and also a tube through which steam may be thrown into the box, and foment the part within it.

It was invented, we are told, by a Mr. Smith of Brighton, who took it from the old idea of sucking out poison from wounds, and supposed that gout, rheumatism, and other morbid causes might, in like manner, be sucked out from a limb. It is, in fact, a machine for dry-cupping, united to one for fomenting, and both the idea and the execution deserve some attention, as we are convinced there are many cases in which such a powerful derivative topical application might prove of material service.

The author gives some cases of its utility, and many speculations as to the extent to which the practice might be carried. The practitioner will readily conceive the cases where it might be advisable, rheumatic indolent tumours, paralysis, perhaps gout, &c. &c. Dr. Blegborough also proposes it for ulcers.—Here, however, much discrimination is required, for such a powerful topic is equally capable of doing great mischief. His proposal for using it to chilblains is promising. The machine is the property of a patentee, who disposes of the privilege of using it both personally and professionally.

The machine is illustrated by a very neat plate.

Digitized by Google

ART. XLVIII. *Practical Observations in Surgery, illustrated with Cases. By* WILLIAM HEY, *Esq. F. R. S. Member of the Royal College of Surgeons in London; honorary Member of the Royal Medical Society of Edinburgh, and of the Literary and Philosophical Society of Manchester; and senior Surgeon of the General Infirmary at Leeds.* 8vo. pp. 537.

THE abilities and experience of the ingenious author of this work have already gained him considerable celebrity, and the publication now before us will be found to possess those claims to attentive consideration, which are derived from accurate observation, sound judgment, and a perspicuous detail of interesting facts.

The first chapter is on fractures of the skull. In this, the author combats the practice pursued by Mr. Pott, that of taking away part of the integuments, to give room for examining the state of the skull. It is always sufficient to make an incision for this purpose, and to have the integuments held back while the examination is pursued. The author is of opinion that there are various inconveniences attending the employment of the trephine, for the purpose of removing such parts of the skull as may be injured, and therefore recommends the use of a saw, which may be worked gently in a straight or curvilinear direction. Saws of this kind he has used for a great number of years, and finds that much less of the cranium is obliged to be removed when they are employed, than must be done in the usual manner of operation.

In a case of caries in the tibia, the vitiated bone was successfully removed by the saw now mentioned, and in another case, when the posterior tibial artery was wounded, the removal of a portion of the fibula allowed the artery to be got at, and taken up.

Chapter 2d, On the Cataract.—The author informs us, that he cannot enter into a fair comparison between the operation of couching and that of extraction, because he has only performed the latter operation once, and then, though he did it with a great deal of care, the inferior half of the cornea became opake, so as to deprive his patient of the benefit of the operation. Couching he has been in the habit of performing for thirty-three years, and with so extensive an experience of its merits has not been able to find it liable to any of the objections made against it by Baron Wenzel. He prefers a round needle flattened near the point to the spear-pointed one generally in use. Several cases are given in which this operation was performed, and one is mentioned, where, from the unsteadiness of the patient, and the power which was possessed of drawing in the eye, he could not succeed in depressing the cataract; but the mere passing a needle through it, answered the purpose of producing its gradual absorption, and of thus restoring the sight of the patient.

Chap. 3d. On the strangulated Hernia.—Much difference of opinion has taken place on the propriety of bloodletting in this disease. The author is inclined to conclude, that there are cases in which this remedy may be useful, and others in which it will prove pernicious. Bleeding has generally failed in producing a reduction of the gut, but it has never (as Mr. Wilmer supposes), within the author's knowledge, rendered the subsequent operation more dangerous. Purgative medicines by the mouth are condemned, glysters have been of little service, the warm bath has not uniformly done good.

"Gentle efforts with the hand to reduce the prolapsed part are perhaps attended with less danger, and with greater prospect of success, while the patient lies in the bath, than in any other position. The free use of opiates coincides with that of warm bathing, and, under some circumstances, these means deserve to be tried in conjunction."

Opiates are not in general successful in producing a reduction of the intestines, but they are useful in mitigating the symptoms, when it is necessary to remove the patient to a considerable distance. Cold stupes, and the cold bath, have oftener failed than been serviceable. Injections, a decoction of tobacco (made by boiling a drachm of the cut leaves for ten minutes in a pint of water), are, upon the whole, considered as the most efficacious remedies in the strangulated hernia, previous to the operation.

The author is decidedly of opinion, that the operation should be performed early, to give it a chance of success. When he first began business, he lost three patients in five, on whom the operation was performed, from delaying it too long.

Digitized by Google

"Having more experience of the urgency of the disease, I made it my custom, when called to a patient who had laboured two or three days under the disease, to wait only about two hours, that I might try the effect of bleeding (if this evacuation was not forbidden by some peculiar circumstances of the case) and the tobacco glyster. In this mode of practice I lost about two patients in nine upon whom I operated. This comparison is drawn from cases nearly similar, leaving out of the account those cases in which a gangrene of the intestine had taken place.

"I have now, at the time of writing this, performed the operation thirty-five times; and have often had occasion to lament that I had performed it too late, but never that I had performed it too soon. There are some cases so urgent, that it is not adviseable to lose any time in the trial of means to produce a reduction. The delay of a few hours may cut off all hope of success, when a speedy operation might have saved the life of the patient."

The author particularly describes the mode of operation to be pursued in strangulated scrotal hernia, and annexes many remarks, which are well worthy of attention. The strangulation of the femoral hernia, he is of opinion, does not arise from Poupart's ligament, but agrees with M. Gimbernat in thinking that it is from a ligament existing in the aponeurotic sheath, which envelopes the great vessels of the thigh, and is strongly attached at its superior part to the ossa pubis.

This ligament "runs transversely, but does not descend obliquely, as that ligament does. On the contrary, it rather ascends as it approaches the symphysis of the ossa pubis, passing behind, and decussating, the extremity of Poupart's ligament."

The author denominates it femoral ligament, and it is by the division of this that the return is effected.

Several useful practical observations are made on the proper treatment of the omentum, which may be included in the herniary sac.

A new species of scrotal hernia is described by the author, as having occurred in an infant of fifteen months old.

"This hernia differed both from the common scrotal rupture, in which the hernial sac lies on the outside of the tunica vaginalis; and also from the hernia congenita, where the prolapsed part comes into contact with the testicle, having no other hernial sac besides the tunica vaginalis."

In this case the hernial sac was in contact with the testicle, and therefore within the tunica vaginalis. The author terms it hernia infantilis. He thus enumerates the species of scrotal hernia:

"1. If the abdominal aperture of this process is open when the intestine or omentum is protruded, the rupture is then called hernia congenita. 2. If the upper part of the process remains open, but the abdominal aperture is closed, and is capable of resisting the force of the protruding part, the hernia then becomes of that species which I have now described, the hernia infantilis. 3. If the cavity of the upper part of the process is obliterated, and the septum is formed a little above the testicle, as in the adult state, the hernial sac then descends on the outside of the tunica vaginalis, and forms the most common species of scrotal rupture, which may with propriety be called hernia virilis."

The following description is given of a new truss for the exomphalos, invented by an ingenious mechanic of Leeds:

"It consists of two pieces of thin elastic steel, which surround the sides of the abdomen, and nearly meet behind. At their anterior extremity they form conjointly an oval ring, to one side of which is fastened a spring of steel of the form represented. At the end of this spring is placed the pad or bolster that presses upon the hernia. By the elasticity of this spring the hernia is repressed in every position of the body, and is thereby retained constantly within the abdomen. A piece of calico or jean is fastened to each side of the oval ring, having a continued loop at its edge, through which a piece of tape is put that may be tied behind the body. This contrivance helps to preserve the instrument steady in its proper situation."

Chapter 4th. Of the Fungus Hæmatodes.—This disease has not been noticed by any author, whose works have come under the knowledge of Mr. Hey, previous to the completion of this paper. But a species of it he has since found, described by Mr. Burns, of Glasgow, under the name of Spongoid inflammation.

The following case will give a view of the origin and progress of this singular and serious disease.

"August 20th, 1801, James Richardson, a stout man, aged fifty years, consulted me on account of a large tumour on the posterior part of his left shoulder. Upon a careful examination I could not doubt of its being a tumour of that intractable species, to which I have given the name of Fungus Hæmatodes.

Digitized by Google

"As the knowledge of this disease in its incipient state may be of importance, I will give a description of this case; which I apprehend will not be found inapplicable to the general appearance of the disease, when it arises spontaneously, without any previous operation, upon a part not endued with great sensibility.

"The tumour was not painful. It had arisen to a considerable size before the patient was aware of its existence; and it was first pointed out to him by his friends, who observed, that the posterior part of one shoulder was become larger than the other.

"It did not interrupt the motion of the muscles upon which it was situated; the patient being able, as he informed me, to follow his laborious employment of a blacksmith as well as usual.

"Its situation seemed to be between the integuments and external muscles, a little below the joint of the shoulder, covering a great part of the scapula.

"Its form and size may be understood by the following measurement, which I took with a marked tape: from the base on one side to that on the opposite side, where the breadth was the greatest, carrying the measure over the summit of the tumour, it measured 12 inches. The measure taken across the tumour, in the same way, at its smallest breadth, was 8 inches. Its base measured 28 inches.

"When examined by gentle pressure in various ways, it seemed to be of an uneven density. In some parts an alternate pressure gave the sensation of a deep seated fluid. When grasped by the fingers in other parts, one might perceive an irregular hardness. This examination gave no pain.

"It was moveable, but in a slight degree: not so much as a wen formed by an enlargement of the adipose membrane.

"The cutaneous veins, which ran over its surface, were enlarged.

"Some idea of its growth may be obtained from the following particulars. It was first examined in July 1800, and it was then judged to be about half the size at which I found it. The patient had been lately at Harrowgate, and had used a hot bath there, which he apprehended had much increased the size of the tumour.

"The integuments did not seem to be rendered thinner by the distention of the fungus, which I conceived to be lodged beneath and within them.

"The skin had been irritated by some stimulating applications which had been made to it. I directed the application of the cerat. lap. calam. to remove this superficial inflammation; and advised the poor man to do nothing else, as I conceived the disease to be incurable.

"I saw this patient again in February 1802, and was informed by him, that he had been under the care of some irregular practitioners, supposed to be skilful in the cure of cancers. The tumour was much enlarged, and beginning to ulcerate. His countenance was fallen and his strength seemed to be declining."

The author has now seen 16 or 17 cases of this complaint, but has not been able to effect a cure in any of them, except by amputation of the limb, where the seat of the disease was in the extremities. Several instances are mentioned in which the mammæ were affected with enlargements of this kind. Extirpation was had recourse to but did not succeed.

"When the disease occupies merely the adipose or cellular membrane lying upon the surface of the muscles, the tumour is not usually painful in its beginning, nor does it impede the motion of the muscles on which it is seated. But when deep seated in the limbs, it causes pain and weakness of the part affected.

"The fungus, as it increases in bulk, does not render the integuments uniformly thin, as in the case of an abscess. In one part the tumour, when pressed with the hands, will afford the sensation of a deep seated fluid, while another part feels hard and uneven.

"In an advanced stage of the disease, the integuments, and aponeuroses of the muscles, (if the fungus is situated beneath this part) are burst open, and the fungus which rises through the aperture sometimes appears black, like a mass of coagulated blood. At other times the appearance more resembles an excoriation. Under both these circumstances hæmorrhages ensue.

"In this process, the integuments do not become uniformly thin, and of a red colour, as when purulent matter is making its way; but they continue to feel thick as usual round the fungus that has burst through them.

"This fungus is an organised mass, and bleeds wherever it is broken.

"When the parts containing the fungus are divided, they are found to be in a morbid state. The adipose membrane forms a great number of pouches, filled with the fungus, upon the removal of which the pouches bleed copiously, from every part of their internal surface.

"Wherever the fungus comes into contact with the muscles, they lose their natural redness, and become brown. They also lose their fibrous appearance, and cannot in every part be distinguished from the adipose membrane, though a distinction is in general evident.

"The growth of this fungus cannot always be repressed by the strongest escharotics. Neither the hydrargyrus nitratus ruber, the hydrar. muriatus, the antimon. muriatum, nor the undiluted vitriolic acid, have been sufficient for this purpose."

A plate is annexed from a drawing of one of those cases.

Digitized by Google

Chap. 5th. On dislocations.—Various useful remarks are made in this chapter, on the nature of luxations or the mode of reducing them; but they are too much connected with description to admit of abridgment.

Chap. 6th. On internal derangement of the knee joint.—This sometimes happens in consequence of trifling injuries, and if it is not attended to, will in time produce a considerable degree of permanent lameness. The nature of this complaint may be judged of from one of the cases given by the author.

"In 1784, the honourable Miss Harriet Ingram (now Mrs. Aston), as she was playing with a child, and making a considerable exertion, in stretching herself forwards, and stooping to take hold of the child, while she rested upon one leg, brought on an immediate lameness in the knee joint of that leg on which she stood. The disorder was considered as a simple sprain; and a plaster was applied round the joint. As the lameness did not diminish in the course of five or six days, I was desired to visit her.

"Upon comparing the knees, I could perceive no difference, except that, when the limbs were placed in a state of complete extension, the ligament of the patella of the injured joint seemed to be rather more relaxed than in that joint which had received no injury. When I moved the affected knee by a gentle flexion and extension, my patient complained of no pain; yet she could not perfectly extend the leg in walking, nor bend it in raising the foot from the floor; but moved as if the joint had been stiff, limping very much, and walking with pain.

"I thought it probable, that the sudden exertion might in some degree have altered the situation of the cross ligaments, or otherwise have displaced the condyles of the os femoris with respect to the semilunar cartilages; so that the condyles might meet with some resistance when the flexor or extensor muscles were put into action, and thereby the free motion of the joint might be hindered, when the incumbent weight of the body pressed the thigh bone closely against the tibia; though this derangement was not so great as to prevent the joint, when relaxed, from being moved with ease.

"To remedy this derangement, I placed my patient upon an elevated seat, which had nothing underneath it that could prevent the leg from being pushed backward towards the posterior part of the thigh. I then extended the joint by the assistance of one hand placed just above the knee, while with the other hand I grasped the leg. During the continuance of the extension I suddenly moved the leg backwards, that it might make as acute an angle with the thigh as possible. This operation I repeated once, and then desired the young lady to try how she could walk. Whatever may be thought of my theory, my practice proved successful; for she was immediately able to walk without lameness, and on the third day after this reduction she danced at a private ball without inconvenience, or receiving any injury from the exercise."

Chap. 7th. On loose cartilaginous substances in the joints.—These substances, it has generally been thought necessary to remove, by an incision made into the joint. But as this operation is a very dangerous one, the author was induced to make use of a well adapted laced knee cap, or a quilted knee piece, which answered the purpose of retaining the substance within the interior parts of the joint, and allowed a free motion without inconvenience. The substances were in time absorbed.

Chap. 8th. Of wounds of the joints.—The author has had considerable success in the treatment of such cases, by taking due care to prevent inflammation.

Chap. 9th. Compound luxation of the ancle joint.—In those cases he agrees with Mr. Gooch, on the propriety of sawing off the head of the tibia or fibula, if either of them protrude through the integuments.

Chap. 10th. Of retention of urine.—Many useful remarks are contained in this chapter, on the different modes of introducing the catheter, an operation which is often attended with considerable difficulty. The necessity of early having recourse to this remedy, when symptoms of retention appear, is strongly indicated by several cases, and the author was particularly led to remark, that an involuntary discharge or even the power of expelling a small quantity of urine, frequently succeeded to retention, but never had the effect of emptying the contents of the bladder. The use of the catheter was therefore as strongly required in such cases, as where the retention was complete. To preserve the flow of urine, an elastic catheter was sometimes left in the bladder for a continuance; but the best plan appeared to the author, to be that of introducing it at certain short intervals. By the latter means, the patient sooner regains the power of emptying the bladder by natural efforts, than when it is suffered to remain constantly in the urethra.

Chap. 11th. Cure of the procidentia ani in adults.

"The relaxed state of the part which came down at every evacuation, and the want of

Digitized by Google

sufficient stricture in the sphincter ani, satisfied me, says the author, that it was impossible to afford any effectual relief to my patient, unless I could bring about a more firm adhesion to the surrounding cellular membrane, and increase the proper action of the sphincter. Nothing seemed to me so likely to effect these purposes, as the removal of the pendulous flap, and the other protuberances which surrounded the anus. I hoped that the inflammation caused by this operation would produce a more firm adhesion of the rectum to the surrounding cellular substance; and I could not doubt that the circular wound would bring on a greater stricture in the sphincter ani. I explained my ideas to my patient, and he thought it right to submit to the operation which I proposed."

His expectations on this ground were not deceived, as we learn from five cases which he succeeded in curing.

A tumor in the rectum is cured by ligature.

Chap. 12th. Of the cancer of the penis.—Several cases are given of this disease. When the body of the penis was affected, amputation was necessary, but where the disease was confined to the prepuce it was sufficient to remove so much of it as was diseased.

Chap. 13th. Convulsions after strangulation.—In this case convulsions came on, after a copious bleeding, which was employed in order to restore a man who had attempted to hang himself. They were considered as arising from debility, brought on by the suspension, and probably increased by the loss of blood, and they were removed by volatile stimulants given internally.

Chap. 14th. Of a tumour in the neck.—This tumour was supposed to originate from a varicose distension of the veins of the neck, but was afterwards found to have arisen from a rupture of a small blood-vessel.——The author examined it, by passing a couching-needle into it, a mode which he recommends for this purpose. On finding that it contained blood, a cure was attempted, by a gradual evacuation of the contents, which was effected by repeated punctures with a couching-needle.

Chap. 15th. Of the empyema.—The deposition of matter was on the left side, and the opening for evacuating it, was made close to the upper part of the 6th rib. The integuments on the left side of the thorax were œdematous. The case terminated favourably.

Chap. 16th. Of an enlargement of the mammæ.—Soon after a sudden cessation of the menses, the mammæ, which had from infancy been larger than usual, began to increase in size, and at the age of fourteen were so enormous, as to prevent the patient from being able to walk upright.

"The constant bending forwards had brought on a permanent curvature in the spine. The dragging sensation, arising from the weight of her breasts, was so troublesome, that she was never easy unless when lying in bed, or sitting with the breasts resting upon her knees.

"There appeared to be no disease in the breasts except that of simple enlargement; and their weight had separated them so far from the subjacent pectoral muscles, that I could push my finger, along with the integuments, some way behind each mamma, which felt like a bundle of enlarged glands connected together."

Amputation seemed to be the only mode of relief, and it was therefore determined to remove the left breast, which was the larger, and to wait the event of the operation. This was done, and the breast, after amputation, weighed eleven pounds four ounces avoirdupois. Menstrua then soon returned after the removal, and became regular. The right mamma decreased in size, though it never fell to its natural dimensions, and the health was in a little time perfectly restored. The curvature of the spine continued, though in some degree diminished.

Chap. 17th. Of collections of pus in the vagina.—Two cases of this kind are given, in both of which the matter was in a cyst. In one of them, the cyst was taken out; in the other it was laid open, and filled with lint. A cure was in both of them soon effected.

Chap. 18th. On alvine concretions. Two cases are related of a ball of light pliable matter being formed in the intestines. In one of them the magnitude of the concretion seemed to be the cause of death. A third case is given in which very alarming symptoms were produced in a female by hardened excrement, which was, with very great difficulty, removed.

Chap. 19th. Of the atheroma.—In this chapter, a few observations are made on the best mode of removing the little atheromatous tumours which occasionally appear in the eyelids.

Chap. 22d. On deep-seated abscesses in the mammæ, which abscesses are not confined to women in the puerperal state, or to such as give suck. They are only

Digitized by Google

to be cured by opening all the sinews, however tortuous or deep-seated they may be, through their whole extent.

Chap. 21. On amputation. It is always desirable to procure an union of parts by the first intention, and this is an object which the author constantly bears in view in performing this operation. In amputation of the thigh and arm, the author operates with a triple incision, in the following way.

"He first makes an incision through the integuments alone; secondly, an incision through all the muscles made somewhat higher than that through the integuments; and thirdly, another incision through that part of the muscular flesh which adheres to the bone, made round that part of the bone where the saw is to be applied. When these incisions are made in their proper places, the integuments and muscles on the opposite sides of the stump will meet each other conveniently, and may be preserved in contact so as to produce a speedy healing of the wound, and a convenient covering for the extremity of the bone.

"The proper distances of these incisions from each other must be determined by the thickness of the limb upon which the operation is to be performed, making allowance for the retraction of the integuments, and of those muscles which are not attached to the bone.

"I will suppose the operation to be performed upon the thigh, and the circumference of the limb to be twelve inches, at that part where the division of the bone is intended to be made. The diameter of the limb, in this case being four inches, if no retraction of the integuments were to take place, a sufficient covering of the stump would be afforded by making the first incision at the distance of two inches from the place where the bone is to be sawn, that is, at the distance of the semi-diameter of the limb on each side. But as the integuments, when in a sound state, always recede after they are divided, it is useful to make some allowance for this recession; and to make the first incision half an inch below the semi-diameter of the limb.

"Supposing the thickness of the integuments to be half an inch, the diameter of the limb after the first incision would be reduced to three inches; the second incision might, therefore, be made at the distance of an inch and half below the place where the bone is to be divided: but it is useful to make some allowance for the retraction of the muscles, particularly the posterior muscles of the thigh, which takes place in them to a considerable degree in the process of healing. These should be divided somewhat lower than the rest of the muscles, if it is wished that the muscular flesh should retract equally on all sides of the stump. The division of the posterior muscles may be begun at half an inch, and that of the anterior at three quarters, above the place where the integuments were divided. The integuments will retract a little both above and below the place where they were divided; but the distance from that place must be computed from the mark left upon the surface of the muscles in dividing the integuments. The edge of the knife should be directed somewhat obliquely upwards in dividing the muscles, and the division should be made through the posterior muscles at one stroke, and through the anterior at another.

"In order to make the third incision, the divided integuments and muscles must be drawn upwards by an assistant, who will generally do this the most conveniently with the aid of a retractor, and who should be cautious to avoid pulling the periosteum from the bone, when the muscles which adhere to it are divided.

"The most perfect union of the soft parts would be produced by making an incision through them all in a conical direction; the apex of the cone being that part of the bone where the saw is to be applied. But such an incision is impracticable in the ordinary mode of operating; nor is it necessary for the formation of a good stump."

In amputating below the knee, the author employs the flap operation, and manages so as to saw the bone about midway between the knee and ancle. Some observations are made in this chapter on the excision of the metatarsal bones, with which the author concludes his work, which has afforded us a great degree of satisfaction, and will prove a valuable acquisition to the practitioner.

ART. XLIX. *Remarks on the Constitution of the Medical Department of the British Army, with a Detail of Hospital Management; and an Appendix attempting to explain the Action of Causes in producing Fever, and the Operation of Remedies in effecting Cure. By* ROBERT JACKSON, *M. D.* 8vo. p. 351.

THE medical department of the army enjoys very extensive and valuable opportunities of practical observation, and it is with much satisfaction that we now have occasion to advert to the work of a physician, who has spent his whole life in the public service, and has been distinguished, as well for the attachment which he bears to his profession, as his unremitting zeal in the prosecution of it.

A military hospital, under proper regulations, is one of the best schools of

Digitized by Google

medical experience, and one in which there are not the same difficulties to contend with, which frequently present themselves in private practice. The patient and his attendants are equally under military discipline, which enforces, as a duty, whatever mode of treatment may be considered as proper. It is much to be lamented, that the greater number of army medical practitioners do not possess a portion of that ardour for which Dr. Jackson is so much distinguished. The habits of life, it is true, which they are apt to acquire are by no means favourable to observation and enquiry; and, though this may be considered as affording an apology for the want of energy in the improvement of their profession, which is so often observed, yet it is to be regretted that the necessity for it so much exists.

The first part of this work is on the constitution of the medical department of the army.

Dr. Jackson laments that the army medical officer has in general little to say on the means necessary to be pursued for the preservation of health.—This, he informs us, generally rests with commanding officers, who are little disposed to consult the medical department, except on the immediate subject of disease. We have known, however, many examples, in which a spirited but decorous interference has been respectfully attended to, and have no doubt, that in the greater number of examples the mind of a commanding officer is open to the suggestions of good sense and philanthropy.

The author represents the elements of the British medical department as extremely heterogeneous, and as therefore by no means adapted to produce an arrangement, and union of exertion, throughout the whole service. Much practical experience is required in the heads of departments to appreciate adequately the wants of the service, and the qualifications of those to be employed in it. This experience can only be obtained by actual observation, in the stations which they are to superintend, where they will learn the practical difficulties which often present themselves in the arrangements for the sick, and the means to be adopted for obviating them. The medical board, we are informed, has not one member composing it whose education or habits had at all given him an opportunity of being acquainted with the details of military medical service; and besides this circumstance, it is objected, that the more lucrative engagements of private practice, from which it is not attempted to debar them, necessarily withdraws much of that attention which ought to be exclusively devoted to the regulation of an important branch of the service.

The author considers it as a material disadvantage that the education of army surgeons is not uniform, and is of opinion that an examination, as it is usually practised, can by no means be regarded as a proper test of medical ability. He would, therefore, recommend an establishment, such as that of the hospital at the military depôt in the Isle of Wight, to be fixed upon as a medical seminary, where lectures might be given, and every candidate for admission into the army in a medical capacity obliged to study for a certain period.

According to the practice in use, when Mr. Hunter was surgeon-general, army physicians were generally promoted to that rank after many years service as surgeons. This plan is considered by the author as a very proper one, and as infinitely better than that which has been adopted since his time, in which surgeons are precluded from the chance of being physicians, and the latter rank confined to such as are graduates of the English universities, or licentiates of the London College. He conceives that the whole number employed in the various medical departments of the army is far greater than necessary, and goes so far as to entertain no doubt that the number thus employed is adequate to the care of the whole army establishment, even if all the individuals composing it were actually sick.

The second part contains the detail of management of the hospital of the army depôt in the Isle of Wight, in the year 1801.

In this chapter the author informs us that the hospital was new, slight, and by no means commodious; and that the troops at the depôt were for the most part recruits destined for foreign service, who were very liable to sickness, and frequently brought with them dangerous fevers, generated during their passage from Ireland. In the details which are given us of the management of the hospital, great vigilance seems to have prevailed in every department, and at the same time a careful obser-

Digitized by Google

vance of œconomy in the various heads of expenditure. Forty-eight attendants were found to be sufficient for 400 sick, and this diminution, (from above 100, the number formerly employed) united to the disuse of the purveyor department altogether, produced a saving of 2500*l.* per annum to government.

The author's exertions in the public service do not, however, appear to have met with the approbation of his superiors; and the third part of his work is devoted to an examination of the management of the hospital of the army depôt, in consequence of some reflections thrown against it in an official letter from the army board to the Secretary at War. In this letter Dr. Jackson is charged with having carried a regard to œconomy too far, and with having employed too debilitating a plan of regimen and medicine, which gave rise to great mortality, frequent relapses, and tedious recoveries, with a debilitated state of the patients. A board of army physicians acquitted him of those charges, and considerable pains are taken by the author to shew,

"— that the hospital of the army depôt, while under his management, stands on advantageous ground, in point of mortality in similar diseases with the same hospital at other periods, or with other hospitals in other places. The cure also appears, by good testimony, to have been equally perfect as in the periods preceding or following. The time required for cure not more than half of what it was in the period which immediately succeeded his suspension from medical duty, or which preceded his appointment."

An appendix, as large as the body of the work, is occupied with an account of the principles which the author has adopted in explaining the action of causes in the production of fevers, and the action of remedies employed in their cure. From this part of his work we shall make a few abstracts, in order to shew his principal peculiarities of opinion and practice; but it may be observed, that his doctrines on this subject do not now appear for the first time before the public.

Health, or the proper performance of the various functions of the body, depends upon a certain harmony, or as the author chuses to call it *rhythm* (ρυθμα) *of movement* in animal bodies. On the phænomena of life, and in many other parts of his reasoning, he adopts, in some measure, the principles of Brown, though with a modified language.

"The expression of life, or animal action, may be considered as a forced condition.—The nature of the radical quality in which it consists is not known; but the expression of it is visibly called forth by the application of peculiar and appropriate causes. Its manifestation is thus the effect of stimulation. A pause of rest is the cause of action; for it is a fundamental law of nature, that whatever is moved to action by stimulation tends to rest when the action, the effect of the stimulation, is produced. Thus, as action is the consequence of stimulation, and a tendency to rest the consequence of an action completed, alternate action and rest, however varied in period, necessarily follow each other, while the cause and condition of organization preserve their relations. A certain rhythm of movement is, consequently, a condition inseparable from a living animal body; as the integrity of the order and force of that rhythm is the index of health. But as movement is an expression of the presence of life, and rhythmical movement an expression of health, so the mode of health is liable to be perverted, the motions of the machine to be even finally arrested or annulled. The scale of the deranged modes is extensive; and as the modes are various, though errors, they have their train of errors, and their productive effects variously multiplied and combined."

"A change in the rhythm of movement is the first visible, even supposable step of action, arising from the operation of the causes of fever. Such derangement seems to proceed either from the application of powers, which are in their own nature stimulant of the ordinary movements of health, erring by excess or defect of just quantity, or from the application of new and extraneous matter, stimulant in their nature, but subversive of natural movement—both in time and force, productive of new and artificial action in the minutest circle of organization, communicated to combined organs, and manifested in the operations of functions. This new action originates in the application of a new material; the effect corresponds with quantity and quality, and condition of subject to which the application is made. This last requires a minute consideration in forming an estimate of effect, for it seems to be the principal circumstance which modifies the expression of symptoms. Action is supposed, in all cases, to be in proportion to the force of the stimulating power, and the capacity of the excitable organ. This has different conditions or capacities,—different degrees of facility or difficulty in manifesting action.—The facility in excess may be termed irritability, the difficulty torpor. The constitution varies radically, that is, constitutionally in different subjects; and it varies in the

Digitized by Google

same subject, according to differences of accidental circumstances."

Atmospherical air is stated to be the common stimulant to animal bodies, and various alterations of action, in producing disease, are supposed by the author to arise from "inexplicable deviations in the proportions and conditions of the elements of the atmosphere, and from various extraneous matters enveloped or suspended in it."

Irritation seems to be the derangement which accompanies fever, and this appears to be the effect of a variety of causes possessing an irritative power, supposed to offend from excess in quantity, or from nature of quality." The author admits, however, that where contagion is generated in close confined places, though it is calculated "to produce irritated motions," and possesses "the quality of irritating as a cause," that the condition of the subject, as affected by the vitiated air, "seems not to obey the impulse."——As the natural harmony which exists in health is interrupted in fever, or as fever consists in a rhythm of movement, irregular in time and force, the restoration of this rhythm is necessarily the restoration of health. But previously to attempting to restore the harmony of movement, by the application of causes calculated to excite motions analogous to those of health, the author considers it as often necessary to arrest the irregular course of the existing motions.—Bleeding and emetics are two of the most powerful means in use for this purpose, and when by them the diseased motions have been arrested, the pure air of the atmosphere is often sufficient to solicit the organic structure to resume its natural action. But when this fails, he attempts to give origin to an action, similar to that of health, by alternate warm and cold bathing, which, preceded by bleeding, furnishes, he asserts,

"—a safe and effectual cure for a form of fever, which destroys life occasionally in every country; but which has committed dreadful ravages among Europeans, particularly among European soldiers in tropical climates. The remedy is comprehended in the means now mentioned; but the effect depends on the management. A scanty bleeding rarely prepares the condition prescribed for the application of the means; and, unless the condition be duly prepared, the effect is looked for in vain."

Very ample observations are made on the mode of employing blood-letting, the cold bath, and some other remedies of smaller importance, but for those we must refer to the work itself, only observing, that though we pay great deference both to the experience and the abilities of the author, we have occasionally some difficulty in admitting the correctness of his reasoning, and have much hesitation in assenting to the very liberal use which he makes of the lancet.

ART. I.. *Facts and Observations concerning the Prevention and Cure of Scarlet Fever; with some Remarks on the Origin of acute Contagions in general. By* W. BLACKBURNE, *M. D.* 8vo. pp. 166.

FEW of the inquiries of modern times have led to more interesting, or more beneficial results, than those which relate to contagion. The nature of this agent, which is so much and so deservedly the object of alarm, has hitherto eluded the most zealous, and the most careful research; but though we are not enabled to discover what it is, or even to demonstrate by chemical analysis its existence, much less the parts of which it is composed, yet the industry of some modern philosophers has been able to discover many of the laws by which it is regulated. We have read, with much satisfaction, the observations contained in the treatise now before us, and regard them, as not only confirming some of the valuable remarks which have been made by other writers on the subject of contagion, but as enlarging considerably our knowledge of the operation of this agent, particularly as it relates to scarlet fever. This disease has long been a particular object of attention with the author, but within these two or three years he has had more frequent opportunities of observing collectively its nature and progress, than at any previous period. It has hitherto been generally the custom, where scarlet fever has shewed itself in a public seminary, to break it up; and if, on the other hand, one child of a family was attacked by this disease, it has been usual to send off the others to school, in order that they might be removed from the influence of the contagion; both those

Digitized by Google

measures, the author has clearly proved to be extremely injurious. When a school is broken up, the individuals composing it have a chance of carrying the infection to their respective homes, and of thus widely disseminating a subtile and insidious poison. When a family is separated, an equal risk occurs of its being transported far beyond its first limits, and of its thus extending the scene of its ravages. To prevent those direful effects, the author strongly recommends, that whenever the disease shews itself in a school, those affected with it should be kept perfectly separated from the others, in apartments appropriated to their reception, and not allowed to mix with their companions till a considerable period after their convalescence. In a private family the same plan should be adopted. Intercourse with the other branches of it should be strictly prohibited, until the disease has not only gone off, but till the danger of its being propagated from the convalescent subject has ceased. How soon there is no risk of such propagation has not yet been accurately determined; but the author is convinced that the danger exists long after it has been supposed to cease, and has known instances of infection taking place after the 10th day. The dispersion of individuals, who are not apparently affected with the disease, is always done at some risk to those with whom they may afterwards associate, if sufficient time does not intervene between their exposure to the contagion and the period of their mixing with healthy subjects, to determine whether there may not be some latent seeds of it existing in them. The author, therefore, conceives it a duty which parents and the heads of seminaries owe to the public, to do their utmost to prevent the propagation of this serious complaint, which can only be effectually done by secluding the infected till they cease to be capable of disseminating contagion, and by taking care not to send out children who may have been exposed to its influence till there is a perfect assurance that they have been able to resist it.

The occurrence of scarlatina in a large family, and in a numerous school, afforded the author very favourable opportunities of ascertaining several important circumstances relating to this disease.—In the former case, he ascertained, that convalescents from scarlet fever are capable of communicating it for ten days, or a further period, not yet precisely defined, after their perfect recovery; and that it may be suppressed in its commencement by an emetic, or the affusion of cold water, but that the person who thus escapes its full formation is liable to be reinfected. The success which attended the complete separation of the affected or suspected cases, in the public school, convinces the author that measures of prevention are always practicable, and should at all times be carried into effect. At this school there were sixty-four scholars, of whom only twenty took the complaint, and none of the family, the assistants, or servants. On the other hand, out of forty ladies at a boarding-school at Chester, as mentioned by Dr. Haygarth, where similar precautions were not taken, only four escaped the complaint, twelve had it very severely, and two most dangerously.

With regard to the identity of the origin of scarlatina and malignant sore throat, a point which has been very much the subject of discussion, the author ascertained satisfactorily, from the histories of both the sets of cases above-mentioned, that the primary sources of contagion were the same in each, and that

"Every form of angina contagiosa, or scarlatina, was exhibited in them, some with angina alone, others with angina and eruption combined, others with eruption only."

The contrary doctrine has, in the author's opinion, produced disadvantages in two ways.

"1st. Common cases of scarlatina, having been supposed to belong to a mild and safe class of diseases, have been treated with too little attention in ordinary practice. It is true, that a very great majority of patients recover from scarlet fever, yet it must be allowed, on the other hand, that general anasarca, tumid glands, hectic fever, cough, and sometimes dysenteric symptoms, are the too frequent consequences of the imperfect cure of scarlatina. 2dly. It being generally presumed, that the same contagion does not in one instance produce eruption, and in another ulcerated throat only, among the members of the same family where scarlet fever is present, the state of the throat is too often not adverted to in proper time."

The general treatment of scarlatina, Dr. Blackburne conceives, should

"— be grounded upon the knowledge of its source, and its debilitating propensity.—But at the same time that this is acknowledged to be the true complexion of it in an enlarged and general sense, yet where such

various degrees of morbid affection take place, general rules cannot be laid down with propriety, or carried into effect with success in every instance. The practitioner is therefore bound to exercise his own discrimination in individual cases, and proportion his mode of prescription to the degree and the form in which the disease individually appears. The too early exhibition of tonics and cordials is equally pernicious with profuse and excessive evacuations. For this reason I object to the indiscriminate use of strong antimonial emetics, which commonly induce too great a degree of debility, where the tendency to it is inherent in the disease itself, and the inflammatory symptoms extremely transient, even in the robust and adult subject. There are two indications to be answered by emetics in this disease, corresponding with the different stages in which they are administered. In the first stage, the great good effect of an emetic is to restore obstructed perspiration, which is of the greatest consequence in mitigating and shortening the febrile period in this particular disease. In more advanced periods, where this has not been done, an emetic, if not too long deferred, will excite perspiration, and will also act mechanically in cleansing the throat, discharging the sloughs, and inducing a more active and healthy secretion in the glands and neighbouring secreting surfaces. In neither of these instances are violent emetics required. Mercurial or drastic purges are liable to the same objection. The plan, which I adopted with general success in Mr. E.'s school, will be found equally safe and efficient in a great majority of mild incipient cases. My general intention was to diminish the violence of fever by gentle evacuations, by relaxing the skin, inducing moisture, and after this, by an early assumption of moderate tonics and nutritives, to prevent the access of great weakness during the actual presence of the disease, and by protracting the use of more powerful tonics and a full diet over the convalescent state, to guard against the approach of the ordinary consequences of scarlatina, viz. anasarca, &c. This mode of practice, like every other, must be appropriated to the peculiar habit and circumstances of the patient—those of robust and plethoric constitutions require a shorter continuance of, and less powerful tonics, than those of a contrary frame; but no constitution ought to be allowed to struggle unassisted through the disease itself, or through the convalescent state. If the milder instances of scarlatina demand the physician's vigilant eye, to prevent future ills, where no immediate danger threatens, the severer instances of this pestilence, where affection of the throat constitutes most urgent degrees of hazard, require his utmost solicitude and skill. The insidious progress of ulceration in the organs of deglutition has been permitted too often to rob an afflicted family of a valuable parent, or the tender parent of a much-beloved child, even where the full manifestation of scarlet efflorescence has given, though too late, undoubted proof of the existence of the nature of the malady."

"It will be a good rule, therefore, to proportionate early and seasonable medical exertions to the seat of ulceration in angina contagiosa, remembering, that the most hazardous situations, and which require the most prompt and uninterrupted assistance, are those immediately concerned in the act of deglutition, and are so near to the larynx and trachea, as to afford a ready path of communication to those organs, which are essential to life."

In such cases the author has found it necessary to recommend

"The exhibition of wine or negus*, with bark and the mineral acids, to be taken alternately with strong soup, every hour or two, in proportion to the advancement of the ulcer, the debility of the patient, &c. for eight and forty hours in succession, or three days and nights without intermission, if occasion requires. Life has been saved by these extraordinary efforts, which otherwise must have been lost."

The author disapproves of the method recommended by Dr. Withering, of treating this complaint by the frequent administration of strong antimonial emetics, which have too great a tendency to weaken the patient.

Towards the conclusion of the first part of this treatise, the author inquires into the modes by which infection is generally introduced into the human body, which must be either by simple contact, inoculation, or inhalation. The first is considered by him, from a multiplicity of facts, as insufficient for the purpose. The second is voluntary, and on that account not applicable to the question. The third is therefore the only way in which contagion can be propagated; and consequently to guard against its communication, by the respiratory organs, is the most simple, intelligible, and practical means of prevention which can be adopted.

The second part of this work is on the subject of contagion in general. Since it has been discovered that the progress

* "Negus, of the following composition, forms a very pleasant and grateful beverage for the patient. Wine, eight parts; water, four parts; lemon juice, one part; sugar, a sufficient quantity, or none, according to the taste of the sick."

Digitized by Google

of contagion may be interrupted by the interdiction of intercourse with the infected, it becomes an object of personal and public policy, that this easy mode of effectually subduing a source of disease, should be completely carried into effect.——The author, therefore, with much philanthropy, views the subject in the most enlarged scale, and considers this information as capable of being applied most extensively to every contagious disease. The more varied and extensive application of the laws of quarantine, is all that is required to subdue with as much effect the contagion of scarlatina, as that of plague.

"Be it well imprinted on every one's mind," says he, "that all infectious diseases are pests, only inferiour in the rapidity, the degree, and the urgency of their consequences, to that surnamed the plague, from its supposed pre-eminent fatality. Patience, firmness, and perseverance, as in all other instances of evidently promoting public advantage, will gradually overcome prejudice, unreasonable fears, and selfish opposition*. In proportion as plans of prevention become more known and more practised, the great ends of their adoption will be more easily attained, and their beneficial tendency more fully comprehended. The contagion of typhus, small-pox, and scarlet-fever, being known to be capable of complete intervention and local extinction, the transition from controlling these forms of contagion to that of repressing others, as hooping cough, measles, &c. will appear easy and practicable."

It may be said, however, that every species of infection must have had its origin, and that the same causes which originally gave it birth may reproduce it under similar circumstances. But even in this point of view it appears to the author, that immediate measures of prevention will always be productive of great advantage, compared with the consequences which ensue, where no precautions are used. The argument in favour of universal prevention would, however, be irrefragable, if the principal sources of contagion could be discovered, and be then capable of being obviated or removed. With the hopes of throwing some light upon a subject which has hitherto been considered as too obscure to admit of elucidation, the author employs considerable pains, and some ingenuity, in attempting to discover the origin, and trace the rise of contagious diseases. Of his ideas on this part of his subject, we shall, therefore, proceed to give a general abstract.

Certain exhalations, or marsh miasmata, as they are usually termed, have the peculiar effect of inducing fever on human bodies, exposed in certain circumstances to their influence, and hence these exhalations should, in the author's opinion, more properly be called, paludal febrilizing gases. The effluvia from febrile animal bodies, and the exhalations from marshes, swamps, and mud, are considered by him as gases of a peculiar composition, of which hydrogen or the principle of humidity, forms an essential part. But the opinion entertained by him on this subject does not appear to be supported by adequate evidence. He admits that the precise composition of pyrexial gases, whether contagious, limose, or palludous, has not been discovered, but from a great number of facts, considers it evident, "that an aqueous constituent is essential to the composition of both."

"In the citations," he continues, "already extracted to prove the effect of marsh miasmata, it has been amply demonstrated, that dampness, moisture, or humidity, is always an indispensable ingredient in the exhalations which induce fever. But another very important truth is also now, I believe, for the first time, brought to light, that, by depriving the pyrexial gases of their aqueous or hydrogenous principle, *they are, for the time, annihilated. That, upon this sole principle, we are enabled to account for the well-known fact, that extreme additions or abstractions of caloric or heat, arrest the progress, or destroy the existence of all epidemic and contagious diseases.*"

It seems difficult to determine whether the author applies his reasoning to hydrogen in a separate or combined state. If in a combined state, in the form of aqueous vapour, it can only be supposed to be the medicum in which the contagion is carried; if in a separate, the

* "A business of this kind will go on but slowly, and sometimes seem to have a final stop put to it, not only from its magnitude, but from indolence, prejudice, interest, envy, and wrongheadedness. This common fate of all great and new undertakings should never discourage the adviser from persevering; for every useful truth, fairly laid before the world, however it may seem, at first, to be slighted, will gradually undermine the old errours, and, in time, prevail over all opposition."

"See the late Dr. Heberden's letter, annexed to the second edition of the Enquiry how to prevent Small-pox."

Digitized by Google

addition or abstraction of heat from a permanently elastic vapour does not seem to be capable of annihilating it.—No facts have been brought forward to prove, that hydrogen gas possesses any such deleterious properties as those which the author ascribes to it, and, if it is only supposed to be a *part* of a poisonous compound, we are still in the dark with regard to the other, and perhaps the most necessary ingredients.

The exhalations or gases above-mentioned, seem to be capable of producing simple fever, which, by exposure to "accumulated febrilized animal effluvia," are supposed to be converted into contagious fever, and thus rendered adequate to propagate each other. All contagious diseases are thus supposed to arise originally from similar causes, and the peculiar differences by which the various species of contagious diseases are distinguished, are conjectured to proceed from accidental circumstances, as eruptions of various kinds, with which the original simple disease may have been combined.

Specific contagions are thus supposed to be transmitted propria forma,

"—from one subject to another, on similar principles with which hereditary diseases, peculiar constitution, similitude of temper and person, are conveyed from parents to children. The process of previous animalization is equally inexplicable in both."

ART. LI. *An Introduction to Electricity and Galvanism; with Cases, shewing their Effects in the Cure of Diseases. To which is added, a Description of Mr. Cuthbertson's electrical Machine. By* J. C. CARPUE, *Surgeon; being the Substance of Lectures delivered to his anatomical Class.*

IT is seldom that outlines of lectures can do more than give the reader an idea what the lectures themselves would be, or afford some instruction to him who would wish to repeat the experiments exhibited in the lecture-room. In this point of view the small volume before us, and the plates that accompany it, may assist the student. The cases to which the author has applied electricity as a cure of disease, are detailed more at large, and with apparent accuracy and candour. We shall give two of them.

"Deafness.

"A young lady of scrophulous habit had been deaf three years; she could not hear, so as to hold a conversation. I threw sparks on the mastoid process, and round the meatus auditorius externus, and drew them from the same parts of the opposite side with my fingers, twenty times a day for three weeks, when she could hear perfectly well.

"A gentleman, aged fifty, had been deaf nine months; I electrified him eight times, when he recovered.

"A gentleman had been deaf six months; could not hear me speak at a yard distance. I electrified him the first day twenty minutes (as in the first case); he could now hear me at twenty yards distance. I continued to electrify him every day for three weeks, and he gradually recovered.

"Opacity of the Cornea.

"A girl, aged six years, had an opacity of the corneæ of both eyes, in consequence of the small pox, which was so considerable that you could not observe the pupil; she could tell when a candle was brought into the room, but could not distinguish objects; she had been in this state two years; the usual applications had been tried. I drew the aura with a wooden point from the parts affected ten minutes a day for fourteen days, continuing the applications without any visible effect; during this time the electricity did not give any pain, but on continuing it the parts became very irritable, much pain being occasioned by the fluid. I now observed a visible alteration; the girl began to distinguish objects, and by the end of three months a cure was nearly effected. I now electrified the eyes occasionally, and at the end of six months she was perfectly recovered. I have had other successful cases of opake cornea, though I have been unsuccessful in many. I have observed that those opacities occasioned by the small-pox yield more readily to electricity than those occasioned by other causes."

We have preferred these cases, as the benefit received was palpable, and not liable to be exaggerated by any influence of the patient's imagination.

ART. LII. *An Essay on the Medical Application of Electricity. By* JOHN BIRCH, *Esq. Surgeon Extraordinary to his Royal Highness the Prince of Wales, and one of the Surgeons to St. Thomas's Hospital.* 8vo.

THIS decided testimony to the importance of electricity in the cure of diseases, was inserted many years ago in Mr. Adams's treatise on electricity, and is now published separately. We therefore only notice it to introduce an obser-

Digitized by Google

vation which the author makes in the preface: "I am sorry to be under the necessity of saying that, though I have with great pains endeavoured to establish a regular practice of this useful branch of surgery at St. Thomas's hospital, I could never prevail. This may be owing to the many objects of study which present themselves to the pupils during the short time of their residence in London, and which prevent them from attending so much to this part of surgery, as I earnestly wish they would. An operation is more often admired, than a cure by any other means, as it is at once splendid and lucrative. I am therefore obliged to limit the hospital practice to particular cases, which I attend to myself, because I can so seldom prevail on a young student to take the necessary pains which are required to become an able electrician."

If it is a real fact, that not a single young man can be found in this school of medical art, sufficiently skilled in the easiest part of electricity, to be trusted with applying it medically, we need not wonder at the apathy and reluctance to try the most promising experiments, which we so often find to stand in the way of improvement. When the age for education is passed, the most frequent resource of ignorance is then an affected contempt for the branch of knowledge where the deficiency is felt, or an equally affected dread of all innovation.

ART. LIII. *A Dissertation on the Bit Noben, or Fœtid Salt of the Hindoos, the Sal Indus Antiquorum, commonly known in Hindostan by the Name of Khalla Neemuck; with Remarks on the Cherayta of the Hindoos, the Kusseb Uzzereereh of the Arabians, the Calamus Aromaticus Antiquorum. By* JOHN HENDERSON, *of the Bengal Medical Establishment.*

WITH a great display of oriental erudition, and a long motto in the Persian character on the title page, which we are not able to translate, this pamphlet gives but little real information on the two articles of pharmacy which the author professes to describe.

The Bit Noben appears to be one of the commonest salts in India, and has been employed from time immemorial by the natives, as a sovereign remedy for a vast number of complaints. Its external appearance is in brown irregular lumps; to the taste it is salt and sulphureous. All that the author knows, or chooses to tell about its chemical properties, is included in the following imperfect account:

"When dry, the salt has scarcely any perceptible smell, but when moistened, it emits a strong sulphureous fœtid odour. It dissolves readily in a small proportion of water, forming a solution of a greenish colour, which has been found, by experiments, to possess all the properties of the Harrowgate or Aix-la-Chapelle waters. The solution emits a strong sulphureous smell, resembling bilge water, rotten eggs, or the foulest gun scourings, which goes off by exposure to the air. The solution soon deposits a little black sediment, which has been found by the application of the magnet to be oxid of iron. On the addition of a little vitriolic, muriatic, or nitric acid, the greenish colour is instantly destroyed. The vitriolic acid causes a slight effervescence, while the nitric acid produces a milky appearance without any effervescence whatever. Caustic potash restored the colour which had been destroyed by the muriatic and nitric acids; but, on adding it to the solution which contained the vitriolic acid, instead of a green it caused a brownish appearance, with an evident precipitation. A small quantity of extract of lead, poured into a fresh solution of the salt, caused a very copious precipitate. A silver spoon, laid over it, became discoloured in a short time. By exposure to the air, the greenish tint and fœtid smell gradually disappear, and the liquor becomes as clear as the purest water; and when this has taken place, on pouring out the liquor, the inside of the vessel is found to be lined with a film of sulphur.—A quantity of clear solution was evaporated in a china plate, by the heat of the sun, which left a number of cubical crystals, which, from the taste and other circumstances, appeared to be very pure muriate of soda, the neutral salt that predominates in the mineral waters of Aix-la-Chapelle, Harrowgate, Moffat, and indeed of almost all sulphurated springs."

After this the author concludes that the Bit Noben dissolved in water, would be a valuable and cheap substitute for these celebrated waters.

"Here, then, we have the neutral salt that impregnates these waters, and the sulphur in union with hydrogen, on which the efficacy of both the hot and cold sulphurated waters are in a great measure allowed to depend; and, what surprises the chemist, is the sulphurated hydrogen mostly uncombined. From the easy solution of the salt in water, and the sulphurated hydrogen being in such abundance, a water of any degree of strength, either of the gaseous or saline impregnation, may be prepared; the super sulphurated hot

Digitized by Google

waters of Aix-la-Chapelle may be imitated with equal facility as those of Harrowgate and Moffatt, by merely heating the water before the salt is added to it."

Mr. Henderson may indeed make a fœtid saline sulphureous liquor by means of this salt, but he ought to have known a little more of chemistry before he ventured to pronounce that "it really affords the means of imitating the sulphurated mineral waters, to much greater perfection than any process we are yet acquainted with."

The Bit Noben appears, by our author's account, to be an artificial preparation, or rather perhaps a native salt, which has undergone some preparation. It purges in moderate doses, and it seems to have the medicinal virtues which one would expect from a sulphureous saline purgative.

With regard to the Calamus Aromaticus, we are informed that it is a very pure bitter, without any aromatic flavour, and sold in the Indian markets for a trifle; but that Dr. Bruce, though he offered an hundred guineas for a fresh plant of it, could not obtain one, and was obliged to describe it from a dried specimen. After a long quotation from Prosper Alpinus, and one or two other writers, the author professes to put the controversy about it out of dispute, by giving Pomet's drawing of a bundle of the calamus, together with the plant that furnishes it; so that it does appear that Mr. Henderson himself never saw the fresh Calamus plant, any more than Dr. Bruce.

As the Indian Calamus is a pure bitter without aroma, we can hardly agree with the author that it would be a very valuable addition to our materia medica, so long as we can procure gentian or quassia.

It appears that a quantity of Bit Noben has been imported into this country, but has attracted very little notice. It certainly more deserves a trial than many new medicines, even than the boasted Lichen Islandicus.

ART. LIV. *An Account of the Discovery of the Power of Mineral and Acid Vapours to destroy Contagion. By* JOHN JOHNSTONE, *M.D.* 8vo.

IN the review of M. Guyton Morveau's treatise, in our former volume (page 813), we gave a short history of the discovery and application of the vapours of mineral acids to destroy contagion, and we there mentioned that the merit of being the first discoverer was undoubtedly due to the late Dr. James Johnstone of Worcester. The pamphlet before us is a short and satisfactory statement of the claims of Dr. Johnstone, given by his son Dr. John Johnstone; and as the value of the discovery must be felt by every impartial observer, and has been sanctioned by a national reward to a *supposed* inventor, we think it right to state it in the author's own words:

"In 1802, the report of the committee of the house of commons on Dr. C. Smyth's petition, states another sentence of Dr. Lind, "that a certain method of destroying infection in places whence persons cannot be removed, is a desideratum not yet obtained in physic. Many things had been proposed and tried, but without effect."

"Nearly fifty years before the framing of this report of the committee of the house of commons, a country physician had acquired eminence by the discovery of a certain method of destroying infection, which could be used with perfect convenience in the apartments of the sick. In 1758, Dr. James Johnstone published his 'Historical Dissertation concerning the malignant epidemical Fever of 1756, with some Account of the malignant Diseases prevailing since the year 1752, in Kidderminster.' In that dissertation, adopting the theory of the day, he proposes to keep the air free from putrefaction by the steams of vinegar; or, as a more effectual method, 'the marine acid may be raised very easily, by putting a certain quantity of common salt into a vessel, kept heated upon a chaffing dish of coals; if to this a small quantity of oil of vitriol is from time to time added, the air will be filled with a thick white acid stream.' It is fortunate for the fame of Dr. Johnstone, that this discovery was published at that time. He had used the mineral acid vapour to correct the contagion of putrid fever in his earliest practice. The advantage derived from it became so well known in Kidderminster, that the manufacturers, during the prevalence of fevers in that town, spontaneously placed the fuming vessels in their shops; and Dr. Johnstone continued to use the muriatic vapour in his extensive practice, to the last hour of his life; yet all this would have availed little, had it remained a mere matter of prescription. It would have been neglected or undervalued, and perhaps the practice and discovery altogether denied. I shall not dwell on these possibilities. It was published in 1758, as having been practised in 1756; and the book attracted so much notice, that the whole edition was quickly sold."

Digitized by Google

The truth of this statement is corroborated by further evidence.

"Mr. Crane, the present eminent and respectable surgeon in Kidderminster, is prepared to give the fullest testimony, that the muriatic acid vapour was so commonly used, when he settled in business, more than thirty years ago, that the manufacturers placed it spontaneously in their shops, when fever was apprehended; and that in malignant cases it was always ordered by my father. He remembers Mr. Cooper and Mr. Symonds, two old and eminent surgeons of Kidderminster, who were employed with my father in his earliest practice, to have frequently mentioned the discovery of muriatic vapour; and the use of it in the fever of 1756; and its continual use, when occasion called for it, from that period."

Nor had the confidence in the muriatic fumigation at all diminished in the county of Worcester during the time of Dr. Smyth's supposed original experiments, on which he founded his claim to national remuneration. Dr. Smyth, according to the evidence brought before the House of Commons, first used it in 1780. In 1779, Dr. James Johnstone, jun. in his Treatise on Sore Throat, expressly recommended the muriatic fumigation discovered by his father. In 1783, a malignant fever, which had broken out in Worcester gaol, was subdued by acid fumigation; and in 1784, it became the subject of public enquiry.

"In consequence of the alarm of the gaol fever, and a report that it had spread into several parts of Worcestershire, Sir Francis Buller wrote to my father in the beginning of 1784, desiring information of the state of Worcester gaol; and if there were any fever, or risque of infection, he would adjourn the ensuing Lent assize to Bromsgrove, or some other town in the county. There had been solitary instances of fever in the county gaol, and in the neighbourhood of Droitwich, towards the close of 1783; but there had been no peculiar symptoms of malignity in these cases; the judge was therefore encouraged not to adjourn the assize from the city of Worcester. My father was, however, desired to recommend measures of precaution; and in consequence the gaol was fumigated, the prisoners fresh cloathed, and the county hall was also fumigated during the whole of the assize. The event was favourable, no fever appeared.

"Shortly after, a malignant fever broke out in the workhouse of Kidderminster, and upwards of twenty persons were infected.—Upon this occasion my father was called in by the magistrate of that borough; he ordered the whole house to be fumigated with muriatic vapour, the patients to be washed with vinegar and water, and nice attention to be paid to cleanliness. By these means contagion was soon stopped, and my father received a vote of thanks from the inhabitants of that populous town."

The remainder of this pamphlet is occupied with the fullest and most irrefragable evidence, that not only the power of the muriatic acid is to all appearance fully equal to the nitrous, but that it can be employed with equal convenience to the patient, without producing cough, sense of suffocation, or any other uneasiness, provided it is managed with prudence and caution. The testimony given by M. Guyton Morveau, corroborates this fact; and we fully agree with Dr. Johnstone, that no valid evidence appears for giving the preference to the nitric acid. The superior diffusibility of the muriatic vapour, at a low temperature, will amply explain the reason why its effects should be more sudden, and should require a somewhat different management; but where the quantity of vapour is equal in a given space, both acids appear equally to destroy contagion, and to be equally safe to the patient.

Dr. Smyth cannot even claim the merit of *reviving*, but simply of extending with a trifling variation, a practice already well established in the centre of the kingdom by the most weighty and respectable authority: the reward has been his, let the honour, now posthumous, be paid to the memory of the real inventor.

ART. LV. *A second Treatise on the Bath Waters; comprehending their medical Powers in general, and particularly as they relate to the Cure of Dyspepsia, Gout, Rheumatism, Jaundice, and Liver Complaints, Chlorosis, Cutaneous Eruptions, Palsy, &c. By* GEORGE SMITH GIBBES, *M. D. F. R. S. late Fellow of Magdalene College, Oxford, Fellow of the Royal Medical Society, Edinburgh, &c.* 8vo. pp. 120.

DR. Gibbes has already distinguished himself as a chemist in the analysis of these celebrated waters. In the present treatise he describes all the medicinal powers that are attributed to them, and gives directions for their use. We do not find that Dr. Gibbes has thrown any real light on the modus operandi of these waters, or has made any other practical observations than have been already given by the different advocates for Bath. The whole is in the

style of eulogy, but the concurring testimony of numerous invalids who might hang up their votive crutches in the pump-room, in token of ameliorated health, will justify a considerable degree of zeal in such a cause.

ART. LVI. *A Treatise on Cheltenham Waters and Bilious Diseases. To which are prefixed, Observations on Fluidity, Mineral Waters, and Watering Places. By* THOMAS JAMESON, *M. D. Member of the Royal College of Physicians of London and Edinburgh, now resident Physician at Cheltenham.*

IT appears an established custom for a physician, on settling in any popular watering-place, to write a treatise on the spring, a chemical analysis of its water, general observations on bathing, air, exercise, and on all the diseases for which the spring is employed. Fortunately the materials for making a book of this kind are very abundant, and it requires no great exertion of talents or ingenuity to compose from them a treatise like the present.

One piece of information however will, we suppose, prove agreeable to the visitors of Cheltenham, which is, that Dr. Jameson has discovered a new spring similar in properties to the old well, and able to furnish more water than can possibly be used by any probable number of visitors.

ART. LVII. *Experiments and Observations on the Cortex Salicis Latifoliæ, or Broad Leaved Willow-Bark; illustrated by a coloured Plate. Interspersed with general Observations and Remarks on the different Species of the Cinchona, &c.; General History and progressive Introduction of the Salix Latifolia; with a Variety of Experiments, tending to elucidate its Properties; illustrated by Cases, demonstrating its superior Efficacy above the Cinchona in various Diseases, more particularly that Branch of the healing Art termed medical Surgery. By* G. WILKINSON, *Corresponding Member of the Medical Society of London, Licentiate of the Royal College of Surgeons, and Honorary Member of the Chirurgo-Physical Society of Edinburgh, and of the Literary Society of Newcastle-upon-Tyne.*

EVERY attempt to introduce into our materia medica any valuable indigenous vegetable is highly meritorious.—The salix alba, though already strongly recommended, has not met with the notice which it merits. Mr. James of Hoddesden, and Mr. White of Bath, have both published treatises on its virtues, and the present author adds an useful testimony to its febrifuge properties. He gives the following direction for gathering and preserving it.

"The most proper time of gathering the bark is in May, June, and until the middle of July, as after this period it is found to adhere so firmly to the tree, as not easily to be peeled off, neither does it appear so vigorous or juicy as I have found from experience. It should be cut into pieces not more than five inches in length, and the large thick bark to be one or two inches in breadth. This must be done when green, and then it should be dried in the house, in a place where no sun or fire comes. This renders it convenient and neat for stowage, or packing for carriage, dries it more regularly, and fits it for the mortar, either for decoction or infusion. That of a finer sort to be exhibited in substance, should it not be sufficiently dry for pulverising, may be exposed to a very gradual and moderate heat in an oven, which will facilitate its reduction into a very fine powder."

Decoction is the best mode of exhibition. Mr. Wilkinson's prescription is the following.

"FORMULA.

"R. corticis salicis latifoliæ sicati ℥iss, in pulverem crassum redige, et macera in aquæ fontanæ libris duabus per horas sex; deinde coque leni igne per quartam vel tertiam partem horæ, et cola pro usu. Capiat æger cochlearia duo vel tria larga decocti ter vel quater de die: sed febre intermittente, dare oportet unciam unam aut duas secundâ vel tertiâ quaque horâ absente paroxysmo.

"Of late I have in some cases of dyspepsia, combined with this decoction, a small portion of the *lignum quassiæ*, by boiling it with the bark. It may be tinctured more or less strongly with it, according to the intention of the prescriber, and I sometimes add to it a few drops of the *tinct. lavend. comp.* When thus tinged, it strongly resembles in taste the decoction of *cort. peruv.* This method has also been used by Mr. White. From various experiments, which will hereafter be detailed, I find that the decoction, above all other preparations, whether tincture, cold, or warm infusion, is much stronger, and more fit for medical purposes. I cannot speak from ex-

Digitized by Google

perience on its effects in powder, spirituous, or watery extract; but I strongly suspect it will be found much less efficacious and more uncertain in these last forms, exclusive of their being more expensive than the decoction."

It is to be observed, that the salix is simply astringent, and scarcely if at all bitter: the author endeavours to shew the superiority of the astringent or tanning principle in the cure of fever over that of bitterness; he gives a few comparative experiments on the antiseptic power of the salix in the manner of Pringle, compared with the cinchona and some other substances, and endeavours to ascertain the quantity of tannin in this bark by the sure test of animal jelly. In this last respect the willow stands very high in power, as indeed had before been proved by Mr. Biggins, in his experiments at Woburn, published about two years ago. It is evident, however, that bitterness is a most important auxiliary to astringency *in the cure of diseases*, which appears to have very little in common with the power of preserving dead animal fibre, and the salix is really defective, as a medicine, in not possessing any sensible bitterness. It is, however, easily remedied, by adding quassia or gentian, and this new formula deserves a place in every pharmacopœia pauperum.

ART. LVIII. *Manuel du Pharmacien, par* E. J. B. BOUILLON LA GRANGE, *Professeur aux Ecoles Centrales de Paris, & au College de Pharmacie, &c. &c.* 8vo. pp. 489.

WHILST other countries in Europe, in which medicine is the most cultivated, produce their own pharmacopœias every ten or twenty years, it is rather singular that in France a reform, confessedly so much wanted, is so tardy. The last edition of the Paris Codex was printed in 1758, and a great proportion of it, to judge by the nature of its contents, appears at least two centuries older.

The author, one of the most enlightened cultivators of pharmacy in Paris, has here attempted a plan of reform in some essential particulars, though encumbered with a heap of antiquated rubbish which he knows not how to get off his shoulders. His preface is modest, and remarkably conciliating to the practitioners in *medicine*, who in Paris are totally distinct from the pharmacians: "It is well known," he says, "that many prescriptions are antiquated, that new ones have been adopted, and that many which are retained are encumbered with useless substances. But who will pretend from his own authority to subtract an iota out of the articles of a compound? Has any one been yet able to apply any theory exactly suited to the action of a great number of preparations? Does any one know what is the result of the enormous mixture of substances which compose the Theriac, for example? Let us therefore respect them as long as they are retained in practice, and whilst we daily see the success with which they are attended."

However, as other nations have ventured to lay hands on these reliques of antiquity, and have actually reformed their pharmacopœias, the author, rather than acknowledge that his countrymen are a little behind-hand in this salutary work, explains it by saying that the foreign practice must needs differ from the French, as neither the climate nor constitution of his countrymen will admit the drastics of Germany, nor the over-active remedies of the English.

The work before us, though bulky, contains in fact but a small portion of original matter, full five-sixths of it being a transcript of Beaumé, and the recipés of the Paris Codex. The most original part is (as may be supposed from the fashion of the times, and the well-known labours of M. La Grange) that which describes the pharmaceutico-chemical processes, and these are mostly very good and accurate. In fact, they are not original in this place, being taken from the most valuable (French) chemical works, and the former publications of the author. We shall, therefore, slightly run over the contents.

The first part of the volume is a pretty full materia medica, which requires no description.

The preparations themselves are next described in a useful order, taking first the simple substances, acids, alkalies, and those of the mineral kingdom; the vegetable kingdom follows, and engrosses the greater part of the work, for under *decoctions* are given all the individual prescriptions in Beaumé for ptisans and drinks of this kind; under *alcohols* are given all the tinctures, spirituous wa-

Digitized by Google

ters, &c.; and the like of the rest. The animal kingdom is described in the same way.

The last part is a catalogue of all the medicines, simple and compound, with a short character affixed to each. There is here what we should not have expected to find in a respectable book, the bill of some quack proprietor of a certain American elixir, printed at full length, which seems to rival Dr. Solomon's Balm of Gilead, or Dr. Sibly's Solar Tincture.

As a whole, M. La Grange's manual would hardly excite much interest in this country, but some of the observations on certain parts of pharmacy shew considerable skill and practice, and it is greatly to be attributed to the multiplicity of articles, and extreme variety of preparations in the French pharmacopœia, that the apothecaries in Paris have been some of the ablest chemists that have ever adorned the science, and have reflected honour on the whole country.

Among the more uncommon but useful articles in this collection, we find a description (with a plate) of a *spardrapier*, or machine to spread sticking-plasters; and a simple machine to roll and cut pills, which appears to have all the requisite qualifications for success, and we believe is actually used in London in some of the larger apothecaries or druggists' shops.

ART. LIX. *Pharmacopœia Collegii Regii Medicorum Edinburgensis.*

WHEN the eighth edition of the Edinburgh Pharmacopœia was published in 1792, it was received with the respectful attention due to the learned body who promulgated it; and as a rational, elegant, and simple code of pharmacy, it has for ten years maintained a distinguished rank over Europe.

The public will naturally enquire why, at so short an interval, it has now been thought necessary to introduce a new code, which, in its external aspect at least, differs so materially from that which is already established. A closer examination, however, will shew that the greater part of this difference is only in appearance; the real acquisitions to pharmacy have been but few during this period; and it is chiefly in nomenclature that the present edition requires our attention. However, as the "*denuo limatam auctamque*" is something more than a mere form of speech, we shall first very briefly point out the omissions and additions that strike us, and the improvements in the pharmaceutical processes.

The materia medica has undergone a further expurgation, and many articles of doubtful value or difficult to be proved, are expunged. When a pharmacopœia is considered, as it ought to be, simply as a direction to the apothecary what articles he is to keep in his shop, and how he is to compound them, a very great simplicity may be allowed of, and nothing should be admitted but what the physician may reasonably expect to meet with, not in every country village indeed, but in all towns where pharmacy is on a respectable footing. The college seem to have acted on this principle, otherwise we might think that they were sifting too close and throwing away good grain with the chaff, when they rejected such articles as the *absynthium, arum, asarum, curcuma, ginseng, oxalis acetosella, thymus-serpyllum*, and a few others of equal claims. The fate of the *lichen islandicus* is a little singular; in the edition of 1792 it was retained, in the present it is expunged; and, if it continues in fashion so long, in some future edition ten years hence, it must petition for readmittance, on the testimony of one or two entire pamphlets that have been written in its favour.

Unless we have looked over the catalogue too hastily, we find no additions to the materia medica; nor are any mentioned in the preface.

The pharmaceutical part remains nearly the same, except with some small variations in the chemical processes.

Among the sales and salina, the radical vinegar is very properly introduced, the process is that of (we believe) a M. Badolier, a French chemist, distilling the sulphate of iron with the acetite of lead: the nitrous acid is made with a greater portion of sulphuric acid, which prevents the fusion of the glass retort; the nitric acid is new, the supercarbonated potash and soda, and the hydro-sulphuret of ammonia are very important additions, the muriats of barytes and of lime less so, but certainly deserve their place.

The only addition that we can find to the metallic preparations is, the precipitated carbonate of iron: some varia-

Digitized by Google

ons occur in the preparation of one or wo of the mercurials, the tartar emetic, ic. but none of any great importance.

For the sake of uniformity, we suppose, the indications of the perfect causticity of potash have been omitted; it would have been equally uniform, and a very valuable addition, if a few directions had been added to each recipe to ascertain the purity of the preparation by chemical tests.

As we do not pretend to give an accurate comparison of the old and new editions, many smaller alterations and improvements may have escaped our notice; but, on the whole, they are certainly few, and from the specimen before us, we may fairly conclude that they are real improvements.

From the great and increasing consumption of the artificial mineral waters, these valuable preparations, which are strictly pharmaceutical, and in no degree concealed by empiricism, might perhaps have deserved some notice.

Was it an oversight to omit prescribing the use of Woulfe's apparatus, in making the caustic ammonia, or is the distillation of the water from the alkaline materials the method actually employed?

The change of nomenclature, as we have before mentioned, is very extensive, for, besides smaller corrections, all the terms of the chemical preparations have been reformed from the new nomenclature, latinized, as in Dr. Pearson's tables; and all the appellations of the vegetable materia medica have received the Linnæan or approved systematic names. On the former class the following very candid and temperate observations are given in the preface. "Gravior autem labor nos haud parum moratus est, in describendis variis præparatis & compositis quæ inter medicamenta recensentur. Hæc omnia propositum fuit iis solis nominibus definire quæ jam apud optimos hujus sæculi chemicos invaluerunt. Horum sermo novus & quasi proprius, etsi nondum omnibus suis numeris & partibus absolutus, tamen ad scientiæ usus videtur accommodatissimus, et adeo necessarius, ut non dubitemus eum, ut jam a junioribus receptus est, ita ab omnibus medicis & medicamentariis brevi receptum iri. Horum sermo in re medicamentariâ olim receptus, non alius erat quam vetus chemicus: igitur, ut nobis videtur, æquum est eum medicinâ exulare qui jam in chemiâ prorsus obsolevit."

The merits and defects of the modern chemical nomenclature have long been before the public, its value is generally acknowledged, and the elegant simplicity and facility of acquirement have deservedly rendered it the vernacular tongue of chemists in every part of Europe. The principle of including a definition in every term, has however made it, in many parts, cumbersome and verbose, and we must say, that in the present instance, examples of this defect are occasionally occurring, notwithstanding the pains which, we are told in the preface, are taken to avoid it. Was there no other way of informing the physician or apothecary how the crocus of antimony is made, than by compelling him to call it, the *oxidum antimonii cum sulphure per nitratem potassæ*: or litharge, the *oxidum plumbi semivitreum*?

We have however another, and, we think, a weightier objection to urge against the unlimited use of the present nomenclature. As long as medicines are prepared from the *written* prescriptions of physicians, the errors that attend various, and often hasty writings, must be taken into account; and the consequence of these errors will be, not a failure in some chemical experiment, the waste of a few ounces of acid or alkali, and a few hours or days' labour, but perhaps a violent disease produced on a fellow-creature already suffering; perhaps, even a sudden and painful death; and to the prescriber, an unmerited loss of reputation, and incalculable anxiety. Therefore it is, that the names given to powerful medicines should be as clear, precise, and distinct as possible, similar to no other, and religiously preserved to that and to no other preparation. These dangers are not imaginary; we know a valuable life nearly sacrificed to the unfortunate resemblance between *nitrum* and *natron*; we know an only child destroyed by an unhappy error of the sign for *ounce* instead of that for *dram*; we could procure well authenticated instances of calamitous accidents arising from the similarity between *tinctura opii* and *tinctura opii camphorata*; *hydrargyrus muriatus*, and *hydrargyrus*; *muriatus mitis acidum vitriolicum*, and *acidum vitriolicum dilutum*, and other such unfortunate specimens of ill-judging adherence to systematic reform. Could not the same prudent caution which

Digitized by Google

prescribed an uniformity in weighing and measuring medicines, have made the written signs of those measures somewhat less liable to mistake? How could the superintending care of the college expunge the familiar term calomel, and allow it to differ only by a small particle from the equally unpractised name given to corrosive sublimate? What practitioner will not tremble to order for an infant two grains of the *sub-murias hydrargyri*, when the same quantity of the *murias hydrargyri* will produce inevitable destruction in the severest agonies.

We therefore still think a reform is wanting in a few essential points; and we should hope that the system of *security* will in time come to be considered as the leading principle in an art in which the preservation of human life is so deeply interested.

ART. LX. *Researches into the Properties of Spring Water; with Medical Cautions (illustrated by Cases), against the Use of Lead in the Construction of Pumps, Water-Pipes, Cisterns, &c. By* WILLIAM LAMBE, *M. D. late Fellow of St. John's College, Cambridge.* 8vo. pp. 204.

THIS treatise is dedicated with peculiar propriety to Sir G. Baker, whose valuable paper on the same subject long ago directed the public attention to the baneful effects of the poison of lead, introduced slowly and insidiously into the system, by forming a part of a common daily beverage.

Dr. Lambe pursues the subject much farther, and his assertions, if well founded, would lead us to suspect almost every liquid article of diet which has been prepared by water that has ever been in contact with lead in any form. Two points therefore are to be made out, the one the existence of lead in all common waters, as generally employed; the other, a just discrimination of the symptoms which may fairly be supposed to arise from this poison. The author first considers the latter of these.

It is evident that the proof required of a very extensive use of poisoned water will be, to discover some disease equally extensive, the progress of which bears an exact ratio with the prevalence of the morbid cause. Individual cases will not suffice, nor will it be enough to alledge peculiar susceptibility of constitution, if the supposed morbid symptoms can only be very partially detected; the analogy of all other metallic poisons or medicines, points out so great an uniformity in their operation on the human body, that there is no reason to suppose it would fail in this instance. The following is a case in point.

"However minute may be the quantity of noxious matter taken up by most waters, I am persuaded, that in most cases it is enough to have a sensible influence on tender and delicate habits. As far as I can conjecture by the appearance with precipitants, there are very few waters more pure in themselves, than those of the Priory pools, which supply the water-works of the town of Warwick; and few which are less tainted by passing through the leaden pipes. The distance from the town is not a quarter of a mile, and many of the pipes are still of wood. I cannot attribute any serious illness to the use of these waters alone; though I must confess that my attention, till within this last year and half, not having been directed to this point, many facts illustrative of the question may have escaped me. But in one family, which has now used no other than these waters for four years, three young ladies may be suspected to have received injury from them. One has, during the last two years, become much thinner, and has frequently slight pains of the bowels: all have lost their colour and the healthiness of their complexion; and one has repeatedly regained the freshness of health, by occasional absence from the town. How soon it vanishes on her return home has been already mentioned. All this would not be called disease, strictly speaking; but it would probably terminate in disease of the most serious nature, if the cause were neglected or misunderstood.

"The great minuteness of the dose is in part compensated by the very abundant use which is made of the vehicle of the poison. Besides drinking it pure, we use it hourly in our tea and coffee, in our beer and our domestic wines. It enters into our bread, and many of the preparations used at our tables. It were idle to enumerate all the ways in which we are constantly receiving it. When we employ water in our kitchens for boiling our food, a portion adheres to, and is probably absorbed by the meat, and by the vegetables, in abundance."

If the whole town of Warwick had for many years been receiving this slow poison, could the author have found only three young ladies as sufferers from its ravages?

The application of the author's hypothesis to this metropolis is still more vague.

Digitized by Google

"The metropolis of the kingdom is, I apprehend as much, if not more interested in the object of this inquiry, than any other town in Europe. The Thames and New River are the principal sources from which this great city is supplied with water. Neither of these waters are conducted through lead, except from a short distance through the small collateral branches, which convey it from the main pipes to the separate houses. In these the fluid stagnates, and I have found that small quantities of metallic matter are dissolved. There are other water-works for the convenience of particular parts of the town, but of what materials the pipes are formed I have not as yet learned.

"These pipes cannot be entirely harmless, though they convey water through such short distances. But the cisterns with which, I am told, almost every house is furnished, and also the apparatus for conveying it to separate apartments, which are very common in the better kind of houses, are what I suspect to be productive of infinitely greater mischief. These, I suppose, have been gradually extending and increasing in number, and the use of common pumps diminishing in the same proportion. Besides the scanty supply from pumps in so populous a place, and particularly in dry seasons, to keep them in repair, and renew them when decayed is attended with much expence, and with still greater trouble and inconvenience. On this account it may be expected that, where water can be procured by other means, common pumps will be gradually neglected, and fall into disuse. I ask then whether, through the whole of the last century, the use of the Thames, and particularly of the New River water, has not been increasing; and in consequence, whether there are not at present a greater number of cisterns, and fewer common pumps in the same proportion, than there were a hundred years ago?

"It appears that certain diseases have been increasing in London, through the last century, which, there is reason to think, would have diminished, if no new exciting cause had been introduced. The number of deaths classed under consumption, which in the beginning of the last century amounted annually to 3000, on an average of ten years, in the middle of the century amounted to 4000, and in the end to 5000. To obtain this average, those years were selected, in which the whole number of deaths were nearly equal. Now it must be acknowledged, that the most powerful exciting cause of this class of diseases, (for the meaning of the term must not be confined to the *phthisis pulmonalis*) in populous and profligate towns, is syphilitic disorders and their consequences. If these disorders have not been less frequent, still the treatment of them has been made much less severe than formerly, and the constitutions of great numbers are now preserved, which would have severely suffered under the harsh method of cure that was formerly universally practised."

Dr. Lambe goes on to make the same remark with regard to dropsy, palsy, and apoplexy; and the inference which he deduces is, that since we have a better mode of curing syphilis than formerly, which is one great cause of consumption, and since drunkenness, the great cause of dropsy, is decreased among the higher classes, and yet the diseases of consumption and dropsy continue to increase on the bills of mortality, some other cause must be assigned for these disorders; and this cause may possibly be the habitual introduction of minute quantities of lead into the system.

This hypothetical reasoning is carried still further.

"There is a disease, endemial in northern countries, which the Scotch call vulgarly the *water-brash*: it is the *pyrosis suecica* of Sauvages, or simple *pyrosis* of Cullen. Linnæus asserts, that one half of the inhabitants, male and female, of the Lapland mountains are afflicted with it. English physicians meet with it so seldom, that we scarcely hear its name mentioned; nor have I ever observed it, except it be in this and one other case, which I believe to be saturnine. The description given of it by Cullen so perfectly resembles the case I have just related, and the general course of the pains excited by lead, that I cannot but suspect that its origin must be sought for in the action of this poison. It is described by him as a pain at the pit of the stomach with a sense of constriction, as if the stomach were drawn towards the back, it brings on an eructation of a thin watery fluid. It is often very severe, and more usually comes on when the stomach is empty; when it has once taken place, it is ready to recur occasionally for a long time after; finally, no treatment has been found serviceable, except relieving the pain by opium. In all these points, the analogy between this and saturnine disease is striking and obvious.

"That, in the *pyrosis* the action of the poison is peculiarly determined to the stomach is perhaps owing to the qualities of the vehicle, in which it is applied. What then is this vehicle? I can conjecture no other than the spirits distilled from oats, which is called whisky, in the use of which the inhabitants of the northern countries are known greatly to indulge. This spirit, most probably, is frequently distilled through worms, of which lead is an ingredient. I apprehend, that if these impure spirits are used undiluted, the stomach will be affected with pain, which the intestines may escape.

"The Laplanders are likewise subject to colic pains of extreme severity. These they ascribe to certain worms, which are found

Digitized by Google

in the stagnant water, which they are obliged to drink in the summer months, when they quit the mountains, and inhabit the woody parts of their country. This disease terminates in a flow of saliva. It is known that lead occasionally excites a salivation like mercury. It is much more probable, that the colic is caused by the spirits used to correct the water than by these worms, or any bad quality of the water itself. The Laplanders, it is true, distil no spirits, their country hardly producing grain of any kind. But they are abundantly supplied by their neighbours, and so much attached to the use of strong liquors, that a bottle of brandy is the customary present, exacted daily from the young men by the fathers of their intended brides. The spirits that are used among this rude people, cannot be supposed to be prepared with the smallest attention to nicety."

It is not easy to find an example of hypothesis carried to a more extravagant length. An ordinary observer would suppose that the vehicles of the lead, the brandy and whisky, might have full as much share in disordering the stomach of these jovial Laplanders as the metallic poison, the very existence of which is purely hypothetical.

The following is one of the author's strongest cases; let our readers judge of its validity.

"In December, 1802, I visited Mrs. B—, the wife of a farmer, a person advanced in life. She had suffered pains of the bowels about eight years. The pain was of extreme severity, affecting the whole canal, and attacking in paroxysms. It was relieved by pressure on the abdomen. During the intervals there was always an uneasiness of the bowels. She was better after food than when the stomach was empty. There was no fever; the urine was pale, as in hysterical women.

"These paroxysms came on with such a violent tremor that three people were necessary to hold her. The attacks also left a tremor on her for some time. At my second visit I perceived a shaking of the head, which she had not when I first saw her. She had also in the beginning of the paroxysms an ejection of a watery fluid from the stomach, as in the disease called *pyrosis*.

"This disease I have no hesitation in pronouncing to be purely saturnine. The only way in which I can discover the poison to be introduced is by meat salted in a leaden trough. I shall prove in the sequel, that common salt dissolves lead very abundantly. Indeed I believe that there is a pretty general suspicion of the noxious qualities of these troughs, on which account they are much less used than formerly. This is one of the cases, where common observation has anticipated scientific enquiries, or, to speak more properly, is in contradiction to the deductions which have been hitherto formed from them."

The second part of this treatise contains the proofs of the existence of lead, derived from chemical analysis. The common mode of detecting it by sulphurated hydrogen, the author finds to be insufficient for the purpose, where the quantity is very minute; and he describes some improved methods, the chief of which is to make a more concentrated solution, by previously obtaining by an alkali, all the precipitable contents of any water, redissolving this in nitric acid, and *then* applying the test of hydro-sulphurated water. As we have considerable confidence in Dr. Lambe's chemical knowledge, we think that this method may fully answer the purpose, and many other chemical observations are added, which will be perused with pleasure.

Though we cannot agree with the author in the general obloquy which he would throw on a valuable metal, we acknowledge with pleasure the many useful hints that he gives on the varieties of the saturnine disease, and the means of additional security which he has furnished us. As this metal has already enough to answer for in the destruction of the human species, we should be sorry to be debarred from using it for so many important and domestic purposes to our daily convenience; but if our author's accusation were well founded, we could never regard it in any other light than that of a most insidious enemy, and could not think ourselves secure till we had entirely banished it from our houses.

ART. LXI. *The Edinburgh New Dispensatory; containing I. the Elements of Pharmaceutical Chemistry; II. the Materia Medica; or, the natural, pharmaceutical, and medical History of the different Substances employed in Medicine; III. the pharmaceutical Preparations and Compositions, including complete and accurate Translations of the octavo Edition of the London Pharmacopœia, published in* 1791; *Dublin Pharmacopœia, published in* 1794; *and of the new Edition of the Edinburgh Pharmacopœia, published in* 1803. *Illustrated and explained in the Language, and according to the Principles of modern Chemistry. With many new and useful Tables, and several Copper Plates,* ex-

Digitized by Google

plaining the New System of Chemical Characters, and representing the most useful pharmaceutical Apparatus. By ANDREW DUNCAN, *jun. M.D. Fellow of the Royal College of Physicians, and Royal Society of Edinburgh, and Associate of the Linnæan Society of London.*

The object of the present work is thus explained:

"Dr. Lewis published the first edition of his New Dispensatory in 1753. The principal part of the work was a commentary upon the London and Edinburgh Pharmacopœias, of both of which it contained a complete and accurate translation. A concise system of the theory and practice of pharmacy was prefixed as an introduction, and directions for extemporaneous prescription, with many elegant examples, and a collection of efficacious but cheap remedies for the use of the poor, were added as an appendix.

"The manner in which the whole was executed placed Dr. Lewis at the head of the reformers of chemical pharmacy; for he contributed more than any of his predecessors to improve that science, both by the judicious criticism with which he combated the erroneous opinions prevalent in his time, and by the actual and important additions he made to that branch of our knowledge. He was justly rewarded by the decided approbation of the public. During the author's lifetime many editions were published, each succeeding one being improved as the advancement of the sciences connected with pharmacy suggested improvements. After the death of Dr. Lewis, Drs. Webster, Duncan, and Rotherham, successively contributed to maintain the reputation of the work by taking advantage of the discoveries made in natural history and chemistry, and by making those alterations which new editions of the Pharmacopœia, on which it was founded, rendered necessary. From the place of their publication, and to distinguish them from the original work of Dr. Lewis, which was still reprinted in London, these improved editions were entitled the Edinburgh New Dispensatory. When the Edinburgh College some time ago determined to publish a new edition of their Pharmacopœia, the booksellers who purchased the copyright of that work, being desirous that it should be accompanied by a corresponding edition of the Edinburgh New Dispensatory, applied to the present editor to make the necessary alterations. This he readily undertook, and the number of alterations made will shew, that if he has not fulfilled what was expected from him, it has been owing to want of ability and not to want of exertion."

The purchasers of this every way valuable work will discover no want either of ability or exertion in the author; the whole is a complete well-executed system of pharmacy, excellently calculated both for practical use, and for the improvement of the learner. It ought to be kept in a drawer of every apothecary's shop.

The chemical part of pharmacy is that which has received the greatest additions, and a short sketch of general chemistry is prefixed.

Many smaller additions are inserted, which are real improvements. One of them is a list of those articles of materia medica excluded from the British colleges, but retained in some of the pharmacopœias of the continent.

The following short specimen will shew the manner in which the most important part of the work is executed.

"DIGITALIS PURPUREA. *Folia.* (Edin.)

"*Digitalis Folium.* (Lond. Dub.)

"Foxglove. The leaves.

"*Willd. g.* 1155. *sp.* 1. *Didynamia Angiospermia. Nat. ord. Solanaceæ.*

"This is an indigenous biennial plant, very common on hedge banks and sides of hills, in dry, gravelly, or sandy soils; and the beauty of its appearance has gained it a place in our gardens and shrubberies. The leaves are large, oblong, egg-shaped, soft, covered with hairs, and serrated. They have a bitter, very nauseous taste, with some acrimony.

"Its effects when swallowed are,

"1. To diminish the frequency of the pulse.

"2. To diminish the irritability of the system.

"3. To increase the action of the absorbents.

"4. To increase the discharge by urine.

"In excessive doses it produces vomiting, purging, dimness of sight, vertigo, delirium, hiccough, convulsions, collapse, death. For these symptoms, the best remedies are cordials and stimulants.

"Internally, digitalis has been recommended,

"1. In inflammatory diseases, from its very remarkable power of diminishing the velocity of the circulation.

"2. In active hæmorrhagies, in phthisis.

"3. In some spasmodic affections, as in spasmodic asthma, palpitation, &c.

"4. In mania from effusion on the brain.

"5. In anasarcous and dropsical effusions.

"6. In scrofulous tumours.

"7. In aneurism of the aorta, we have seen it alleviate the most distressing symptoms.

"Externally, it has been applied to scrofulous tumours. It may be exhibited,

"1. In substance, either by itself, or conjoined with some aromatic, or made into pills with soap or gum ammoniac. Withering directs the leaves to be gathered after the flow-

Digitized by Google

ering stem has shot up, and about the time when the blossoms are coming forth. He rejects the leaf-stalk and middle rib of the leaves, and dries the remaining part either in sunshine or before the fire. In this state they are easily reduced to a beautiful green powder, of which we may give at first one grain twice a day, and gradually increase the dose until it act upon the kidneys, stomach, pulse, and bowels, when its use must be laid aside or suspended.

"2. In infusion. The same author directs a drachm of the dried leaves to be infused for four hours in eight ounces of boiling water, and that there be added to the strained liquor an ounce of any spirituous water for its preservation. Half an ounce or an ounce of this infusion may be given twice a day.

"3. In decoction. Darwin directs that four ounces of the fresh leaves be boiled from two pounds of water to one, and half an ounce of the strained decoction to be taken every two hours, for four or more doses.

"4. In tincture. Put one ounce of the dried leaves, coarsely powdered, into four ounces of diluted alcohol; let the mixture stand by the fire-side twenty-four hours, frequently shaking the bottle; and the saturated tincture, as Darwin calls it, must then be separated from the residuum by straining or decantation. Twenty drops of this tincture may be taken twice or thrice a day. The Edinburgh college use eight ounces of diluted alcohol to one of the powder, but let it digest seven days.

"5. The expressed juice and extract are not proper forms of exhibiting this very active remedy.

"When the digitalis is disposed to excite looseness, opium may be advantageously conjoined with it; and when the bowels are tardy, jalap may be given at the same time, without interfering with its diuretic effects. During its operation in this way, the patient should drink very freely."

A few outline plates of chemical apparatus are added, which are very decently executed.

ART. LXII. *The Veterinarian's Pocket Manual: containing brief Directions for the Prevention and Cure of Diseases in Horses; including important Observations on the Glanders; together with a Table of different Degrees of Running commonly denominated Glanders; and a Treatise on some of the most common Operations. By* M. LA FOSSE, *Member of the National Institute, of the Medical Society, and principal Farrier to the Army in France.* pp. 128 12mo.

THE authority of M. La Fosse, in matters relating to veterinary medicine, is considerable; but some of the opinions entertained by him, as they differ, materially from those of many of the best informed practitioners in this country, must be received with caution. In shoeing, he recommends, as is the practice of the Veterinary College, that the frog should not be cut away, but be allowed to touch the ground; and adduces, as an argument for the safety of this practice, that the horses of the Low Countries and Germany, go without shoes, and suffer no inconvenience from the pressure of the frog against the ground. On the subject of glanders, the author holds some peculiar opinions. He conceives that this disease may be divided into three species, the first of which is the glanders properly so called; the second, '*nothing more than some disorder* circulating in the mass of blood;' the third, the farcy glanders.

"Glanders of the first kind is not infectious, except it be complicated with other disorders, but this is seldom the case, and we may daily witness horses thus attacked, abandoned as incurable, or with more humanity put to death. On the contrary, glanders of the second species is communicable, because the horse, besides, running at the nose, and becoming glanderous, has likewise chancres, and these chancres appear to be the only proximate cause of contagion.

"The third species of glanders is in like manner contagious, because it not only occasions a running of the nose, but the tumefied glands, and the cartilage, of the nose are chancred, and likewise certain parts of the body are covered with lumps and chancres, which latter characterize the farcy glanders, the most dangerous disorder of the three, but not the most common. These two latter species of glanders are infectious, because the disease resides principally in the blood; but the glanders of the first species, the real glanders, the glanders properly so called, is not in any wise contagious although it most frequently occurs.

"The second and third species are incurable, but the last only is mortal. But as to glanders of the first sort, it is neither incurable nor mortal. In the first place, we repeat, this disease is not mortal in any case, and a horse attacked by it is in the same situation as a man who has lost the sense of smelling; it is the loss of a sense, and the loss of a sense prevents neither the man nor the horse from fulfilling all the animal functions; for as we daily observe men affected with ulcerated noses preserve an otherwise sound constitution, and even look jolly, so we may observe a glandered horse preserve his strength and health.

Digitized by Google

"Secondly; it is incurable only when inveterately confirmed; but when taken in an early stage, its progress may be stopped with very little trouble: by frequent bleedings, and inhalation of the steam of boiled marshmallows, hung round the neck in a bag."

A table is annexed, to point out at one view, the diagnostics of the different species of glanders; how far the author is accurate in his divisions of this disease, and in the opinions which he entertains of the nature of its different species, we do not feel ourselves qualified to determine. We should be inclined however to receive them with much hesitation, from their being at variance with the practical deductions of some of our most judicious veterinarians, who regard glanders, properly so called, as having no remedy, but are of opinion, that farcy is capable of being cured, and that it is only a peculiar modification of the former disease affecting the skin.

The author's account of particular diseases, seems, in general, to be rather too slight. His pathology is not unexceptionable; as when he speaks of fever being often a thickening of the blood caused by indigestion; staggers a superabundance of nervous fluid producing dropsy in the anterior ventricle of the brain, &c. Two ounces of aloes, which he orders at one time as a purgative, seems to be by much too large a quantity, from half an ounce to an ounce being generally found to be sufficient.

ART. LXIII. *A Domestic Treatise on the Diseases of Horses and Dogs, so conducted, as to enable Persons to practise with Ease and Success on their own Animals, without the Assistance of a Farrier; including likewise the natural Management, as Stabling, Feeding, Exercise, &c.; together with the Outlines of a Plan for the Establishment of genuine Medicines for these Animals throughout the Kingdom. By* DELABERE BLAINE, *Professor of Animal Medicine; Author of the Anatomy of the Horse; a System of Veterinary Medicine; a Treatise on the Distempers in Dogs, &c. &c.* 2nd Edition, pp. 204.

IN our last volume, we had occasion to notice a very extensive work by the same author, on veterinary medicine, and subjects introductory to it. The present little treatise contains many of the practical observations contained in that work, on the management of horses, both in health and disease; but in order that the plan of cure recommended in it may not be misunderstood, the author refers to an arrangement, with the prices annexed, of ready prepared medicines, which may be had, of the best quality, and compounded with the utmost regard to chemical principles, of every medicine vender in the united kingdom. The author is at much pains to prove, that his 'medicine arrangement holds out very superior utility,' but that it is 'completely removed from any empirical attempt to dupe the public.' At the same time, however, he candidly admits 'that he does not pretend to any superior disinterestedness,' but on the contrary, having served 'for many years', he conceives that 'he merits his reward.' We are very far from attempting to dispute the author's claim to a reward, whether from the sale of his books or his medicines, for his long and faithful services, but, at the same time, we cannot forbear remarking our surprise, that his feelings with regard to the use of the term empiricism, should still continue so acute.

ART. LXIV. *A new System of Farriery, including a systematic Arrangement of the external Structure of the Horse. Illustrated with Copper Plates, representing the exact Proportions of a Blood Horse, with a Description of all the Defects that tend to impede Velocity. Likewise Directions for ascertaining with Exactness the Age of a Horse, from his being foaled, till fourteen Years old. To which are added, the improved Mode of Treatment, and Prescriptions recommended by the Veterinary College, in every Disease of difficult Management. Interspered with occasional References to the dangerous Practice of country Farriers, Grooms, &c. And the Method of curing the principal epidemic Diseases to which Cows, Sheep, &c. are subject.* 4to. pp. 272.

THE author informs us, that he has been above 30 years in the study and practice of his profession, and, in addition to the various opportunities of improvement which he has enjoyed during that period, has availed himself of the veterinary establishment in this country, to become acquainted with the principles and practice inculcated in that valuable institution. The ample title-page of th

work is sufficiently descriptive of the general objects which it embraces. The details are for the most part judiciously conducted, and appear to be in general deduced from observation and experience. We are often, however, inclined to disagree with the author in matters relating to general physiology and pathology, subjects to which he does not seem to have paid great attention. Neither do his methods of cure always appear to be founded upon philosophical principles, or to be perfectly consistent with each other; but this is a remark which we make with some hesitation, knowing how frequently mere analogical reasoning (which we confess ourselves on this subject only able to employ) is apt to lead to conclusions which are not completely warranted.

On the necessity of pressure, to preserve the frog in a healthy state, and to prevent the foot from contracting, and thus producing lameness, the author is fully convinced; and by the success with which attention to this circumstance was accompanied, in the ample opportunities of observation which he has enjoyed, the system pursued in the Veterinary College, and detailed at considerable length in our last volume, has received a desirable confirmation. The author has frequently occasion to advert to the absurd and injurious practices, which are still so very generally in use among farriers, both in the management of the regimen of horses, and the treatment of their diseases. Purging is a practice which he properly represents as having done a great deal of harm, both by the frequency of its employment, and the quantity of the medicine used to produce the effect. The greatest prudence he considers as necessary in the exhibition of cathartics, which appear to him to be requisite in but very few cases. To purge a horse for the purpose of bringing down his belly, is completely unnecessary; for this he observes may either be prevented or removed by

"—a proper management in his diet, such as reducing the quantity of his hay, and particularly his water, which should be administered with a very sparing hand: but the proportion of his corn, mixed with a few split beans, must be increased in proportion to the deficiency in the other aliment, this single diet, uniformly administered, will be sufficient to reduce the bulk of too large a belly, without having recourse to that pernicious and whimsical idea, of giving three doses of physic; by which intolerable practice great numbers of good and valuable horses have lost their lives, or been rendered useless."

The employment of cathartics, with a view to purge a horse from ill humours, and to enable him to run faster, is equally deprecated by the author. The system of a race-horse should be strengthened instead of being weakened by improper physicking; for

"If the organs of digestion and chylification are continually disturbed by physicking or any other improper treatment equally dangerous, the food will be ill digested, and the chyle and nutrition imperfect: hence will result a debility and weakness of the system; profuse sweatings will take place on the least exercise, and of course, the animal will be incapable of sustaining any violent exertions in such a languid state. This defect may be also the consequence of a natural weak constitution of the horse; but in either case he must be rejected, as incapable of being a racer, or a hunter."

The authority of Mr. Coleman is adduced with his own, against the healthiness of close and heated stables, such as are too frequently in use. Their temperature should never exceed from 60° to 70° of Farenheit, and though cold blasts must necessarily be avoided, care must be taken to provide a free circulation of air, as being eminently conducive to the support of health and vigour.

The observations on the diseases of cattle and sheep are very short, but the author promises, in a future publication, to give a full comparative description, with the proper mode of treatment of every disease that affects domestic animals.

The plates which accompany this work are extremely well executed, and afford good illustrations, of the circumstances of formation which either tend to increase or diminish the speed of horses.

Digitized by Google

CHAPTER XIX.

L A W.

ALTHOUGH the law publications of last year contain little new or interesting matter to a general reader, the lawyer's library has obtained by one, at least, of them, an important acquisition. Mr. East's Pleas of the Crown is a work of much consequence to the profession, not only as it is a revision of the penal law of the country, executed by a barrister of great experience and learning, but, in an especial degree, as that revision has been completed with the use of all those private collections of cases and determinations, of which it was known the judges had long availed themselves, without their being communicated to the public. Our system of penal law, notwithstanding its dreadful catalogue of statutable offences, has always been our pride, as it has been the protector and guardian of that precious liberty, which Englishmen do not boast of more in the theory of their government than they enjoy it in its administration. To have the whole system of that law, which establishes his personal security, presented to him in a shape of easy reference, and clear analytical statement, must prove grateful to every one of our countrymen; and it is much to the honour of our learned men in high stations, that they have so generously aided in its execution.

The various periodical reports of Messrs. East, Puller, and Bosanquet, Vezey, jun. Robertson, Forrest, and Espinasse, are continued as usual; and as the public have long recognized their obligations to these gentlemen, and are already sufficiently acquainted with their merits, it is not necessary to do more at present than merely to notice the continuance of these labours, which are so highly useful to the profession.

Amongst the reporters is a posthumous work of Mr. Dickens, the late senior register of the court of chancery. The cases of which his notes are given extend through a period of many years, and were chiefly taken by himself during his long attendance in that court; but we fear their value is lessened by the very circumstance of the great delay in their publication.

A new edition of Swinburne's celebrated book upon Last Wills is the most important of that kind of performance, and is calculated to bring it into more general use.

In short, we may congratulate the profession to which these publications peculiarly belong, that in spite of their limited circulation and sale superior minds continue to be engaged in them, and most honourably strive to advance its utility and renown.

Digitized by Google

ART. I. *A Treatise of Testaments and last Wills, by Henry Swinburne, 7th Edition, with Annotations of the late J. J. Powell, Esq. Barrister. Prepared for the Press by* JAMES WAKE, *Esq. Barrister.* 8vo. 3 vols. pp. 1236.

THE very great facility which the late Mr. Powell possessed in composing treatises upon legal subjects kept his pen ever engaged, and hardly any lawyer has contributed so much to the shelves of his profession. Amongst other valuable books, that of Swinburne had, it seems, for some years been chosen by him for illustrative notes; but dying before they were ready for the press, the proprietors of the present publication purchased them of his widow, and they now make their appearance from the revision and arrangement of Mr. Wake.

The text is very judiciously printed, in the old language of the edition of 1640, and not according to the sixth edition, in which the style had been attempted to be modernized; and the two indexes are incorporated into one. The notes are explanatory of doubtful passages, and collect subsequent decisions and authorities, where the positions of the author have undergone discussion or received alteration. They are very numerous and elaborate, and with the addition of the late statutes certainly, in a great degree, increase the value of this sterling work.

ART. II. *A Practical Treatise on Copyhold Tenure. By* RICHARD BARNARD FISHER. 8vo. pp. 423. Second Edition.

IT is nearly ten years since the first edition of this treatise was given to the public; and having been sometime out of print, the author, in bringing forward this new edition, has corrected and considerably enlarged it. Its value is too well known, and too generally acknowledged, to need comment.

ART. III. *An Abridgment of Cases argued and determined in the Courts of Law, during the Reign of his present Majesty; with Tables of the Names of Cases and principal Matters. By* THOMAS WALTER WILLIAMS, *Esq.* Vol. V. 8vo. pp. 1000.

THE third volume of the work completes the abridgment of all the public acts of parliament, from the thirty-first year of the reign of his present Majesty to the forty-second. The public is already acquainted with its object and style of execution from the two former volumes.

ART. IV. *Observations on the Rules of Descent, and on the Point of Law, whether the Brother of a Purchaser's paternal Grandmother shall be preferred in the Descent to the Brother of the paternal Great Grandmother of a Purchaser. By* W. H. ROWE, *of Gray's Inn, Conveyancer.* 8vo. pp. 117.

THIS is a long and laborious argument in support of the opinion of Mr. Justice Manwood, on a point of dry and remote law, in opposition to the reasoning against it of Mr. Justice Blackstone, and others who have coincided with him, but particularly in answer to a pamphlet published upon the subject by Mr. Watkins, four years ago, entitled "An Enquiry into the Question." It is written with learning and ingenuity.

ART. V. *Reports of Cases argued and determined in the High Court of Chancery, collected by John Dickens, Esq. the late Senior Register of that Court, and revised by* JOHN WYATT, *Esq. Barrister at Law.* 2 vols. 8vo. pp. 875.

THIS is a posthumous work of the late venerable Mr. Dickens, who, for a very long period of time, had a seat in the Court of Chancery. He had, it seems, collected the whole of these cases, extending through almost the whole of the last century, in his own hand-writing, and left them, though without arrangement, obviously intended for publication. In this state Mr. Wyatt, who had before presented his profession with another excellent book, finding them to contain "a valuable selection, remarkable for a correct narrative of facts, a concise yet clear statement of the question, and a conspicuous report of the judgments," revised and prepared them for press. As far as we have been able to examine them, we have seen every reason to coincide in this character with the editor, to whose judgment much may be confided.—An excellent index is added,

Digitized by Google

ART. VI. *A Treatise of the Pleas of the Crown. By* EDWARD HYDE EAST, *Esq. of the Inner Temple.* 2 vols. 8vo. pp. 1126.

MR. EAST very modestly observes in the preface to this valuable work, that he would not have presumed to have ventured on a new arrangement and discussion of a subject already so ably and authoritatively treated of by Lord Hale and Mr. Serjeant Hawkins, had he not been possessed of additional materials. But that the lapse of ninety years since the last of those authors published his book, and the accumulation of matter, both from statutes and adjudged cases, had rendered a revision of this most interesting branch of our law so highly desirable, that he thought it would prove an acceptable offering to the members of his profession, however far the execution of it might fall short, in point of ability, of those models which they had been accustomed to contemplate.

The sense entertained by the profession of the magnitude and importance of Mr. East's undertaking, and their confidence in the care and ability of the author, were most forcibly displayed in all private collections and notes being immediately laid open to him, and in his being permitted freely to avail himself of the private labours of judges so highly distinguished as Foster, Yates and Gould, and Buller. But in addition to these valuable sources of information, he was allowed to consult the book which has been long kept for the use of the judges, and in which are entered those cases which have been reserved for their opinion, with their determinations upon them.

Thus aided, with a mind ever bent upon the subject, and enriched by the learned and liberal communications of the ablest lawyers of the time, Mr. East, after fifteen years preparation, brought forth his work; a work whose execution must be as gratifying to his friends as it is valuable to the public, and which will hand down his name to distant times with those who have most contributed by their writings to the honour of their profession.

In the course of the preface a very interesting memoir is given of the late Justice Buller, which will be read with avidity by the numerous admirers of that most extraordinary man.

A short index is given of the general heads; one of cases, and another of no less than four hundred and fifty-six statutes, which are cited and referred to in the work.

These two volumes contain the following chapters, whose respective lengths and importance we have marked by reference to the pages.

Chap. 1. Offences against religion, morality, and the church establishment, p. 1 to 36; 36 pages.

2. High treason and other incidental offences immediately against the allegiance due to the king, p. 37 to 138; 102 pages.

3. Misprision of treason, p. 139 and 140; 2 pages.

4. Offences relating to the coin and to bullion, p. 141 to 197; 57 pages.

5. Homicide, p. 198 to 375; 178 pages.

6. The respective duties of the vill, the coroner, and others, upon a homicide committed, p. 376 to 391; 16 pages.

7. Mayhem or felonious maims, p. 392 to 403; 12 pages.

8. Felonious, malicious, and unlawful assaults upon the person, with intent to kill, wound, or otherwise injure the party, or to rob him, or obstruct him in the execution of his duty, p. 404 to 427; 24 pages.

9. False imprisonment and kidnapping, p. 428 to 432; 5 pages.

10. Rape, and the wilful carnal knowledge of female children, p. 433 to 449; 17 pages.

11. Forcible or fraudulent abduction, marriage, or defilement, p. 450 to 462; 13 pages.

12. Polygamy or Bigamy, p. 463 to 472; 10 pages.

13. Offences touching clandestine and illegal marriages, p. 473 to 479; 7 pages.

14. Sodomy, p. 480; 1 page.

15. Burglary, p. 481 to 523; 43 pages.

16. Larceny and robbery, p. 524 to 791; 268 pages.

17. Piracy, p. 792 to 812; 21 pages.

18. Cheats, p. 813 to 839; 27 pages.

19. Forgery, p. 840 to 1003; 164 pages.

20. Falsely personating another, p. 1004 to 1011; 8 pages.

21. Arson, p. 1012 to 1035; 24 pages.

22. Malicious or fraudulent mischief, p. 1036 to 1103; 68 pages.

23. Threatening letters or writings, p. 1104 to 1126; 23 pages.

The aim of the author at a very comprehensive and systematic arrangement will immediately appear from this statement. That circumstance which consti-

Digitized by Google

tutes the peculiar nature and weightiest part of an offence is made the character of a genus, and includes under its general title all the species and varieties of the crime. Thus chap. 16, of larceny and robbery, extends through two hundred and sixty-eight pages of the book, and embraces every offence of which theft is the prominent feature; but it does not extend to burglary; because, though that offence include a theft, or an intention of theft, it has the more important character of a breaking into the house at night, and therefore constitutes a chapter by itself.

In this classification, chap. 16, larceny and robbery, chap. 5, homicide, chap. 19, forgery, chap. 2, high treason, are the most extensive; and as a specimen of the author's more detailed divisions of his subject, and his mode of investigating it, we will give a fuller account of the first of these.

To each chapter of the work is prefixed an analysis of its contents, executed with that care which distinguishes the whole performance. But we cannot agree with our author in the propriety of placing them at the head of each chapter, instead of collecting them at the beginning of the book. By the method he has adopted, the whole of the volumes must be turned over to find the contents; and a reader is deprived of the advantage of seeing the total division and arrangement of the subject at once, which often very greatly facilitates his discovery of the passage or learning of which he is in search.

In the chapter on larceny the author begins by stating, that the offence of feloniously taking the personal property of another is denominated either *larceny* when the fact is accomplished secretly, or by surprise, or fraud; or *robbery* when accompanied by circumstances of violence, threats, or terror, to the person despoiled. He then divides the subject into

I. Of simple larceny, its definition, and an illustration of the component parts of such definition; in the course of which are noticed the variations which have from time to time been introduced by statute.

II. Of larceny clam and secrete from the person.

III. Of robbery, properly so called.

IV. Of grand and petit larceny and robbery, with their several punishments.

V. Of principals, accessaries, and receivers.

VI. Of the trial, indictment, appeal, evidence, and verdict.

VII. Of the restitution of stolen goods.

As to the Ist head, the author examines the definition of larceny by Bracton, Lord Coke, Mr. Justice Blackstone, Eyre, &c. and gives it thus; "the wrongful or fraudulent taking and carrying away by any person of the mere personal goods of another, from any place, with a felonious intent to convert them to his (the taker's) own use, and make them his own property, without the consent of the owner."

He then pursues the investigation under this division.

1. What is a mere taking.
2. What a carrying away.
3. By what person.
4. Of what things.
5. From what place.
6. To whom belonging.
7. What is such evidence of the taking and carrying away, being wrongful or fraudulent, and with intent to convert the goods to the taker's own use, and make them his own property, without the consent of the owner, as will amount to *felony*.

These several heads again branch out into many subdivisions, and after the common law the statutes are stated in order of time. Under the last head, that of the felonious intent, the different grounds of defence are thus stated:

1. Evidence on denial of the fact.—Confession.
2. On claim of right.
3. On taking by mistake or accident.
4. On taking as a trespasser.
5. On finding.
6. On delivery by a third person.
7. Taking on delivery, by or on behalf of the owner, or by his consent or approbation.

(This falls into twelve subdivisions or qualifications in the mode of delivery.)

8. On taking through necessity.

Under the IId head, besides the general matter and observations on the statute, Mr. East considers,

1. As to the manner in which the offence must be committed.
2. As to the situation of the party robbed.
3. The indictment and verdict.

Under the IIId (robbery) these additional heads occur.

1. How far the value is material.
2. What shall be said to be a taking from the person.

Digitized by Google

3. What degree of violence or putting in fear is necessary.

The remaining titles are treated of with equal care and fulness, and the statute regulations are considered in order of time and subject matter. The VIth is peculiarly interesting and well executed.

The subjects of the other chapters are investigated in the same manner, so that each may be considered as a distinct complete treatise upon that head. In some, however, when the offence is different, and yet the legal doctrine applying to each is similar, as in rape and sodomy, the statement of it is not repeated, but in the latter chapter the contents of the former are referred to.

The style is clear, and the greatest care appears to have been taken to guard against equivocal expressions; though it is not to be expected that a work of such extent will be free from many small inaccuracies. In the use of his materials the author has acted judiciously; he has made copious extracts from the MSS. confided to him; his marginal notes of reference are very numerous; when cases are stated they are as much condensed as their importance will admit of; and the arguments and opinions of the judges are only introduced in new, doubtful, and weighty points; but the material words of statutes are always stated at length. The work is well printed, upon paper very much superior indeed to what we are accustomed to see; and as an instance of consideration very seldom exercised, but certainly of great utility, not only the material words in the text, but the contents of the chapters and sections in the margin, are printed in italics, whilst the maginal references are in full roman characters.

In short, whether we consider this work in the value and extent of its additional matter over all former publications on crown law, or in the manner in which the whole has been arranged, and is now brought before the public, we cannot help congratulating the members of Mr. East's profession "on an offering which must be so acceptable to them," and our countrymen at large, on a publication which puts them in possession of so complete a body of the laws for which England will ever stand distinguished amongst nations.

ART. VII. *A Digest of the Bankrupt Laws, with a Collection of the Statutes and of the Cases argued and determined in the Courts of Law and Equity upon that Subject. By* BASIL MONTAGU, *of Gray's Inn, Esq. Barrister at Law.* pp. 874. 8vo.

THAT system of law which distributes the effects of a trader, no longer capable of discharging his debts, equally amongst his creditors, and not only relieves the unfortunate man himself from the pressure of existing demands, but enables him to begin the scheme of life anew, and acquire, undisturbed, the produce of a more successful labour, is the creature of commerce, and had advanced with us, since the year 1542 when it began, in proportion to the stupendous progress of our trade. By a series of no less than twelve existing statutes, and a vast body of decided cases upon them, it is supposed to have attained considerable maturity; and this author certainly puts that to the fairest test, when he attempts to investigate and exhibit the whole law of bankruptcy by a strict analysis. The two writers who had preceded him, and from whose works the profession derived great advantage, pursued very different plans. Mr. Cooke, under a loose arrangement, gave little more than a compilation of the cases. Mr. Cullen composed a very excellent treatise upon the law. But Mr. Montagu's book is much more elaborate; besides an appendix, containing all the statutes and decided cases at length, with practical forms, he endeavours to state in the text a summary of the law with the most sententious conciseness; and where the doctrine admits of doubt, or requires explanation to support it, in the notes, by comparing and reasoning upon the cases and statutes.

The introductory chapter states that the whole work will be thus divided:

Book I. Of bankruptcy in general.

Part I. Considerations previous to issuing a commision.

Part II. Proceedings under a commission.

Part III. Invalidating a commission.

Book II. Of bankruptcy in particular cases: as of members of parliament, partners, executors, assignees, of persons who have before been bankrupts, country commissions.

The part now before us contains,

Analysis.

Introductory chapter.

Digitized by Google

Book I. Of bankruptcy in general.

Part 1. Commissions previous to issuing a commission.

Introductory chapter.

Chap. 1. What persons are liable to be bankrupts.

Chap. II. The plan of dealing.

Chap. III. The debt of the petitioning creditor.

Chap. IV. The act of bankruptcy.

The appendix gives all the statutes, with the cases at length, as far as they apply to the subject of the text. The analysis is similarly limited.

At first sight it must occur to every reader, that the plan of Mr. Montagu is too voluminous. The notes upon the text contain a full statement of the substance of the cases where there is any doubt. Can there then be any necessity to subjoin in the appendix the cases at length? All professional men have already upon their shelves, at no easy price, the cases of which the summary is given; and, it may be presumed, will consult their reports, whenever they have to form or advance an opinion on a question which may be agitated in the courts. To reprint, therefore, these cases in the appendix, appears to us not only unuseful, but highly objectionable: it very greatly increases the size and price of the work without adding at all to its value. But the author states in his preface that his reasons for doing this were, 1st, To exhibit a perfect body of the bankrupt laws, together with its growth and gradual improvement; 2dly, To supersede the necessity of referring to a whole library for the scattered decisions; 3dly, To enable the reader to refer at once to the authority for the law stated in the text; 4thly, To prevent the possible mis-statement of the import of a case in the notes from being the cause of error.

We hope Mr. Montagu will reconsider these reasons before the publication of the further parts of his work. To us they are very far from carrying conviction. The public have only a right to exact from an author a faithful reference to, or statement of his authorities: in reasoning upon them he is not to be expected to be infallible; nor is he intitled to more favour for his mistakes because he obliges his readers to pay over again for the means of their correction.

For the text and subjoined notes Mr. Montagu is intitled to considerable praise. He has obviously read much, and digested his materials with great care; but from the compression of the matter in the text, and its strict analytical arrangement, it is calculated more for the memory and occasional reference than for direct reading.

ART. VIII. *A Compendium of the Laws respecting the Poor, including the Digest of Bott's Poor Laws, with the adjudged Cases and Acts of Parliament, continued to Easter Term* 1803. 8vo. pp. 321.

THE great utility and extensive sale of Bott's poor laws, as improved by Mr. Const, induced the editor to publish this enlargement of the digest which accompanies that work, by adding the parliamentary provisions and legal adjudications which have been since made.

He also proposed to himself to present by this work an epitome of those laws which should furnish to the practitioners at sessions, and to parish officers, every necessary information, without occasioning them the trouble or expence of the compilation at large. But in order to make it of the most extensive use, it still contains the references, as an index, to Mr. Const's book.

It may be regretted, however, that the editor did not thoroughly revise the work as a *digest*, and omit all obsolete and unnecessary matter; for though this might not have been required for it as an index, and would have been laborious, yet it would have conferred much greater value upon the performance, and have secured that confidence which is necessary to it when intended to be used as an original work.

In the appendix a sketch is given of one or two of those acts of parliament which have been found by particular parishes to have been so useful in the regulation of their poor.

ART. IX. *The Solicitor's Practice on the Crown Side of the Court of King's Bench: with an Appendix containing the Forms of the Proceedings, &c. By* WILLIAM HANDS, *Solicitor.* 8vo. pp. 524.

THE author's view in this production is to assist professional men in the actual practice of crown law. He has, in the first place, treated in distinct chap-

ters of informations against magistrates; 2. against private persons; 3. of informations quo warranto; 4. of certioraris or sessions orders; 5. of certioraris or convictions; 6. of certioraris or indictments; 7. of outlawries; 8. of the writ of error; 9. of the writ of mandamus; 10. of the writ of attachment; 11. of the writ of habeas corpus; 12. of articles of the peace. These chapters occupy a small part of this large volume; the remaining part of which consists of precedents and practical forms of various kinds. This work, if it possesses that accuracy which can only be ascertained by long and frequent practical references to it, must be of very great utility to the gentlemen who practise in our criminal courts. Prefixed to it is a short account of the jurisdiction and proceedings of the court of King's Bench, and of the officers on the crown side of that court.

ART. X. *A Compendium of the Statute Laws and Regulations of the Court of Admiralty, relative to Ships of War, &c. By* THOMAS HARTWELL HORNE. 12mo. pp. 154.

THE object of this little book is to exhibit a concise view of the existing statute laws and regulations of our court of admiralty, concerning ships of war, privateers, prizes, and other matters connected with that subject. The author rightly supposes any elaborate treatise, comprising the law of nations, to be superfluous, after the works of Lee, of Jenkinson, of Martin, and of Browne; and offers this as a compendium and manual of *British prize law.*

ART. XI. *An Essay on the Law of Patents for new Inventions: To which are prefixed, two Chapters on the general History of Monopolies, with an Appendix. By* JOHN DYER COLLIER. 8vo. pp. 316.

ALTHOUGH the writer of this treatise calls it an essay, "because it is not professedly complete," yet we are more inclined to believe that the title has been adopted from a little excess in love of the shew of learning, and an imitation of the admirable Sir William Jones. It is not only professedly complete, but is (as a law book) to a great degree redundant, and swells a very inconsiderable subject of English law into a large book. We do not deny that monopolies are a very important topic of political discussion. The consideration of their effects must indeed form a material head in every work upon the wealth of nations; but our English law upon the subject lies within a very small compass; and an investigation of it is, for a professional work, materially injured by extension. Even the essay on the law of bailments failed from this cause; and Mr. Collier must not be surprised, if he be not more favourably treated than Sir William Jones.

The author, after two interesting historical essays upon monopoly, in which are elegantly displayed a superior taste, and very extensive learning, proceeds to state the common and statute law upon the subject of patents, and the forms of the grant; he investigates its nature and duration; the authority *under* which, and the condition *upon* which it is given; and treats of its infringement, repeal and surrender; of the preliminary considerations to obtaining it; and of the formulæ with which it is connected. In the chapters on these heads, the several determined cases and opinions of the judges are given at full length, with but a very meagre addition of other matter. The chapter on the repositories of patent records is curious and useful.

In the appendix are given notes, containing the statutes upon this subject, several ancient regulations, and a list of monopolies, by royal grant, from Henry VII. to Charles I. As an instance, generally illustrative of patent law, the author has stated the specification of Sir Richard Arkwright's patent, and all the formulæ attending its obtainment; the trial of a scire facias to repeal it; and the summing up at length of Mr. Justice Buller, on that occasion, to the jury; together with a plate, explanatory of the specification. These are followed by a very full list of patents obtained from 1st January, 1800, to 31st March, 1803; and another list of the patentees.

To the whole is added *an advertisement, that persons desirous of obtaining patents may, by application to the author, be assisted in drawing up and passing their patents!*

Digitized by Google

ART. XII. *The Practice of the Court of King's Bench in personal Actions: with References to Cases of Practice in the Court of Common Pleas. In Two Volumes octavo. Third Edition, corrected and enlarged. By* WILLIAM TIDD, *Esq.*

IN preparing this (the third) edition of the present work, some material alterations in the arrangement have been made. A new chapter has also been added in the removal of causes, from inferior courts, by writ of certiorari or habeas corpus, from such as are of record; or by writ of pone, recordare facias loquelam, or accedas ad curiam, from such as are not of record. The later decisions have also been incorporated in this edition, and more than sixty rules of court have been added; so that the work now contains a complete series of the rules of court from the beginning of the reign of James the First to the present time. Such errors as were discovered in the former edition are now rectified; and the author has not, as before, confined himself merely to the practice of the court of King's Bench, but has taken a view of the mode of commencing actions in the court of Common Pleas, and has in many instances shewn where the practice of the two courts correspond, and where it differs. Still, however, the author has principally kept in view the jurisdiction of the court of King's Bench in personal actions; and has, in a great measure, confined his attention to the *process* of that court, and the times and manner of transacting its business. Such differences in the practice of the two courts as arise out of the cases, are particularly marked in the text, or more commonly in the notes. Several important acts of parliament, and rules of court, having been made since the present edition was sent to the press, these are noticed at the end of the work by way of addenda. Mr. Tidd has, by this edition, conferred a new favour on the profession. His work has, from its first publication, been considered as decidedly the best book on the subject; but as its matter is purely professional, the merit of it can be justly estimated only by professional men.

ART. XIII. *A Treatise on Captures in War, by* RICHARD LEE, *Esq. Second Edition with Notes.* 8vo.

THIS work, we are informed by the editor, is an enlarged translation of the principal part of Bynkershoek's Questiones Juris Publici, and has for its object the law of nations, relative to captures in war, as well of territory as of moveable property of every species. A few notes are subjoined by the editor, where the law of nations has undergone any alterations since the publication of the original work, or where the principles and doctrine were capable of additional illustration from more recent events. The whole work is contained in a small octavo volume, and is divided into chapters, arranged as follows: Chapter 1. war, what it is; 2. whether a public declaration is necessary to make a war lawful; 3. of reprisals; 4. of the nature of war between enemies, the rights which war gives over the person of the enemy, their extent and bounds; 5. when moveable goods, and particularly ships belonging to the enemy, become the property of the captors; 6. whether and where moveable things, and especially ships, may be given up to the recaptors; 7. how far the possession of unmoveables gained in war may be extended; 8 whether actions and credits of the enemy, found amongst us when a war is begun, may be justly confiscated, and of the right to incorporeal things taken in war; 9. whether we may go to or pursue an enemy into the port or territory of a friend; 10. of the state of war as to neutrals; 11. of those things which may not be carried to the enemy of our friends; 12. whether it is lawful to carry any thing to cities and ports, &c. when besieged; 13. whether lawful goods are forfeited by means of unlawful uses; 14. of the goods of friends found in the ships of enemies; 15. of the goods of enemies found in the ships of friends; 16. of the right of postliminium, and whether things taken from the enemy, and brought into the territory of a friend, return to their postliminium; 17. of private captures, and how far the employers of privateers, or the state whence they came, are bound for any injury done by the persons employed therein; discussion of the question, if a ship, not having a commission as a privateer, takes booty, to whom it belongs; 18. of the method of trying prizes taken in war, appeals and costs; 19. whether it is lawful to insure the property of the enemy, or to enlist soldiers in the country of a friend; 20. right of

Digitized by Google

insures after ransom, contributions towards losses, loan on conquered land, hostages.

The first impression of the English edition of this work, appeared in 1759, and having since become very scarce, this second edition is now offered to the public. With the merits of the original work the world is already well acquainted, and the additions made to the present edition encrease its value. From this performance much information is to be acquired, and at the same time much amusement, as it is free from those numerous quotations and references with which books on such subjects generally abound. The extreme uncertainty and difference of opinion which exist on this, as well as other branches of the law of nations, is much to be lamented; but perhaps this evil is inseparable from the very nature of things, and must, with some fluctuation of times and circumstances, be perpetuated by the want of an independent tribunal to which the disputes between nations can be referred.

ART. XIV. COLQUHOUN's *Duties of a Constable.*

THE object of this work is to instruct fully in the various subjects of their duty every different description of constable known to the law of England; and the author expresses also a further hope that the acting magistrate may find it an useful compendium, with respect to several of those minor offences which require frequent appeals to his judgment and decision in a summary way. A synopsis, or general view, is also given of the penalties applicable to those minor offences, cognizable by justices, which most frequently occur. Mr. Colquhoun enters very fully into the different topics of which he treats; and his industry in preparing a work of this useful nature merits praise.

ART. XV. *A General View of the Decisions of Lord Mansfield in Civil Causes. By* WILLIAM DAVID EVANS, *Esq. In Two Volumes quarto.* pp. 872.

The intention of the author of this publication is (as its title page announces) to bring into our view the various decisions and dicta of Lord Mansfield, on that infinite variety of legal questions to which his attention was called, during the very long time he presided in the court of King's Bench. The arrangement adopted by the author for this purpose is, with little variation, that of Blackstone's Commentaries. To a work like the present, it would undoubtedly have been matter of considerable difficulty to have given any very systematic arrangement, the infinite variety of detached matter opposing itself strongly to such an arrangement; but in adopting the plan of a work, framed for the purpose of exhibiting the outline of the whole body of our laws, we think the author has yielded too implicitly to the difficulty which, we admit, the very nature of his subject imposed upon him. The opinions of Lord Mansfield are also too much quoted at length, as they are found, in the various reporters and observations of his lordship, of little importance, and which are obvious to the commonest minds, are mentioned and dwelt upon in a degree which they do not merit. With these defects, the work (which is extended to two *large* quarto volumes) can hardly be considered in any other light, than as a dictionary of the judgments and remarks of Lord Mansfield. Those, however, whom the frequent recourse to quotation, and the vast variety of minute unconnected matter, do not deter, may derive much amusement and information from the perusal.

ART. XVI. WILLIAMS's *Abridgment of Cases.*

THIS work consists of a variety of determinations, on topics for the most part frequently occurring in practice, as replevin, usury, veneer and vendee, wager, wills, &c. These different heads follow each other in alphabetical order, and the cases under each head are arranged according to the matter contained in each. A full table of the principal subjects is also added, so that there is no difficulty in acquiring the information contained in this volume. A very considerable number of cases are collected under each head; but the author has not, we think, so much abridged them, as to make it worth while for any professional man to repurchase what he must already have in his library, and the work is chiefly calculated for professional men.

Digitized by Google

ART. XVII. *A Compendious Law Dictionary, containing both an Explanation of the Terms and the Law itself.* By THOMAS POTTS, *Gent.* 12mo. pp. 620.

THE author's view in this work was to produce, in a small compass, a work which would not only be useful to professors of the legal science, but to mercantile men in general, by affording a ready explanation of the terms of law, and at the same stating in a very general way some of the leading points of law relative to each particular head respectively. Greater attention has been bestowed on those parts of the work which relate to bankruptcy, insurance, and other branches of commercial law, it having been particularly the wish of the author to adapt the performance to the use of merchants. The whole is compressed into one octavo volume, containing above 600 pages of close print. The work appears to us to merit praise, but its accuracy can only be judged of by a frequent and habitual use of it.

ART. XVIII. *The Law of Copyright; being a Compendium of Acts of Parliament and adjudged Cases, relative to Authors, Publishers, Printers, Artists, Musical Composers, Print-Sellers, &c.* By JOSHUA MONTEFIORE. 8vo. pp. 59.

THIS small volume containing only 59 octavo pages, treats of the law relative to the rights of literary men and artists in the productions of their genius. The work commences with abstracts of the acts of parliament, as they respectively relate to authors, artists, printers, and publishers generally, and afterwards gives the judicial decisions under the several heads of distributive arrangement, to which they respectively belong. The law of copyright is not confined merely to what is called literary property, in the common and more confined sense of the term, but extends equally to paintings, engravings, busts, models, maps, prints, musical compositions, and other similar productions. This little treatise is more fitted for those who are particularly interested in the rights and privileges of literary productions, than for the professional lawyer, but even to the latter it is not without its use.

ART. XIX. *The Trial of John Peltier, Esq. for a Libel against Napoleon Buonaparté, 21st February, 1803, taken in Short-Hand by* Mr. ADAMS; *and the Defence revised by* Mr. MACKINTOSH. 8vo.

NO trial has for many years so much attracted the public attention as that of Peltier, for libelling the First Consul of France. It was well known that the prosecution had been commenced at the instigation of the French government, and the stupendous events which had led the way to the publication complained of, and the elevation of the real plaintiff, gave to the expected eloquence of Mr. Mackintosh an interest almost beyond precedent.

The public was not disappointed; rarely has there been exhibited such powers of oratory, never was there a higher instance of the purity of law. Every auditor retired with emotions of delight from the eloquence of Mr. Mackintosh, only to be exceeded by those of his exultation and confidence, that he lived under a government, where equal justice was dealt to all, regardless of the condition of the persons, careful only of the right.

As a law publication, however, this work cannot with propriety occupy much space in our Review. The question of law was clear and unquestionable: the counsel for the defendant did not doubt it, but endeavoured to shew that the writings complained of were general satire, and history, natural to persons situated like the defendant to compose, and not overstrained in the facts. Such a gloss could not succeed with a British jury, though supported by (in the words of the attorney general and the chief justice) almost unparalleled eloquence. In the excellent summing up of Lord Ellenborough, he stated the general sentiment of English lawyers, "That a publication defaming the persons and characters of magistrates and others in high and eminent situations of power and dignity in other countries, and expressed in such terms and in such a manner as to interrupt the amity and friendship between the two countries, is a libel."

The principal part of the book is upon subjects purely political, and connected with the person and character of Bonaparte; and which, for the most part, in different shapes, have often before been published. Mr. Peltier closes the trial with a second defence of himself in an address to the public upon the peculiar hardships of his situation.

Digitized by Google

ART. XX. *Select Criminal Trials at Justice Hall, in the Old Bailey; with the Opinion of the Twelve Judges on several interesting Points occurring in the Course of them, and Reserved for their Decision.* Vol. I. pp. 560.

THE object proposed by the editor of this work is to combine amusement with useful information. The trials are, we think, well selected, and include such as have excited most public attention, as those of Hackman, Dr. Dodd, Barrington, &c. Short accounts are also frequently added of the general deportment and behaviour of the persons during their trials, and after their conviction. The editor promises another volume in case the present should meet with a favourable reception; which we think it merits, as the accounts given are pretty full, and we believe faithful. Facts, such as are here presented to the mind, afford ample matter for reflection, and the mode in which hitherto works of this nature have been executed, makes it desirable that the present should be continued.

Digitized by Google

CHAPTER XX.

MATHEMATICS AND NATURAL PHILOSOPHY.

THE present year does not afford us a great number of works in the mathematical department, but it is distinguished by the names of men of great celebrity in science, and of one who is generally known by his fortunes in the political world. Carnot, the ex-director of France, was known as a mathematician, by his small work on Fluxions; his reputation will be increased by his Geometry of Position, in which he has laboured with great assiduity to reconcile together algebra and geometry, and correcting some erroneous opinions which had been long maintained by very eminent mathematicians. This may be considered as the most important publication that we have to announce. The reputation of Baron Maseres, not only as an author, but as a patron of science, is firmly established, and whilst he is continuing with such ardour and industry his great work on Logarithms, he can find time for tracts, in which the very important question of the generation of equations is discussed with great precision, and the question is placed on its true footing. The Baron is one of the few persons who has studied Vieta with attention, and is qualified to appreciate justly the merits of the founder, we might say, of true algebra. Dr. Small, of Edinburgh, in a work of no great bulk, has displayed indefatigable industry. Such calculations could not have been examined without equal talents and labour. We have introduced Montucla into this volume, because from accident he could not appear in the last. His history forms an important æra in mathematical science, but it contains much too great a variety of topics, and its general merits were previously too well established for us to enter into a minute detail of every particular. The author, however, could not be passed over without some account of a life occupied in science, but which, from the melancholy events of the late years, was too much embarrassed in matters foreign from study, to permit him to give his work that perfection at which he aimed. Lalande, in succeeding to him, performed the office of friendship, but was evidently overwhelmed by his many numerous engagements. The French are at present attached more to these studies than the English: in the midst of their preparations for war they seem to be duly sensible of their merits; and from their numbers we may expect either many new discoveries, or great improvements, in the mode of communicating instruction.

ART. I. *Histoire des Mathematiques. History of Mathematics; in which are described their Origin and Progress to the present Day; the principal Discoveries made in every Part of the Mathematics; the Disputes that have been raised among Mathematicians; and the principal Actions of those who have been most famous.* Second Edition. *By* J. F. MONTUCLA, *of the National Institution of France.* 3 vols. 4to.

THE former work of this celebrated writer is well known in the mathematical world, and every one must regret that he did not live to finish this work, and

Digitized by Google

that his studies should have been interrupted by the horrors of the French revolution. Montucla was born at Lyons the fifth of September 1725. His father was a merchant, who gave him an excellent education, and after studying at the Jesuits college in his native town, and pursuing the law at Thoulouse, he came to Paris and formed a connection with the most celebrated mathematicians of his times. The "Recreations of Ozanam" seem to have been the first work that he gave to the press; but he kept his secret so well, that it was sent to him as the reviewer of mathematical publications. About this time he was employed in the Gazette de France, and in 1756 he translated from the English every thing relative to inoculation for the small-pox, which was then introduced into France under the auspices of the court. The "History of the Mathematics" appeared first in 1758, in two volumes quarto, and was received with the approbation which such an effort at such a time deserved. He had announced his intentions of giving a third volume to the public; but the immediate execution of his plan was frustrated by an appointment as secretary to the administration at Grenoble, to which place he retired in 1761, and there, in 1763, formed a matrimonial connection. In 1764 he was removed from this place to Cayenne, where he acted as first secretary in the formation of the colony, and was also honoured with the title of king's astronomer. On his return to Grenoble, after an absence of fifteen months, he soon gained another appointment, and became first clerk in the office of Public Buildings, or, as we may term it, the Board of Works, in which office he continued twenty-five years, employing his leisure hours in his favourite pursuits. In this time the only work published by him was a translation of "Carver's Travels," which he produced in 1783; when he was urged by Lalande to give a new edition of his History of the Mathematics, with the assurance of indemnification from loss by the bookseller.

A long time elapsed before this edition appeared, and the eventful years of the revolution account easily for the delay; but at last, on the seventh of August 1799, the two first volumes were published. The printing of the third volume was begun; but death interrupted its progress at the 336th page of the third volume, on the 19th of December 1779. From this place Lalande undertook the completion of the work, in which it will not be difficult to discover what proceeded from his own pen, and what from the original author.

The revolution naturally produced a change in the circumstances of Montucla; but the new government was not totally insensible to his merits. He was a member of the national institution at its origin; in 1794 he was placed on the list of pensions; and in 1795 was employed in the analysis of foreign treaties. The state of his health did not permit him to accept the place of professor in the central schools; but the department fixed him in the central jury of instruction. For two years the subsistence of himself and family was derived from a lottery-office, and for four months only he enjoyed the benefits of a pension of about a hundred and twenty pounds a-year, granted to him on the death of Saussure. But, if in this respect he shared the usual fortune of men of his talents, the sight of those who acquired property without efforts did not create envy; and his modesty and generosity in such moderate circumstances rendered him a truly admirable character. His first introducer to the office at Grenoble was M. Baudouin de Guemadouc, who was overwhelmed in the calamities of the revolution, and banished; but Montucla did not forget his benefactor in distress, and displayed that courage in his defence and support which entitled him to universal praise.

A work that is swelled out from two to four volumes large quarto, must contain much new, and probably great improvement in the old matter. This will be evident to any one who compares together the two works; yet we may say that the field is still open to future exertions, and the present work may be considered as a good guide to, rather than the completion of history. We do not speak this in disparagement of the author, who is entitled to great praise; but the very circumstance of its being completed by another person naturally renders the whole less perfect than it might otherwise have been. Throughout the work a spirit of nationality prevails; but if a jealousy of our nation is predominant, the more honourable are the testimonies which the author is compelled to render to some of our writers. Much may also be pardoned to him who dared, in bad times, to apologize for the unfortunate; and his indignation at the injustice done

to the monks, and proofs of the obligations we are under to the religious orders, ought not to be passed over in silence.

"I wish not," he says, "to shock the present manner of thinking on this subject, nor to undertake the defence of monkery. There were, it must be allowed, abuses in the monasteries; but what human institution, even those of philosophical or literary societies, is always freed from them? Abuses are like the ivy, which will at last cover old buildings, or diseases which destroy the human body. I allow it to be right and necessary to reduce these institutions extremely, and to allow in them only an easy and honourable subsistence, and by public authority the chains of the unhappy victims of ignorance, of youth, of family ambition, might have been broken. But was it necessary to drive back into the world, with a pitiful pension, cut to pieces a thousand ways, and oftentimes refused, a crowd of old men who, on entering into the world, must be a prey to misery or death? A few years would have put an end to their convents, and the reservation of twenty or thirty houses, as asylums for them, in such an immense territory, could not have been an object for envy or finance in a great and powerful nation, priding itself on generosity and humanity."

The history of algebra is extremely well given, and due respect is paid to the memory of Vieta; yet with all the wish to detract from the merits of Harriot, and to shew the errors in the account given by Wallis, the author does not seem to have been conscious himself of all the worth of his countryman. Vieta discovered the fundamental property of equations, or the nature of the co-efficients: he did not carry it to the whole extent of the proposition; but, on the other hand, he did not divert into any error. The property discovered by Vieta, and demonstrated by him in the case of certain equations, was said to be made general by Harriot; but in this generalization a strict regard was not paid to truth, nor to the rigour of mathematical demonstration. Vieta could not have made the discovery of Harriot, because he could not have allowed of the expression of negative, or false, or impossible roots; nor could he possibly have seen or allowed that such a root could enter into an equation. Where an equation really does admit of more roots than one, he shews the order of the co-efficients as far as he has considered the equations; and if his successors had followed him in the same track, they would, like him, have delivered only truth, and not have led their disciples into inextricable labyrinths. We are willing therefore to allow to Vieta much more than his countryman has done, for science is of no country; and of all men in the world scientific men have little reason to boast of country, as their history is a proof of the little value set upon their labours when living, whatever boasts they may afford to those who scarcely will or can read their works when dead; and we allow also to Vieta the praise of leading the way by his pyramidal numbers to the famous binomial theorem, generally though improperly, and even by Montucla ascribed to Sir Isaac Newton.

We may observe that in the history of algebra, as well as every part of the work, this edition is much improved by the increased number of writers quoted on every subject, and we might add, that this is a very considerable part of the merit of the work; and we should have been under greater obligations to the successor of Montucla, if by a copious index he had rendered the access to every fact, discovery, and writer easier than it is at present. The book will be possessed by every mathematician of eminence, and must be considered by him chiefly as a book of reference; every thing therefore should have been calculated to increase the utility of the publication.

The interesting history of fluxions, from their disputed origin to the great improvements made in that part of science, is detailed with great accuracy and perspicuity; but we regretted that the works of La Grange, La Croix, and Arbogaste, could not have been sufficiently examined by this industrious writer. The present is an interesting period for the doctrine of fluxions: the French writers are taking bold steps; but, in general, in adopting new methods, and aiming at generalising their ideas, they run into a degree of obscurity which is not easily penetrated by those who are fond of the ancient mathematical precision. The important question on assurances, in which so much has been done in this country, is not noticed with the attention it merits. The works of Price, and Morgan, and Maseres, are indeed mentioned, but the extent of their discoveries is not properly laid before the reader.

In optics the former work is much improved; but it is evident that the completion of this part lay with the editor of the two last volumes. Newton and Herschel here meet with deserved praise;

Digitized by Google

and the question of achromatic glasses, in which so much credit is due to Mr. Dollond, and on which so much labour was bestowed by the foreign mathematicians, is stated and examined in the writer's best manner. Marat, the detested author of so much cruelty in the French revolution, finds a place in this part of the work, and his pretended discoveries are treated with the contempt they deserve.

In astronomy we expected much from the reputation of the writer, for the greater part of this subject fell to the lot of the astronomer of France; but whether it is that the work not having been begun by himself would not add to his reputation, or that he had not time to give it sufficient attention, we felt in this part of the work considerable disappointment. In the account of mechanics of modern date there are still greater marks of carelessness, and at times of partiality. But these remarks must be taken with great allowance to the merits and general assiduity of the writers. The work is a very important one, will add greatly to the improvement of mathematics and philosophy, and affords a fund of amusement and instruction not to be procured elsewhere, without great labour and expence, by the mathematician.

ART. II. *Geometrie de Position. Par* L. N. M. CARNOT, *de l'Institut National de France, de l'Academie des Sciences, Arts, et Belles Lettres de Dijon, &c.* 4to.

NEARLY half a century has elapsed since Baron Maseres published his use of the negative sign, or that mark in algebra which denotes the operation of subtraction. The work was acknowledged to have great merit, and the arguments in it were never answered; but still, such is the force of custom, very eminent mathematicians could not break themselves of their old habits, and they continued to use the sign of subtraction without a preceding number, from which that to which the sign was annexed was to be subtracted. Hence a number was said to be less than nothing, other numbers were called impossible, and these ideal beings became the objects of demonstration. The difficulties thus introduced into science gave such a mysterious appearance to algebra, that few would study it; and it is conceived at the present moment to require transcendant abilities and application to make any progress in it. The fact, however, is quite otherwise. It is the easiest and clearest of the sciences, and the whole difficulty in the use of the signs may be overcome with much less pains than are required to learn the common multiplication table.

The French and English nations have contended with each other on the honour of first introducing obscurity into the science; but it seems probable that the contention will soon be at an end, for in both nations men are springing up who seem determined to restore algebra to that purity with which it was taught originally by Vieta. In England, a few years ago, Mr. Frend published his "Principles of Algebra," in which he excludes entirely the notion of either a number less than nothing, or an imaginary, or an impossible number; and he asserts, that whenever such an appearance takes place, "the error is either in the person who proposed, or in him who attempted to solve the proposed equation." This work was followed by an appendix by Baron Maseres, who overthrew entirely a supposed demonstration given by Clairaut of the existence of negative numbers, and the possibility of their producing by multiplication a positive number, and shewed that it was in the very outset founded on error.

Carnot, the author of the work before us, does not profess to be acquainted with the works of either of the writers we have mentioned; but he sees in the same point of view the confusion that has arisen in science by the introduction of a fiction. Instead of rejecting it however entirely, as they have done, he wishes to make a kind of compromise, and declaring it to be absurd, he would leave it in possession of the rights and privileges with which from the time of Descartes it has been indulged. Perhaps he thinks this an easier way of overthrowing the system in his country, for he accumulates instances of the false consequences that arise in reasoning upon the present plan, and concludes that they must have their effect at last in opening people's eyes, and restoring science to its ancient footing.

Among the instances which he adduces of the absurdity of considering negative numbers as capable of any of the processes of arithmetic, he introduces the following: First, from the laws laid down by Euclid in the fifth book of Euclid, since it is supposed that

Digitized by Google

$$1 : -1 :: -1 : 1$$

and — 1 being less than nothing, 1 is evidently greater than — 1; therefore in the proportion the first term is greater than the second, but the third is not greater than the fourth. The proportion then is evidently false, -1×-1 cannot be equal to $+1$. Again, — 3 is less than 2; therefore -3^2 is less than 2^2. But -3^2, according to the prevailing doctrine, is equal to 9, and 9 is greater than 4. Therefore the square of — 3 is greater than the square of 2, which is absurd; and, as the author says, "Cette theorie est donc complettement fausse." This theory is absolutely false. In the application to geometry the same is evident; for taking a point in the diameter of a circle produced, and drawing a line from that point through the circle, we have two values according to the supposed doctrine of negative quantities; for the distances between the point of the convex and concave parts of the circle derived from the equation $x^2 + cx = ab$, and these two values are, the one $x = \sqrt{\frac{1}{4}c^2 + ab} - \frac{1}{2}c$; the other $x = -\sqrt{\frac{1}{4}c^2 + ab} - \frac{1}{2}c$. The first is evidently true, but the latter being a negative value cannot be taken in the same direction, and consequently cannot here have an existence. In the same manner it will follow, from an algebraical expression, for the radius of the circle, and allowing the usual doctrine of negative quantities, that the radius of a circle may be both negative and positive.

From the above and similar instances the author concludes, that

"Every negative quantity standing by itself is a mere creature of the mind, and that those which are met with in calculations are only mere algebraical forms, incapable of representing any thing real and effective. 2. That each of these algebraical forms being taken, with a proper consideration of its sign, is nothing else but the difference of two other absolute quantities, of which the greatest in the case on which the reasoning depends, is the least in the case in which the result of the calculation is to be applied.

"To say of a quantity that it becomes negative, is to employ an improper expression, and one leading, as has been seen above, into error; and the true meaning of the expression is, that this absolute quantity does not belong to the system on which the reasonings have been established, but to another with which it is related; so that to apply the forms applicable to it for this first system, the sign + must be changed into the sign — in the preceding form."

The idea of a negative quantity being thus overthrown, what is to be done in future?

"Nothing is to be changed," says the author, in the usual processes, "we have only to substitute a clear and true idea in the room of one faulty and useless; and this is the object of this work. I think that I have accomplished it by substituting for the notion of positive and negative quantities, which I have opposed, that of quantities which I call direct and inverse; and the geometry of position is that where the notion of positive and negative quantities standing by themselves is supplied by that of quantities direct and inverse."

The mathematical reader will at once perceive the embarrassment in which the author was placed. He had reprobated the doctrine of negative quantities; but he could not fail of perceiving how often he was liable to run into them in the application of algebra to geometry. Here he conceived that the usual processes might be retained; whereas if the notion itself, as he has evidently proved, of negative quantities is "faulty and useless" in the science of algebra itself, it ought by no means to be permitted to stand one moment in its application to another science. The fact is, algebra knows nothing of position; that is peculiar to geometry; and when from the consideration of lines an equation is formed in algebra, the rules of algebra alone can be used in the solution of it; and the geometrician must previously tell what quantities he chooses to be greater or less than others, before the algebraist can give an answer to the question.

An instance occurs which the writer might have made clear to his purpose; but by not having rejected entirely in practice, though he has in his mind, the old theory, he runs into the same absurdities with common writers, and is then obliged to enter into an explanation. Suppose a problem to have brought us to this equation $x^2 - 2ax + a^2 - b = 0$. Then, says the author, I deduce that $x - a = +\sqrt{b}$; and of course he is obliged to shew us how the "unintelligible" phrase $-\sqrt{b}$ is to be applied to any purpose. Whereas the algebraist who has never been shackled by negative numbers, would, on the equation being proposed, deduce all the conclusions in the simplest and easiest manner. He would first observe that a^2 must be either greater than, equal to, or less than b. In the first case the equation becomes

$$2ax - x^2 = a^2 - b,$$

Digitized by Google

and subtracting both sides from a^2,

$$a^2 - 2ax + x^2 = b.$$

Then taking the roots of both sides, (since the root on one side may be either

$$a - x, \text{ or } x - a,)$$

$$a - x = \sqrt{b}$$

$$\text{or } x - a = \sqrt{b};$$

That is, $x = a - \sqrt{b}$, or $x = a + \sqrt{b}$.

If a^2 is equal to b, then

$$x^2 = 2ax;$$

and consequently $x = 2a$.

If a^2 is less than b,

then $x^2 - 2ax = b - a^2$;

therefore $x = a + \sqrt{b - a^2}$.

Thus the various values of x are ascertained without any interference of negative quantities: the reasoning is clear and just, and the geometrician takes the solution which suits the conditions of his case.

Our author not having seen these evident truths, is obliged, after a long deduction, to lay down these tedious conclusions.

"In order that the solution of a problem given by a particular root of an equation should be effective, the conditions proposed, the suppositions on which the reasoning is established, and the constructions or operations indicated by the root of this equation, should all be consistent with each other.

"That if there exists any incompatibility between the one and the other, this root can be considered only as the simple indication of another question analogous to the former; and to have its true meaning, we must renew the calculation upon other conditions or other suppositions, till consistency is established between them, or with the operation which the root modified on these changes would indicate.

"That consequently negative and imaginary roots are never true solutions of the proposed question, but simple indications of questions differing more or less from the former; that often they are only algebraical forms of no signification, which algebraical transformations have amalgamated with the real roots.

"That real and positive roots do not any more than negative or imaginary roots express actual solutions, and are only, like them, simple indications of analogous questions, when the constructions or operations to which they conduct us are not entirely consistent with the conditions proposed, and the suppositions on which the reasoning was established.

"That any equation, or root of an equation, cannot give an actual solution whilst it contains absurd quantities or operations incapable of execution, unless they destroy each other respectively, as in the case of real roots of the third degree.

"That however these unintelligible forms ought not to be neglected, and that they may be employed like real forms, because they may be made to disappear by simple algebraical transformations; and there will then remain only explicit forms immediately applicable to the object proposed, provided, as it has been before observed, that these forms, conditions proposed, and suppositions on which the reasoning is grounded, are all consistent with each other."

We have now then to apply our author's notions to the geometrical position. An equation conducted in the common mode leads him to certain false conclusions, from which he discovers some new relations of the proposed unknown quantity to some new conditions. This may be obviated by his direct and inverse quantities, by which from quantities given in a certain position he will discover the relation of each to the other in another position. Thus to take an easy instance, for the want of figures and of room will not permit us to introduce the more complicated, we will suppose the value of the square of the side of a triangle, required in terms of the squares of the other two sides. In this case, supposing the square of the side required to be opposite to the obtuse angle, and its value discovered upon that supposition; then to make it answer for the case of an acute angle, to which it is opposite, we must invert certain quantities. Instances are given, and very ingenious ones, of this inversion in a variety of cases. The study of them will be found very useful to the higher mathematician, and particularly to those entangled with the doctrine of negative quantities; but we must retain our doubts whether every question would not be more easily solved by the algebraical formula once established, being accommodated to every supposition, as in the case we have adduced, and then leaving the geometrician to adapt his cases to the solutions afforded him.

The work cannot fail of creating considerable interest in France, and among mathematicians in general throughout Europe. It will tend assuredly to the overthrow of the modern use of negative quantities; and it is very probable that after a little time foreigners will acquiesce in the opinion which has now made some progress in this country, that negative quantities are injurious to science, and that every useful deduction may be produced without their assistance.

Digitized by Google

ART. III. *Tracts on the Resolution of Cubic and Biquadratic Equations. By* FRANCIS MASERES, *Esq. F. R. S. Cursitor Baron of the Exchequer.*

THIS volume consists of six tracts, besides a preface of sixty pages explanatory of their contents. The first and fourth tracts are supplements to the appendix to Mr. Frend's "Principles of Algebra," containing farther remarks on cubic equations and Cardan's rule. The second is a very valuable comparison made between the methods of Ferrari and Descartes for resolving certain biquadratic equations, and as a preference is with reason given to the former of these methods, the tract is not unaptly stiled "Ferrarius redivivus." The third tract obviates some difficulties, and the application of Ferrari's method to the resolution of four forms of biquadratic equations. The fifth contains remarks on the doctrine of the generation of algebraic equations; and the last, a comparison between the resolution of the biquadratic $rx - qx^2 + px^3 - x^4 = s$, by the method of Dr. Waring and that of Ferrari.

All these tracts are written with the accuracy, diligence, and skill for which the author has long been distinguished. He maintains his opinion on the injury done to science by the introduction of negative quantities with firmness and dignity; and if any thing could produce a restoration of the ancient doctrine, it would be, one would think, the example of perhaps the oldest writer on algebra in Europe, who has, without the least necessity of applying to quantities less than nothing, investigated the most difficult problems in analytics.

"It is," he says, "owing to the doctrine of the generation of equations one from another by multiplication, and to that of negative quantities, or quantities less than nothing, that algebra has sunk from the dignity of a science or object of the understanding and reasoning faculty, to the condition of an art or knack of managing quantities by the eye and the hand, with little or no interference of the understanding."

This technical process is supposed to be the excellence of the modern art; for, according to Montucla, they relieve us from the trouble of thinking.

We cannot enter into the investigation of each several tract, though all may be studied with advantage by the algebraist. But the remarks on the doctrine of the generation of equations are too important to be cursorily passed by. It is well known that Harriot was the first inventor of this system, and that it was adopted by Des Cartes; but it is not generally known, that without the supposition of negative quantities, Vieta had discovered and demonstrated the most important properties of equations, which are supposed to have been first pointed out by the new method. In the new method x is supposed to be equal successively to the roots a, b, c, d, &c. of an equation; and upon this supposition the following equations are formed, namely, $x-a=0$, $x-b=0$, $x-c=0$, &c. and these equations, multiplied together, produce, by certain changes of signs, any equation that can be proposed. But if x is equal to a, it cannot be equal to b, c, d, consequently the whole system falls to the ground. This is as evident as any proposition in Euclid. A mathematician must not take a second step till the first has been fairly established. But the conclusion drawn is true, and this the Baron proves, for without making $x-a=0$, $x-b=0$, and multiplying two nothings together, which is impossible, and an insuperable objection to the system, he shews how the equation may be produced in a simple easy manner, upon true principles. We will shew it in the case of a quadratic equation.

Let x be equal to a, and less than b. Therefore two equations may be formed and multiplied together, namely,

$$x = a,$$
$$b - x = b - x$$
$$\therefore \overline{bx - x^2 = ab - ax}$$
$$\therefore bx + ax - x^2 = ab,$$
$$\text{or } x \times \overline{b + a} - x^2 = ab.$$

Now let x be made equal to b, and consequently be greater than a. Therefore two equations may again be formed in the same manner, namely,

$$x = b,$$
$$x - a = x - a,$$
$$\therefore \overline{x^2 - ax = bx - ab},$$
$$\therefore bx + ax - x^2 = ab,$$
$$\text{or } x \times \overline{b + a} - x^2 = ab.$$

If for $b + a$ we substitute p, and for ab the term q, then $px - x^2 = q$; a general form for equations of the second order, in which p must represent the sum of the roots, and q their products. In the same manner, if it were necessary, other equations might be produced by multiplication. But the plan does not seem to be of any use, as the properties of equations

may be deduced in a simple manner, by analysing an equation of a higher form, and bringing it down to its simplest component part.

Having in several instances applied this mode, and shewn that the coefficient of the second term is equal to the sum of the roots of the third, to the sum of the products of each pair, and so on, where the equation has as many roots as it has dimensions, the Baron proceeds to prove that those truths were known to Vieta, and he first gives the fourteenth chapter of the original, and then transforms it into modern terms. The evidence is thus complete, and due honour must be ascribed to him who, ignorant of the science of the moderns that a quantity could be less than nothing, or a number impossible, deduced with the rigour of ancient demonstration those properties which, by many, are supposed to have been first made known by Harriot's invention.

The obscurity of Dr. Waring's writings has tortured many an algebraist, and as long as persons content themselves with mere general expressions without application to practice, it is not likely that they should form a clear idea of the excellence of any method for discovering the roots of a complicated equation. In a complete biquadratic $rx - qx^2 + px^3 - x^4 = s$, the various suppositions that may be made will make great changes in the estimate of a solution; and after a very exact comparison of the modes of Waring and Ferrari, the Baron gives the preference to that of the latter. Since the method given by Waring, though "it proceeds upon clear and certain grounds when it is applied only to trinomial quadratic equations, in which the cube of the unknown quantity is wanting, becomes too intricate and unsatisfactory when it is applied to quadrinomial biquadratic equations, or such as have all their terms complete."

Though we admire the perspicuity which prevails throughout the Baron's writings, we cannot but think that his love of it leads him frequently into unnecessary prolixity. There are certain operations with which a young algebraist must make himself acquainted before he makes any progress in science; but if he is qualified to read these tracts, the repetition of such operations is superfluous, and to the higher mathematician is irksome. Again, the old algebraists having been brought up under geometricians, naturally brought their terms, which belong to discrete quantity or number, to a resemblance of those of continued quantity or extension. Hence the terms quadratic, cubic, biquadratic, sursolid were used; but in algebra they express merely the number of times a number is multiplied into itself, and as this may be carried far beyond any analogy with geometry, it seems in these times to be useless to endeavour to preserve it.

ART. IV. *An Account of the Astronomical Discoveries of Kepler, including an Astronomical Review of the Systems which had successively prevailed before his Time. By* ROBERT SMALL, *D. D. F. R. S.* 8vo.

THE labours of Kepler are known to, and justly appreciated by, those only who have paid the deepest attention to physical astronomy. The confirmation of his theory by Sir I. Newton, and the comparative ease with which the laborious calculations of Kepler may now be performed, have superseded in great measure the necessity of studying his works; and the generality of the practical astronomers of the present day look no farther than Sir I. Newton as the origin of all the modern discoveries in this important science. But without Kepler this island could not have boasted of a Newton; and the progress of the human mind, from the first conceptions of sense to the matured reflections of judgment, is a subject which cannot but be highly gratifying to every man of science.

This subject is in the work before us developed with great judgment, and the writer's researches cannot be followed but by those who are deeply read in mathematical investigation. The principal motions and inequalities of the heavenly bodies are first described, and then the various theories which the ancients, particularly Ptolemy, adopted to explain them. The inefficacy of those theories is pointed out, and the steps taken by Copernicus previous to the establishment in his own mind of the true system, and the difficulties in his way which prevented his early promulgation of it, are investigated with great sagacity. It is not wonderful that the truth should not have been immediately acknowledged, when we reflect on the effect of prejudice over the human mind. To place the sun in

the centre of the system; to give motion to the earth, which the senses declared to be immoveable; to oppose the prevailing opinion of between five and six thousand years; to contradict the reputed truths of revelation; these were obstacles that required a most ardent mind to surmount; and we may rather wonder that Copernicus, a man of science, more attached to his study than to the world, should venture to permit his name to be attached to such heterodox sentiments. Death prevented him from suffering any evil consequences from his doctrine; and it perhaps was favourable to his reputation that his book could silently insinuate among the chosen few those notions which must have offended the great and little vulgar of those times, and brought upon the author the censures and punishments of the church.

There were difficulties also in his system which even were too great for some real astronomers to surmount, and these, added to ancient prejudice, gave birth to the system introduced by Tycho Brahe. He perceived clearly that the Ptolemaic system could no longer be maintained; but he was not prepared to dismiss the earth from its ancient station. The circular motion embraced by Copernicus served to keep him in his errors; but his numerous observations were particularly beneficial to science, and prepared the way for the calculations of Kepler, by which a new theory was to be established.

Kepler adopted the Copernican system, and in the year 1600 had the benefit of enjoying the society of Tycho Brahe, at Prague, in Bohemia. Fortunately the Dane was then employed in observations on Mars, with a view to verify its approaching opposition in the sign of Leo; and the degree of excentricity of this planet was a great advantage in discovering the nature of its orbit. Here the opposition between his and his patron's sentiments led to a most laborious examination of ancient tables, and calculations from them; and the inclination of the orbit, after repeated failures and many injurious methods, was at length discovered by him to be invariable; and after farther most laborious efforts to make his observations correspond with a circular motion, he found them ineffectual, and was reduced to the necessity of looking out for some other theory.

The labour employed by Kepler in endeavouring to preserve the motion of Mars in a circle is almost incredible, and the astronomer will appreciate it who gives himself the trouble of considering only the time employed in a few of the calculations which this work contains. From the suspicion that the orbit might not be circular to the conviction that it was not so, neither the time nor the progresses were so long as in previous attempts; yet within this time he had given up his first idea of calculating areas, and might have been lost in the labyrinth of his calculations, if he had not discovered the distances in a circular orbit to be totally inconsistent with those deduced from observation.

But much was to be done before his mind was satisfied, and the necessary steps to obtain this conviction are clearly pointed out; and after all, accident led the way to the great discovery, which was the foundation both of Kepler's and of Newton's fame. He had discovered that the breadth of the lunula, cut off by the real orbit of Mars from the excentric, was but half of that cut off by the oval; and that even at 90° from the apsides, where it was greatest, it did not exceed 660 parts of a semi-diameter, or 152350. His disappointment here was great; but fortunately for him whilst he was contemplating the subject, it occurred to him that these 660 parts were equal to 432 parts of a semi-diameter 100000, that is nearly to 429 the half of 858, which he had found to be in the same parts the extreme breadth of the lunula, cut off in the oval theory; and turning his attention to the greatest optical equation of Mars, which is between 5° 18′, and 5° 19′, he perceived that 429 was also the excess of the secant of 5° 18′ above the radius 100000. Here new light broke in upon him; he pursued it with ardour; the circular motion was given up for the elliptical, not without extreme perplexity, and "*almost approaching to derangement of mind*;" and he was occupied in the famous problem afterwards called the Keplerian, from the mean anomaly to find the true, or, by a line drawn from the focus, to divide a semi ellipse in any given ratio.

Nothing but the utmost ardour for science, indefatigable industry, and perfect knowledge of figures, could have enabled the discoverer of the facts relative to the planetary system, to ascertain that the planets moved in elliptical orbits, described equal areas around the sun in equal times, and that the squares of their periodical times varied as the cubes of their mean distances from the

sun. On reviewing his labours we cannot help exclaiming with the poet,

Tantæ molis erat romanam condere gentem.

To the work before us we would refer our mathematical readers for an insight into these labours; and though there are some oversights, from the distance we presume of the author from the press, we cannot withhold the tribute of applause for this effort to give the mathematical world a competent idea of the merits of Kepler.

ART. V. *Connoissance des Temps a l'Usage des Astronomes et des Navigateurs pour l'An XIII. de l'Ere de la Republique Française. Publiée par le Bureau des Longitudes à Paris.* 8vo.

THIS very excellent work cannot fail to be studied with attention by every astronomer. If in the parts which it has in common with our nautical almanac, it can by no means pretend to rival the annual publication of our astronomer royal, the additional parts give it an interest, which must make this work most sought after in foreign countries. The first part contains articles similar to those in the preceding volume; the second part commences with a very interesting history of astronomy for the year 8. In the commencement of it the historian, Jerome Lalande, passes in review various discoveries which have done honour to the eighteenth century. Among them are to be reckoned the discovery of a planet and eight secondaries, sixty-eight comets, the aberration and nutation of the stars, the passage of Venus over the sun, and hence the true distance of the sun and planets, calculations of the irregularities produced by attractions, particularly by those of Jupiter and Saturn, lunar tables exact to a quarter of a minute, and fifty thousand new stars; to these may be added the improvement of instruments, sectors, circles, chronometers, and the telescopes of Short and Herschel.

The commencement of the present century is distinguished by various events. A very curious one is likely to throw some important lights on the theory of the moon's motion. Among the manuscripts of Delisle was found a copy in Arabic of the work of Ebn Jounis, written in the tenth century; the original was discovered to be at Leyden, and the French ambassador, by means usual with the French, procured the transmission of it to Paris. It contains 400 pages in quarto, small character, and Caussin is employed in translating the whole work, which, with the original, will be given it is expected to the public.

The prizes for tables determining the longitude, apogee and node of the moon, were divided between Burg and Bouvard, who made their calculations from a great number of observations by Maskelyne. These have been increased by Burchhardt, and Parceval and Laplace have both added to the knowledge we have thus acquired on so difficult a subject.

Vidal is remarkable for the number of observations communicated of the planet Mercury, for he sees the planet every day, and even within a few minutes of the sun. This skilful astronomer lives at Mirepoix, where, says our author, "it is probable that no one knows so remarkable a character, whose fame is by this publication to be transmitted to the whole universe, and to posterity."

Mars has given employment to Michael Lalande, to Burchhardt, Triconecher, Oriani, Wurm, who have calculated his perturbations; and Bouvard has calculated those of all the planets, by the forms given by La Place.

The grand work on the meridian line from Dunkirk to Rodez has been printed, and Mechain is employed on the southern part. The observations of Vidal on the stars below the tropick, will soon be printed. From the description of the astrolabe found by Gale in Synesius, Delambre has been led to draw up an essay on the history of astrolabes, their construction and properties. Burchhardt has discovered a formula to represent the deviations of the needle observed at Paris since the year 1580, whence it appears that its greatest western deviation is thirty, and its greatest eastern deviation only twenty-three degrees.

The printing of the celestial history has been continued, as well as of the astronomical bibliography. The printing of the table of sines for the thousand parts of a quadrant, begun by Borda, has been completed under Delambre.—Triesmacher has collected the calculations of all the eclipses observed since the year 1747; and Goudin has determined all the circumstances which will

Digitized by Google

take place in the eclipse in the year 1847, the most considerable of the nineteenth century. Duvaucel, who has given delineations of eclipses for the last thirty years, has delineated also this important eclipse for every country, whence it appears that it will be annular in England, France, Turkey, and as far as Cochin-China.

Malaspina, whose voyage round the world had been announced, is still in prison, but his observations have been, or will be made use of in the charts now forming in Spain. The king of Denmark has erected a board of longitude, of which Bugge is made director. Schroeter, of Lilienthal, has established a manufactory of telescopes, whence they may be procured, it is said, at a tenth part of the price demanded in London. With his telescopes he has made many observations on Mercury, whose rotation on its axis he calculates at twenty-four hours five minutes. He has frequently seen also through them little streaks of very feeble light, which last two or three seconds; whence it is inferred that the hydrogen and oxygen extend very high in the atmosphere, for the meteors or globes of fire which astonish us at the distance of some hundred rods, become starry streaks at the distance of a league, and telescopical stars at the distance of three or four leagues.

From Egypt we learn the news of the great antiquity of their observations, and the news is received without any remark of its incongruity with historical records. We may allow an antiquity of four thousand years; but when they come to seven or fourteen thousand years, nothing but the credulity of French infidelity can entertain the supposition for a moment. The writer, if he has not overcome the prejudices of infidelity, has exhibited the instance of an extraordinary victory over another prejudice, which is very strong in his own country, and not uncommon in ours. He recommended an eminent astronomer for a particular service, but that astronomer was not a Frenchman. The reason appeared decisive against his being employed; and "in vain did I exert myself," says the writer, "to destroy the prejudice."

We have thus selected as much as our limits would permit us of this history, which, as it is to be continued annually, will excite an interest among astronomers throughout Europe. The zeal manifested by the French in this respect does them great credit; and it will be followed to the great advantage of science in other nations, if they only follow the French plan of forming a board consisting only of men eminent in the peculiar science which is intended to be encouraged.

A variety of useful tables follows this history: those on Mercury and Mars, and the occultations of some stars, are particularly worthy of notice. The report on the lunar tables, made by La Grange, La Place, Mechain, and Delambre to the board of longitude, is worthy of their high characters. In the History of Astronomy for the year IX. or 1801-1802, the obliquity of the ecliptic is determined to be 23° 28′ 6½″, and its secular diminution 36″. At Bologna some curious experiments on the fall of bodies have been made, to prove the rotation of the earth; and similar preparations are proposed to be made at Hamburgh. Burchhardt has calculated from fifteen thousand barometrical observations, the effects of different winds on their heights; whence he concludes that the mean height with a southern wind is 27 inches 11,3 lines, and with an eastern wind 28 inches 1,9 line. Its height on the shore of the Mediterranean is 28 inches 2,2 lines, and on the shore of the Atlantic 28 inches 2,8 lines.

Two excellent memoirs are given on the new planets Olbers and Piazzi. The longitude of various places is ascertained; and the quantity of 500 pages, which the government has ordered to be annually given to the public, is filled up with matter which must tend very much to promote astronomical researches.

ART. VI. *Recreations in Mathematics and Natural Philosophy.* By C. HUTTON.

THE Recreations in Mathematics, by Ozanam, have been long known and received with general approbation. Since his time many improvements have been made in science, suggesting a variety of new sources of amusement. Montucla seized them with his usual sagacity, and thus enriched the original work with his own observations. His efforts were well received in France, where the mathematics are cultivated with great success, and the readers are not only very numerous, but not to be discouraged by deductions derived from the first elements of arith-

metic and geometry. In this country the work will naturally labour under some disadvantages, though the translator has himself added to its utility by inserting several articles omitted by Montucla, and adapting others to the meridian of London. To those who have made some progress in the mathematics, the Recreations will be really such, and convey beside a great deal of instruction; and the editor deserves well of the mathematical world for giving to so valuable a foreign publication an English dress.

ART. VII. *Observations on Reversionary Payments; on Schemes for providing Annuities for Widows, and for Persons in old Age; on the Method of calculating the Values of Assurances on Lives; and on the National Debt. Also, Essays on different Subjects in the Doctrine of Life-Annuity and Political Arithmetic; a Collection of new Tables, and a Postscript on the Population of the Kingdom.* By RICHARD PRICE, *D. D. F. R. S. The Whole new arranged and enlarged, by the Addition of Algebraical and other Notes, the Solutions of several new Problems in the Doctrine of Annuities, and a General Introduction;* by WILLIAM MORGAN, *F. R. S.* Sixth Edition. 2 vols. 8vo.

THE several editions of this very valuable work are so well known to the public, that it is not necessary here to enlarge upon the contents of these volumes. It is needless to say that the contents of the former editions are arranged in the best manner, because from the acknowledged talents and abilities of the editor, whose life has been employed in the pursuits recommended by his uncle, and whose investigations, presented to the Royal Society, exceed any thing of the kind in the mathematical world, nothing else could be expected than that this edition should surpass all that have gone before it. The work is absolutely necessary to all who engage in the numerous plans at present for providing for future payments dependent on lives; and the experience the editor has had in one of the greatest magnitude, qualifies him to determine with great precision on the probable stability of those which are born only to wither in a short time, or to take deep root and flourish. Indeed, the advice given by him cannot be too often repeated, that every society of this kind should every five or six years calculate its real value, whence its rise or decline may be determined, or proper correctives be applied. The fluctuating state of property makes a great difference in all these calculations. If the plan is made accurately, according to the Northampton tables, when money is at five per cent. interest, a great change must necessarily take place in the circumstances of the society, if money should rise or fall to six or four per cent. The present state of the country makes these things very precarious; and if Dr. Price was alarmed for the state of the nation, the editor seems to be justified in his additional fears.

"Had Dr. Price lived to witness the profusion of the last ten years, he would probably have moderated the severity of this censure. The debt which appalled him, when it amounted to 230 millions, has lately swollen to the enormous mass of 540 millions; and the yearly expenditure of a peace-establishment, which he considered insupportable at 16 millions, will in future require an annual taxation of more than 34 millions!—The paper-circulation, which he so justly deplored when he first published this work, appears to have been then only in its infancy: it has now completely inundated the country. The coin has disappeared, and the bank, for whose credit he was apprehensive, has for many years ceased to pay its notes in specie. The American war, which he regarded as injurious and disgraceful to the kingdom, has been succeeded by another infinitely more ruinous, and more degrading in its consequences. Had he therefore lived to witness these, and a long train of other calamities, which are too deeply felt to need the recital of them—had he lived to behold the man, during whose administration they were produced, retiring from office in triumph, and congratulating the nation on the envied state of prosperity to which it had been lately exalted, he would have changed the object of his resentment, and acknowledged that Lord NORTH had long lost the distinction assigned to him in this preface."

The variety of tables in this work, and the mathematical demonstrations of intricate problems, make it of peculiar advantage to every one engaged in this species of calculation; and the science cannot be under better auspices than those of the editor, who, while he is embalming his uncle's memory, is laying the surest foundation for his own well-deserved fame.

Digitized by Google

ART. VIII. *An Analysis of the Principles of Natural Philosophy.* By M. YOUNG, D. D. 8vo.

THE heads of a course of lectures are contained in this work, which will be useful only to tutors who are engaged in a similar employment, or those who having gone through a course of natural philosophy, wish to refresh their memory, by reviewing frequently the objects of their studies. Demonstrations are very seldom given to any article; but where they are given, it is done with great taste and judgment. Mechanics, hydrostatics, aerostatics, hydraulics, pneumatics, acoustics, optics, electricity, magnetism, are analysed in the order specified. The work would have been rendered much more valuable by references to the works where a demonstration might be found of each article: this is done sometimes, but much too sparingly; and we cannot say that the author is always very successful in his definitions. Thus we are told that space is the order of things which co-exist, and time is the order of things which exist in succession; whence few persons, we apprehend, will find any assistance in forming to themselves an idea of the things defined.

In demonstrations we have observed that the author is more successful, and we will insert one on the greatest velocity communicated through an elastic ball to another at rest.

"Let A and C be two given bodies, between which is inserted the body X of intermediate magnitude; if the velocity of A be called a, the velocity of $C = \frac{2Aa}{A+X} \times \frac{2X}{X+C} = \frac{4Aa}{A + \frac{AC}{X} + X + C}$, a maximum; but the numerator is given, therefore this quantity will be greatest, when the denominator is least, that is, when $\frac{AC}{X} + X$ is least, because A and C are constant; now the rectangle $\frac{AC}{X} \times X$ is a given quantity, being equal to AC; therefore the sum of $\frac{AC}{X}$ and X is least when they are equal, that is, when $\frac{AC}{X} = X$, and $AC = X^2$; that is, when X is a mean proportional between A and C."

The difficulties attending the problem of Huygens on the ultimate velocities of bodies descending in fluids are well known. The demonstration of this author is well adapted to the subject.

"Mathematically speaking, bodies descending in fluids will not acquire their ultimate and uniform velocity in any finite time whatever.

"The absolute force with which the body descends is the difference between its weight and the weight of an equal bulk of the fluid; and this difference divided by the weight of the body will be the accelerating force, which let us suppose equal to d; now the resisting force increases as the square of the velocity v, and therefore will be equal to some constant quantity multiplied into v^2; let this quantity be e, therefore the absolute accelerating force, upon the whole, will be $d - ev^2$. Let the constant force d be represented by the given line AC, and let the decrement of this force by the resistance, be AK, and consequently the absolute accelerating force = KC; also let the absolute velocity AP of the body be a mean proportional between AC and AK, and therefore in the subduplicate ratio of AK. Let the increment of the resisting force be KL, and the contemporaneous increment of the velocity be PQ; with the centre C, and the rectangular asymptotes AC, CH, let the hyperbola BNS be described, meeting the ordinates AB, KN, LO. Because AK : : AP^2, the moment of the former KL will be as the increment 2 APQ of the latter; that is, as AP × KC, for the increment PQ of the velocity is as the absolute accelerating force KC; therefore KL × KN : : AP × KC × KN : : AP, because KC × KN is constant. Therefore the indefinitely little hyperbolic area KNOL : : AP. And the hyperbolic area ABOL is composed of the particles KNOL always proportional to the space described with that velocity, the particle of time in which KL is generated being given. Consequently, when KC the absolute accelerating force vanishes, that is, when the motion of the body becomes uniform, the space described ABSHCA, and therefore the time, will be infinite."

ART. IX. *A Practical Treatise of Perspective, on the Principles of Dr. Brook Taylor.* By E. EDWARDS, *Associate and Teacher of Perspective in the Royal Acad.* 4to. pp. 350.

TECHNICAL and scientific men are constantly at variance. The technical man, without understanding a single principle of the art by which he makes his fortune, produces a work whose execution the scientific man neither can nor

desires to emulate. What is the use then of science, says the artist, and why should I waste my time on the acquisition of that which cannot render me an equivalent return? Thus most of the artists are in the situation of a land-surveyor, who not long ago was asked what were the best books to read to obtain knowledge of his art. There are none, he replied; the only way to learn it is by becoming apprentice: and the good man, on farther examination, did not really know that there had been such a being in nature as Euclid, though he was then employed at a great expence on considerable inclosures. Artists then who catch up only the floating ideas of their art, must be content to grovel on like the land-surveyor: they may produce many pleasing effects in the line in which they have been brought up, but they cannot go beyond their rude instructions; they are merely workmen, and must not aspire, without risque of exposing themselves, to any eminence in their profession.

On the other hand, the artist who could not stir without rule or compass, must evidently be as incapable of producing a work of genius. There are limits of ignorance and exactness, within which his sphere of action is confined; and to know them well is a great acquisition. Numbers transgress daily the common rules of perspective, because they have considered them as unnecessary to their art, and the first acquisition of them has appeared difficult. To prescribe the reading of Euclid to the young Apelles, would appear a task insupportable; yet if an hour of a day for the first year of his professional life, from fifteen to sixteen, was employed in this study, he would find it a very easy matter, and for ever after be sensible of the benefits derived from this easy study.

The author of this work, a very valuable work to every young artist, is sensible of the propriety of this advice. Perspective cannot be understood without a knowledge of angles, lines, and surfaces. He dedicates a few pages to this knowledge; but the student who enters upon the study of the other parts of his work, with a complete knowledge derived from Euclid's eleventh book of the properties of planes, will feel no embarrassments in understanding every principle laid down in the theory of perspective. They who are content with the ruler and the compass, and the mere direction how to use them, feel no confidence in a difficult operation, compared with those who see the grounds of each process, and are able to demonstrate the truth of every thing they are about to perform.

The work is entirely practical, and derived from the best work written upon the subject, which every body knows to have proceeded from Dr. Brook Taylor. After explaining and defining, in an easy manner, the principal terms in the art, it lays the basis properly in the elucidation of a square and a cube, and thence proceeds in an easy and gradual manner through more complicated and difficult figures. The measurements are in general well laid down, and the young student in the academy who will take his rule and compasses, and copy, on a scale of his own, every figure in this work, which he may, with very little interruption to his other pursuits, perform in the course of a couple of years, will find at the end of that time that he has obtained an accuracy of knowledge of inestimable use to him in his future career.

We recommend particularly to his attention the discourse at the end of the work, a discourse replete with information, and from which painter, sculptor, and architect may derive much useful information. It is singular that the study of perspective should be so much neglected by the latter; but there are reasons in the following extract to convince him of his error, in neglecting so important a study.

"The architect should always be possessed of the science of perspective, and that in no trifling degree; for by its assistance he will be enabled to determine with himself, and to demonstrate to others, the future effects of his designs and drawings, whenever he is employed to erect buildings.

"But the practice of making geometrical or orthographical drawings, is by custom so firmly established among thearchi tects, that little hope can be entertained of introducing any other mode of drawing their designs. Yet, in consequence of this general practice, many able men have found themselves deceived when they saw those designs executed; while their disappointment was no more than a natural effect of the established practice: for in the orthographical or geometrical drawings, all the parts are described equally prominent and visible, as well those which recede as those which project; but in the building, the parts which recede will appear lower than those which project; they will even be sometimes concealed, if viewed from certain points; which circumstance leads to another observation, that will encourage the

Digitized by Google

architect in the practice and study of perspective.

"All public buildings, particularly those in towns, are generally placed on some particular spot or situation; consequently they can be seen only from particular stations. The architect will therefore do well to examine and consider those stations or points of view from which his building will be seen, and then conduct the design of the exterior elevation of his edifice accordingly. Yet all the precaution here recommended will be useless to him, who does not understand perspective, or who will not practise it.

"It may be objected that making perspective drawings would be attended with too much trouble, and be inconvenient to the workman; because he could not, without equal skill in the science, be able to find out the measures of the parts by the scale; but this objection will vanish, when it is observed, that in the composition of great works every method should be practised which can ensure success: and that the making some additional sketches or drawings in perspective, although the minute parts are not determined by the absolute rules, will be sufficient; especially, if those sketches are of the parts of which there may be any doubt concerning their future effect; and in many cases this will save the expence of a model. Another strong recommendation to this practice is, that an architect labours under a disadvantage not known to the painter, which is, that he cannot alter or correct his works after they are finished; and therefore it is more particularly incumbent on him to guard against errors or mistakes by all the means in his power.

"But should the advice here given be slighted, in what relates to the designs being drawn perspectively, yet let the architect be assured, that he who is master of the science will possess resources by which he will be enabled to dispose particular parts of his buildings with such art, as may produce very striking and uncommon effects. It is true, that there are no examples of such artificial effects to be seen in this country, and but few in others, except in theatres. Yet such are by no means impracticable; therefore this hint is offered, which may be greatly improved by the skilful architect, who is master of perspective; but which will be useless to him who is ignorant of it."

ART. X. *Evening Amusements; or, the Beauty of the Heavens displayed. In which several striking Appearances to be observed on various Evenings in the Heavens during the Year* 1804 *are described: and several Means within Doors are pointed out by which the Time of young Persons may be innocently, agreeably, and profitably employed. Intended to be continued annually.* By W. FREND, *Esq. M. A. and Fellow of Jesus College, Cambridge.* 8vo. *pp.* 187.

AMONG the numerous excellent books that have been composed within the last thirty years for the use of young persons, there is not one which has succeeded in giving a familiar description of the appearances of the heavens, and the fundamental truths of astronomy.—This deficiency is at length supplied by the work before us, which is admirably well adapted to interest young persons in the changes that are constantly taking place among the heavenly bodies, and to familiarise them with many curious and important phenomena, of which numbers even of well educated people, for want of so skilful and scientific a guide, are almost wholly ignorant.

We select the following paragraph as a specimen of the manner in which Mr. Frend has executed his design.

"On the twenty-third at sun-set the moon appears in the eastern part of the heavens, and near to it a bright star, which is the second star in the Bull, being between one and two degrees to the north-west of her. At half past five the three stars in the Ram are on the meridian, at a quarter past seven the Pleiades are on the meridian, at eight Aldebaran, and at a quarter past nine the Moon, when the most beautiful constellation in the heavens is to be discovered also on the meridian, and the observer will be gratified with an effulgence, with which the most brilliant collection of diamonds bears no comparison. Carry your eye down from the Moon, in the direction of the meridian, about twenty-six degrees, and three bright stars in a line, at the distance of about a degree between the two adjacent ones, will arrest your attention. These three stars now cross the meridian line in the direction nearly from south-east to north-west, and below them are three more stars of smaller magnitude, in the direction of the meridian. The first three stars are called the Belt, the three smaller stars are called the Sword of Orion; the constellation, to which they belong, taking its name from a fabulous hero of ancient times. In the meridian, about ten degrees above the first star in the Belt, are three small stars, which are in the head of Orion, and about five degrees to the south-east of these three stars, is a star brighter than any other star in this constellation, which is the first star of Orion, or the star in his right shoulder: and about four degrees to the south-west is the third star of Orion, or the star in his left shoulder. About nine degrees to the south-west of the middle star in the Belt, is the second star of Orion, or

Digitized by Google

star in his left foot. When your curiosity is sufficiently gratified with the singular position and beauty of the Belt and Sword, and brightness of the first, second, and third stars of Orion, an effulgence, to the south-east of the Belt, and about twenty-three degrees from the middle star of the Belt, cannot fail of striking you with wonder and pleasure. This is the most brilliant of the fixed stars, and is called Sirius, or the first star of the Great Dog. At present its position and brilliancy, hereafter its history, will excite your attention."

Digitized by Google

CHAPTER XXI.

NATURAL HISTORY.

THE publications of the present year in this department of science, will scarcely admit of being exhibited in one regular synoptic view. The most important entirely new works are, beyond all dispute, Lambert's Description of the Genus Pinus, and Montague's History of British Shells. Dr. Shaw's General Zoology advances in its course with undiminished excellence; and Dr. Turton's additional volume of his translation of the Systema Naturæ will be as acceptable to the English student of botany, as his former ones were to the zoologist. Mr. Daniel's Rural Sports affords many instructive articles to gratify the naturalist, but will be read with more avidity by a different class of readers. The new Dictionary of Natural History published at Paris, must be considered at present as only begun, but the celebrated authors who have made themselves responsible for its several articles, cannot fail to raise the expectation of the public, and to excite an earnest desire of its continuance and completion. Spallanzani's Tracts must always bear a high value with those who wish to become acquainted with the general physiology of animals and vegetables, but as the first edition of the English translation has been published several years, it would not have been entitled to our present notice, if the second edition had not been corrected throughout, and considerably enlarged.

ART. I. *General Zoology, or Systematic Natural History: By* GEORGE SHAW, *M. D. F. R. S. &c.* Vol. 4.

IT is pleasant after a short separation to rejoin an intelligent fellow-traveller, from whose extensive acquaintance with the country, and liberal communications concerning it, we have already derived much entertainment and instruction; and though we are not likely to accompany him again through scenes equally luxuriant and romantic, we still associate with his person, the prospects which we have formerly enjoyed, and find something to delight us in our passage over many a dreary heath. With sensations of this kind we take up the fourth volume of Dr. Shaw's General Zoology. We recognize the countenance and manners of an old friend. We enter at once into his stile of composition; and though his present subject may not promise us all the satisfaction which the former part of his work afforded, we are persuaded that we shall not rise from it disappointed and displeased.

Our great philologist, essayist, and biographer has pronounced with his usual oracular authority, that what is not known cannot be told. We shall not, therefore, blame our guide, if he do not impart to us all the knowledge we wish to obtain concerning the class of animals on which he has now entered. They are inhabitants of an element in which we ourselves cannot live; and which consequently affords us but few opportunities of observing their particular habits and modes of life; even those who frequent our rivers and sport in our shallow streams, offer themselves only casually and transiently to our notice. They perform some of the most important functions of their being, either in the deepest abysses of the waters, or conceal-

Digitized by Google

ed from our view by shelving rocks and aquatic plants. In fact we know little of such as are most familar to us, besides their external form, their inward structure, the arts which are employed to effect their destruction, and the gratification which they give to us when they are served up at our tables. How little, then, can we even hope to learn concerning the numerous kinds which are natives of the ocean! The present volume affords a proof, that some of them constantly remain at its bottom, and can never become known to the naturalist, if they do not happen to be gorged by ravenous individuals of other kinds, and if those individuals do not rise to the surface and become the spoil of the fisherman before they have digested their own prey.

Still, however, it is desirable that all which is actually known concerning them should be presented to us in a scientific form, and adorned with the graces of composition, as far as the nature of the subject will admit. Within the space of less than half a century, our acquaintance with nature has, indeed, been wonderfully increased by the means of numerous voyages and travels to almost every part of the globe, made by professed naturalists, who have taken with them equal capacity to distinguish and curiosity to explore. The discoveries and observations of these, Dr. Shaw has collected with his usual diligence and exactness; nor has he neglected to consult the writings of the best compilers and arrangers. To the Count Cepede and Dr. Bloch he has been much indebted, and has made some happy alterations and improvements from the suggestions of his own experienced judgment. The present volume, which like each of the former three, inconveniently consists of two distinct, and in the present case, very unequal segments, contains the natural history of the apodal, the jugular, and the thoracic fishes. The next volume, which is to be published early in the spring of 1804, will contain the abdominal and the cartilaginous ones, and will complete this part of the work.

The detail of the several genera in each order, and species in each genus, is preceded by a general description of the external and internal parts of fishes, chiefly taken from the works of Dr. Monro. It is drawn up with distinctness and precision: but we cannot help expressing a wish, that for the sake of general readers, the anatomical terms had been a little more familiarly explained. This introduction might also have been extended with advantage to an account of such peculiarities in the general œconomy and manners of fishes as have been sufficiently ascertained. For though it must be confessed that comparatively little is yet known concerning them, it is certain that much more might have been collected than is to be found in the present work. Dr. Shaw's Zoology has acquired a popular reputation which it will not support, if it do not unite entertainment with instruction, and please as much by the variety, as by the accuracy of its information. The account of the three principal, and as it should seem only acute organs of sense in this part of the animal creation will give general satisfaction.

"The organ of smelling is large, and the animals have a power of contracting and dilating the entry to it as they have occasion: it seems to be mostly by their acute smell that they discover their food, for their tongue seems not to have been designed for a very nice sensation, being of a pretty firm cartilaginous substance; and common experience evinces that their sight is not of so much use to them as their smell, in searching for their nourishment. If you throw a fresh worm into the water, a fish shall distinguish it at a considerable distance; and that this is not done by the eye is plain, from observing that after the same worm has been a considerable time in the water, and lost its smell, no fishes will come near it, but if you take out the bait, and make several little incisions into it, so as to let out more of the odoriferous effluvia, it shall have the same effect as formerly. Now it is certain that had the animals discovered this bait with their eyes, they would have come equally to it in both cases. In consequence of their smell being the principal means they have of discovering their food, we may frequently observe them allowing themselves to be carried down with the stream, that they may ascend again leisurely against the current of the water; thus the odoriferous particles swimming in that medium, being applied more forcibly to their organ of smell, produce a stronger sensation. The optic nerves in fishes are not confounded with one another in their middle progress betwixt their origin and the orbit, but the one passes over the other without any communication;

Digitized by Google

so that the nerve which comes from the left side of the brain goes distinctly to the right eye, and vice versâ; indeed it should seem not to be necessary for the optic nerves of fishes to have the same kind of connexion with each other, as those of man have; for their eyes are not placed in the fore-part, but in the sides of the head; and consequently they cannot look so conveniently at any object with both eyes at the same time.

"The crystalline lens in fishes is a complete sphere, and more dense than in terrestrial animals, that the rays of light coming from the water might be sufficiently refracted.

"As fishes are continually exposed to injuries in the uncertain element in which they reside, and as they are in perpetual danger of becoming a prey to the larger ones, it was necessary that their eyes should never be shut; and as the cornea is sufficiently washed by the element they live in, they are not provided with palpebræ: but, as in the current itself the eye must be exposed to several injuries, there was a necessity that it should be sufficiently defended; which, in effect, it is, by a firm, pellucid membrane, seeming to be a continuation of the cuticula stretched over it; the epidermis is very proper for this purpose, as being insensible, and destitute of vessels, and consequently not liable to obstructions, and *thus becoming opake.* In the eye of the skate tribe there is a digitated curtain which hangs over the pupil, and which may shut out the light when the animal rests, being somewhat similar to the tunica adnata of other animals.

"Altho' it was formerly much doubted whether fishes possessed the sense of hearing, yet there can be little doubt of it now; since it is found that they have a complete organ of hearing, as well as other animals, and likewise that the water in which they live is *proved to be* a good medium. Fishes, particularly of the skate kind, have a bag at some distance behind the eyes, which contains a fluid and a soft cretaceous substance, and supplies the place of the vestibule and cochlea: there is a nerve distributed upon it, similar to the portio mollis in man: they have semicircular canals, which are filled with a fluid, and communicate with the bag, they have likewise a meatus externus, which leads to the internal ear. The cod-fish, and others of the same shape, have an organ of hearing somewhat similar to the former, but instead of a soft substance contained in the bag, there is a hard cretaceous stone."

We are sorry to be compelled to observe, that through the whole work, as well as in the preceding quotation, there are numerous instances of negligence, in some of which it is impossible to reconcile the construction with the rules of grammar. Three of these we have printed in italics. The first sentence of the last paragraph but one is particularly ill formed.

In the order Apodes, Dr. Shaw has introduced ten genera, in addition to the eight which appear in the 12th edition of the Systema Naturæ; Anguilla, Synbranchus, Sphagebranchus, Monopterus, Odontognathus, Comephorus, Triurus, Leptocephalus, Stylephorus, and Sternoptyx.

Linnæus included in his genus Muræna, not only the celebrated Roman muræna which has no pectoral fins, but also the common English eel, and several others which are furnished with them. Gmelin has unaccountably followed him in this disposition, as far as the muræna romana and colubrina are concerned, though there actually appears in his edition of the Systema Naturæ, a new genus expressly formed for four species not known to Linnæus, all distinguished by the want of pectoral fins. Bloch has adopted his genus, and has very properly added to it the Roman muræna: but through a strange want of judgment, has called the eel and its congeners, muræna, a name by which they have never been known in any age or country of the world, and has retained Gmelin's generic name, gymnothorax, for the muræna and its true congeners, who are destitute of pectoral fins. It cannot be denied that the latter name happily expresses the essential generic character, but we much doubt whether, on that account, a name should be ejected which has been for ages in peaceable possession, and has, moreover, the sanction of classic authority. Dr. Shaw, with a due regard to prescriptive right, has reinstated the ancient name, and has also restored to the proper eels their ancient designation, anguilla: but we think that he should have placed the genus muræna before that of anguilla, as a better connecting link with the serpents in the preceding class. To the Linnæan anguillæ he has made no addition, but has fallen into two unfortunate oversights in copying from the

Digitized by Google

Systema Naturæ the synonyms of the conger and serpens. Under the conger, instead of giving the generic specific character, he has repeated verbatim that of his vulgaris, the muræna anguilla of Linnæus; to the serpens, he has attributed that which belongs to the ophis, and which he himself had actually transcribed as such in the preceding page *.

The genera Synbranchus, Sphagebranchus and Monopterus all agree with the muræna in having no pectoral fins. The first differs from it in having only one spiracle, and the second in having two; in both, placed beneath the neck. The monopterus differs from all the three in having only a caudal fin, and in the position of its nostrils, which are placed between or above the eyes, instead of being, as in most fishes, before them. The genus synbranchus is taken up from Dr. Bloch, and has only two species, both natives of Surinam. The sphagebranchus and the monopterus have each only a single species. The former is adopted also from Bloch, and is conjectured by our author to be the muræna cœca of Linnæus. Bloch's specimen was received from Tranquebar. The latter, also a native of the East Indies, is described by Cepede, from the MSS. of Commerson, by whom it was considered as a species of muræna. We are inclined to think that Commerson was right in his judgment. The absence of pectoral fins is an admirable generic character, appropriate, comprehensive and exclusive. The position and number of the spiracles, and the want of one or more fins besides the pectoral ones, afford excellent marks for specific characters, or where they are found in more than one species, for a subdivision into families. It is to be lamented that there is no figure of the monopterus.

To the genus gymnotus whose essential generic character is the want of a dorsal fin, two species are appended, from Gmelin's edition of the Systema, which are furnished with that limb. For this Dr. Shaw apologizes, and pleads a compleat resemblance in every other respect; but the apology does not appear to us to be admissible. Generic characters, like statute laws, should never be infringed, as long as they are suffered to exist. If, by a change of circumstances, they become inadequate to their original design, they should, by all means, be repealed, and better substituted in their place; But while they continue a part of the established code, their authority should be sacred. Nothing places the imperfection of natural history in a more striking light, than the frequent occurrence of such qualifying expressions as *in most species, most generally*, &c. in generic characters.

The account of the gymnotus electricus, the celebrated electrical eel, as it has been generally called, is curious and instructive.

"The peculiar species of electricity or galvanism, exerted at pleasure by this extraordinary animal, is such as greatly to surpass that of the torpedo, so long the subject of admiration both in ancient and modern times. The electric gymnotus is a native of the warmer regions of Africa and America, where it inhabits the larger rivers, and is particularly found in those of Surinam: in Africa it is said chiefly to occur in the branches of the river Senegal. It is a fish of a disagreeable appearance, bearing a general resemblance to a large eel, though somewhat thicker in proportion, and of a much darker colour, being commonly of an uniform blackish brown. It is usually seen of the length of 3 or 4 feet, but is said to arrive at a far larger size, specimens occasionally occurring of six, seven, or even of ten feet in length. It was first made known to the philosophers of Europe about the year 1671, when its wonderful properties were announced to the French academy by Mons. Richer, one of the gentlemen sent out by the academy to conduct some mathematical observations in Cayenne. This account, however, seems to have been received with a degree of cautious scepticism by the major part of European naturalists, and it was not till towards the middle of the late century that a full and general conviction appears to have taken place; the observations of Mons. Condamine, Mr. Ingram, Mr. Gravesend, and others, then conspiring to prove that the power of this animal consists in a species of real electricity, being conducted by similar conducting substances, and intercepted by others of an opposite nature. Thus, on touching the fish with the fingers, the same sensation is perceived as on touching a charged vial; being sometimes felt as far as the elbows; and if touched by both hands, an electrick shock is conveyed through the breast in the usual manner. Fermin in particular, who during his residence in Surinam, had frequent opportunities of examining the animal, demonstrated by experiment that fourteen slaves holding each other by the hands, received the shock at the same instant;

* Since the above was written, we have found the latter error mentioned in the table of errata, but the former remains unnoticed.

Digitized by Google

the first touching the fish with a stick*, and the last dipping his hand into the water in which it was kept. The experiments of Dr. Bancroft were equally satisfactory. After this, viz, about the year 1773, Mr. Williamson, in a letter from Philadelphia to Mr. Walsh, so celebrated for his observations relative to the electricity of the torpedo, communicated his own highly satisfactory experiments on the gymnotus. On touching the animal with one hand, in such a manner as to irritate it considerably, while the other was held at a small distance from it in the water, he experienced as strong a shock as from a charged Leyden vial. The shock was also readily communicated through a circle formed by eight or ten persons at once; the person at one extremity putting his hand in the water, near the fish, while the other touched the animal. It would be tedious to recite all the various modifications of these experiments, and it is sufficient to add, that all conspired to prove the genuine voluntary electricity of the animal; though occasionally exhibiting some variations from the phenomena of common electricity. It is by this extraordinary faculty that the gymnotus supports its existence: the smaller fishes and other animals which happen to approach it, being instantly stupified, and thus falling an easy prey to the electrical tyrant. So powerful is the shock which this fish in its native waters is capable of exerting, that it is said to deprive almost entirely of sense and motion those who are exposed to its approach, and is therefore much dreaded by those who bathe in the rivers it inhabits."

We observe with pleasure that this extract is written in Dr. Shaw's best manner, and affords a sufficient proof, that when he pays due attention to his language, he is a correct and elegant writer. The article is concluded by two accurate descriptions, drawn out to a considerable length; the one of its exterior form, by Dr. Garden, of Charles Town in South Carolina; the other of its internal structure, by Mr. Hunter: both copied from the 65th volume of the Philosophical Transactions.

The genus odontognathus was instituted by Cepede, and derives its name from two strong moveable laminæ or processes attached to the upper jaw. It consists of a single species, which is common about the coast of Cayenne in South America.

The genera comephorus and triurus have been formed also by Cepede, each for the sake of a single species.

The comephorus is so called, we presume, from the bristle-like rays of the second dorsal fin, which stretch beyond the membrane; but as such bristle-like rays are by no means peculiar to it, a more appropriate name might have been devised. The Count is not always happy in the formation of generic names. Dr. Pallas first discovered it in the Lake Baikal. By him it was improperly referred to the jugular fishes, and described as a species of callionymus. As such it appears in Gmelin.

The triurus, or triple tail, owes its name to the unusual prolongation of the anal and dorsal fins: the former almost as far as the termination of the tail, the latter rather beyond it, producing the appearance of three tails. No more than five individuals have hitherto been seen; and these were discovered by Commerson in the stomach of a scomber, in the Indian seas.

The leptocephalus, tho' unknown to Linnæus, has for some time been familiar to naturalists, from the description of Mr. Pennant, in whose British Zoology it was first introduced to the notice of the public. Its generic name, which expresses the smallness of its head, was given it by Gronovius.

The stylephorus, so called on account of the curious position of its eyes, which stand on pillars somewhat similar to those of the genus cancer, excepting that they are considerably broader, was first described and figured by Dr. Shaw himself in the Linnæan Transactions, and afterwards in the Naturalist's Miscellany. The description and figure are copied in the present work. It is a native of the West Indian seas.

The sternoptyx, so named from the singular fold on each side of its breast, had already appeared in Gmelin. No more than a single species is known, and that is a native of the American seas.

In the thoracic order, the new genera are, gymnetrus, vandellius, macrourus, gobiomorus, acanthurus, eques, trichopus, gomphosus, ophiocephalus, lonchurus, holocentrus, bodianus and trachichthys.

The genus scarus had already been adopted by Gmelin.

The gymnetrus ascanii, which derives its generic name from the absence of the anal fin, has long been known to fishermen in the northern seas, preceding or accompanying the shoals of herrings, and therefore called by them the king of the herrings, on account of its superior size, has only within a few years engaged the attention of naturalists. It was first

Digitized by Google

* Probably a green or moist one.

described by Dr. Ascanius from a specimen, the length of which was ten feet, and its diameter about six inches; the diameter, as Dr. Shaw's text informs us, being equal, through its whole length; but in the figure annexed, the diameter sensibly diminishes from the anus; and we presume that, when he speaks of its length, he means to include the whole fish from the extremity of the head to that of the tail. The construction of the ventral fins is extremely singular. The ventral fins, says Dr. Shaw, if they can be said to deserve the name, consist of a pair of extremely long single rays or processes, terminated by a small ovate expanded tip or finny extremity. Besides two varieties which may possibly prove distinct species, one drawn and described by Dr. Russel, from a specimen taken near Visagapatam, the other described by Dr. Shaw, from an imperfect specimen in the British Museum, two other species are added: the first, an excellent one, with a striking specific difference; the other of a dubious kind, described and copied by Cepede, from a coloured Chinese drawing. It is destitute, says Dr. Shaw, of the ventral fins or appendages so remarkable in the other species. But if we may judge from the situation in which the fins are placed in the figure, we should rather consider it as having large ventral fins and no pectoral ones. On the accuracy of a Chinese drawing, there can, however, be no dependence. If the pectoral fins happened to be small, they would be passed over as unworthy of notice, by an artist who could have no idea of their importance in a scientific classification. It is, therefore, to be wished that no descriptions, taken solely from a drawing, should ever be admitted into a system of natural history, unless they are known to have been made by a real naturalist.

The genus vandellius contains only a single species, found very rarely in the Mediterranean and Atlantic seas, and considered by Dr. Vandell of Coimbra, as closely allied to the genus trichiurus. It is described from a specimen in the British Museum.

The only species of macrourus, at present known, has been detached from the genus coryphenus by Dr. Bloch, partly on account of its head, which does not precisely answer to those of the corypheni, but chiefly on account of its long, gradually tapering tail, whence the generic name is formed. It differs also in having two dorsal fins; but that circumstance is not of consequence enough to be admitted into the generic character.

The genus gobiomorus was instituted by Cepede, and contains those species which differ from the genuine gobies, in having the rays of the ventral fins separate, instead of being united, as in that genus, into a funnel. This dissimilarity suggested, we suppose, the latter part of the compound name, μορος from μειρω, divido: but in its present composition, it rather conveys the idea of a divided goby, than of a goby with a divided ventral fin; not to mention that μορος is generally used by Greek authors to denote the portion assigned to any one by fate, sometimes the stroke of death, sometimes judicial punishment, and sometimes any calamity. The Greek language certainly runs with great facility into expressive and pleasing compounds, and is therefore generally to be preferred in the formation of characteristic generic names, but it does not follow that no Greek compound can be harsh or ambiguous. The new genus in Dr. Shaw's arrangement contains three of Gmelin's gobies, and three others from Cepede; but from two of these, that author has formed distinct genera, calling one gobiomoriodes, and the other gobiesox, because the position of the dorsal and anal fins gives it in some respect the habit of a pike. The Count has a violent passion for splitting genera.

The genus acanthurus consists of such species of the Linnæan genus chætodon, as, in contradiction to the principal character of that genus, have moderately broad and strong teeth, rather than slender, setaceous ones; they are also furnished on each side of the tail with a strong spine: this last particular has afforded an excellent generic name; the former rendered it absolutely necessary, either to change the generic character, or to eject these intruders, who do not correspond with it.

From the same genus the solitary species of eques has also been separated by Dr. Bloch, on account of its teeth which are not disposed in a single row, but in several concentric ranges. The nature of the teeth themselves is not mentioned in the description, but as from the figure they appear to resemble those of the acanthuri, and as the manner in which they are arranged would have formed a good specific difference, there seems to us no sufficient reason for esta-

Digitized by Google

blishing a new genus. There are, moreover, in several of the acanthuri, bands similar to those from which the generic name, eques, is fancifully chosen.

The genus trichopus is characterized by a compressed body, and ventral fins with an extremely long filament. It consists of five species, which are distributed by Cepede into three new genera, which he calls osphronemus, trichodopus, and monodactylus. As all the first four have the long filament of the ventral fin, and differ only in the number of its rays, they may with great propriety be united in one genus; but the fifth, the monodactylus, wanting that essential particular, cannot be a tricopus as long as the generic character and generic name are suffered to remain.

The generic name and character of gomphosus are taken from the jaws which are lengthened into a tubular snout, and in which the Count Cepede fancied he found some resemblance to a nail or wedge. It contains two species, both natives of the Indian seas.

The two genera ophiocephalus and lonchurus, the former so named from the dissimilar scales of its head as in snakes, the latter on account of its lanceolate tail, were both introduced by Dr. Bloch. They are acknowledged by Dr. Shaw to have a greater affinity to the genus sciæna than any other; and as they agree with it in its only essential character, the scaly head, we know not why they should be separated from it.

With the generic characters of holocentrus and bodianus we confess ourselves completely posed. They stand verbatim thus:

HOLOCENTRUS.

Habit of the genus perca.

Gill-covers scaly, serrated, and aculeated.

Scales (in most species) hard and rough.

BODIANUS.

Habit of the genus perca.

Gill-covers scaly, serrated and aculeated.

Scales (in most species) smooth.

They exactly resemble each other, except in the roughness and smoothness of their scales: and if it were not for the unlucky parenthesis which occurs in each, the distinction would be plain and easy. A rough-scaled fish, with the characters possessed in common by each of the genera, we should call an holocentrus; a smooth-scaled one, a bodianus. But how are we to determine in what cases a smooth-scaled fish is an heliocentrus and a rough-scaled one a bodianus? Of this the generic character is totally silent. In hopes of finding a clue to guide us through the labyrinth, we examined the description of the scales in every species of the two genera: and behold the result of our labour! We found that the scales of one of the holocentri are large and denticulated at the edges; of seven, middle sized; of three, rather small than large; of six, small; of five, very or extremely small; of one, crenulated; of one marked by a white spot; and that in nine instances they are not mentioned at all. We were told also that the scales of one of the bodiani are very large with pale edges; of three, middle-sized; of two rather small than large; of one, small; of one, tipped with blue; of one edged with silver; and that in six they are entirely disregarded.

We had thus learnt something concerning the size and colour of the scales; but as far as relates to these, any one of the species might be placed with equal propriety under either of the genera; and with respect to their roughness or smoothness, we were still as much at a loss as ever. Conceiving that we must have overlooked some part of the description, and attributing the oversight to the infirmity of eyes impaired by the midnight watchings of many years, we first trimmed our lamp; then wiped our spectacles; and then took down a pair of greater magnifying power, which we use only to mend our pen and on other special occasions: but all to no purpose. As our last resort we applied to all our fellow critics "in solemn divan assembled:" but still in vain. The difficulty was no sooner stated, than every one, as if all were animated by one soul, rapidly exclaimed, *Davus sum, non Œdipus: it is a knot which none but a god, or one inspired by the gods can untie.* To be serious; generic characters so constructed are a disgrace to science. They assume a scientific appearance; but they teach nothing.

The genus trachichthys, aptly but rather harshly so denominated from its strong and spiny scales, was instituted by Dr. Shaw himself, and first described by him in the Naturalist's Miscellany. The large carinated scales of its abdomen, connected with its want of teeth, afford a well discriminated generic character. It is found on the coasts of New Holland,

Digitized by Google

After a careful survey of all the new genera, we cannot but wish that in the admission of them, Dr. Shaw had been less frequently guided either by the Count Cepede or Dr. Bloch. Both of them are infected with the mania of multiplying genera: and where he has differed from them, he has in almost every instance manifested superior judgment. We have intimated on a former occasion that we have no objection to a large genus, provided its essential character be clearly and accurately defined. Nothing then remains to be done, but to break it into subdivisions or families; and when the systematizing naturalist has exercised his sagacity in this necessary task, the investigating student will pursue his researches with facility and pleasure.

In the course of the work numerous species have been added to many of the Linnæan genera; but as they are chiefly natives of distant seas, and described from dried specimens, nothing more than a bare description, and that often an imperfect one, can be expected. The species of sparus, labrus and perca, are numerous in the Systema Naturæ, and it is confessed by Linnæus himself, that these three genera and the sciæna are not easily distinguished from each other. The large additions which have since been made to them have increased the confusion. The generic characters of sparus in particular, are not sufficiently discriminated either by Linnæus or Dr. Shaw, though the latter has not hesitated to differ materially from his great master. In the Systema Naturæ, the lips of the spari are said to be double, and those of the labri single. In the General Zoology the direct contrary is asserted. Those of the spari are described as thick; and those of the labri as thick and doubled: but no notice is taken of the lips in any of the detailed descriptions, and as far as can be judged from the species there figured, there seems to be some of both kinds in each of the genera. In the Systema Naturæ, the species of sparus are 26, and of labrus, 41; in the General Zoology, those of the former are 162, and of the latter, 104. Dr. Shaw acknowledges that many of these may probably be only varieties, and that possibly some may have been repeated and described under each genus. It should seem that in the present state of the subject, the best method would be to throw the whole into one genus, if a good generic character can be obtained, and then to divide it into natural families; or if it do not readily yield to such a distribution, to form artificial ones, and to arrange them in a synoptical table at the head of the genus, similar to those which Linnæus has placed at the head of the classes in the three kingdoms of nature, for which he will always receive the hearty thanks of every young naturalist.

For the entertainment of our readers, and as an additional specimen of Dr. Shaw's style and manner, when he does not transcribe from preceding writers, we shall give his account of the echeneis remora.

"The extraordinary faculty which this fish possesses of adhering at pleasure with the utmost tenacity to any moderately flat surface, was not unobserved by the ancients, and is described in terms of considerable luxuriance by Pliny in particular, who giving way to the popular prejudices of his time, represents the remora as possessing the power of stopping a vessel in full sail, so as to render it perfectly immoveable in the midst of the sea.

"The real fact is, that the remora being a fish of very weak powers of fin, takes the advantage of occasionally attaching itself to any large swimming body, whether animate or inanimate, which it happens to encounter; adhering to ships, as well as whales, sharks, and many other of the larger fishes: it has even been observed by Commerson, that the remora is so ill calculated for supporting a long and laborious course in the water, that when left to its own exertions, it generally swims on its back, and that in an unsteady and feeble manner. It is therefore necessary that it should avail itself of the occasional assistance of some larger floating body. For this purpose the upper part of the head is wonderfully constituted; presenting a large, flat, oval shield or area, traversed by numerous dissepiments or partitions, each of which is fringed at the edge by a row of very numerous perpendicular teeth or filaments, while the whole area or oval space is strengthened by a longitudinal division or septum. So strong is the power of adhesion which the fish by this apparatus is enabled to exert, that we are assured by Commerson, whose observations on this subject are detailed by Cepede, that, on applying his thumb to the shield of a living remora, it was affected not only with a strong stupor, but even with a kind of paralysis, which continued for a considerable time after withdrawing his hand. When attached, as is frequently the case, to the skin of a shark or other large fish, it quits not its hold when the former is drawn out of the water, but continues adhering after the death of the animal; nor is it easy for the strongest arm to effect its separation, unless it be pulled in a lateral direction, so as to force it to slide along the surface of the skin.

Digitized by Google

"When a great many of these fishes are thus adhering at once to the sides of a ship, they may in some degree retard its motion, by preventing its easy passage through the water, in the same manner as any other extraneous substances are known to do; nor can it be thought improbable that the adhesion of these fishes in considerable numbers to the side of a small canoe in the earlier ages of mankind, may have operated still more powerfully, and not only have impeded its progress, but even have caused it to incline towards one side; and the tale once related, might have gradually grown into the exaggerated powers afterwards ascribed to the animal.

"A second reason of the remora's thus attaching itself to the larger fishes and to vessels is, that it may be in readiness to avail itself of the occasional remains of the prey of the former, or of the offals thrown out from the latter; being naturally voracious, and by no means delicate in its choice, and frequently following vessels in great numbers in order to obtain occasional supplies of food. The remora also, especially in stormy weather, adheres to rocks, like the lump-fish and some others.

"The remora is principally an inhabitant of the Mediterranean and Atlantic seas. Its general colour is an uniform brown, without any material difference of shade either on the upper or lower surface. It sometimes however varies in colour, and Commerson assures us that when a great number of these fishes are attached either to the side of a vessel or to a large fish, it is not very uncommon to see one or two which differ from the rest in being of a whitish colour. The skin is smooth and destitute of scales, but marked with numerous impressed points or pores; the mouth is large, and furnished with very numerous small teeth; and the lower jaw is rather longer than the upper: the eyes are small, with yellow irides: the lateral line commences above the pectoral fins, and from thence pretty suddenly descending, runs straight in the tail, which is of a slightly forked, or rather lunated form. The number of transverse divisions on the shield of this species varies from sixteen to twenty, but the most general number is eighteen. The fish grows to the length of about eighteen inches."

Dr. Shaw seems to attribute the adhesive power to the fringe of perpendicular teeth or filaments on the edge of each partition. We strongly suspect that the effect is to be accounted for on the principles of pneumatics, and that the apparatus, in its general manner of operation, is similar to a simple amusement of children, which consists in raising up a stone by the means of a string fastened to the middle of a piece of wet leather. If the filaments were of a glutinous nature, and the whole of the tenacity arise from that circumstance, it is not easy to conceive how the animal could readily disengage itself at pleasure, or how, in consequence of a force laterally directed, it should slide with comparatively so much ease on the body to which it is attached. The remora, we apprehend, previously to its adhesion, diminishes the breadth of its shield by a muscular contraction of the dissepiments or partitions; so as to fill up the intermediate furrows, and to form a plane surface in close contact at all points with the substance on which it is about to fix. It then instantly restores its shield to its former state, and each furrow becomes nearly a vacuum, on which the external air and water presses with a force, greater or less, in proportion to the dimensions of the intervening surface. The use of the fringe of filaments is probably to let in the air or water by a similar muscular contraction, and at once to remove the cause of the adhesion. The common goby, and perhaps all the gobies may adhere to rocks, and set themselves at liberty, by a similar contraction and dilatation of the funnel shaped central fins.

Mr. Pennant asserts in his British Zoology, that the tunny *frequents* our coasts, but not in shoals like the tunnies of the Mediterranean; and that they are not *uncommon* in the lochs on the western coast of Scotland, where they come in pursuit of herrings, and *often* during night strike into the nets and do much damage. Dr. Shaw, though he quotes Mr. Pennant, and does not dispute his authority, appears to think them of less frequent occurrence, and speaks of them as accidental stragglers. Such we have reason to believe is the case. In the summer of 1801, we ourselves happened to be at Inverary in the height of the herring fishery, which that year was remarkably abundant, and enquired of an old fisherman whether any tunnies had been lately taken, with a faint hope that we might be fortunate enough to obtain a sight of this rare British fish. He did not know it by the name of mackrel sture, which Mr. Pennant says it bears in the west of Scotland, but on a little farther explanation recognized it as what he called an overgrown mackrel, and said that one was taken in Loch Fine about 30 years before, of five or six hundred weight, but that he had not heard of any in the Loch since. Mr. Pennant was there in 1769, and probably saw the same fish; or several stragglers might have accidentally wandered to the same coasts about the

Digitized by Google

same time. We suspect that the vanity of the Highland fishermen led them to represent a rare instance as a common one.

The account of the chætodon rostratus is curious, and with it we shall close our account of Dr. Shaw's important work.

This fish is a native of the fresh waters of India, and is celebrated for the extraordinary manner in which it takes its prey, which chiefly consists of the smaller kind of flying insects: when it observes one of these either hovering over the water, or seated on some aquatic plant, it shoots against it from its tubular snout, a drop of water, with so sure an aim as generally to lay it dead, or at least stupified, on the surface. In shooting at a sitting insect, it is commonly observed to approach within the distance of from six to four feet, before it explodes the water. When kept in a state of confinement in a large vessel of water, it is said to afford high entertainment by its dexterity in this exercise, since if a fly or other insect be fastened to the edge of the vessel, the fish immediately perceives it, and continues to shoot at it with such admirable skill as very rarely to miss the mark. The same faculty is possessed by the sparus insidiator, and some few others belonging to very different genera.

ART. II. *Rural Sports: By the Rev.* WILLIAM B. DANIEL. 3 Vols. large 8vo.

IT is asserted by one of our English poets in an early part of the last century, that the satyric muse ought not to be silent, when amidst other prevailing enormities,

> Churchmen scripture for the classics quit,
> Polite apostates from God's grace to wit.

He probably alluded to the great Bentley, at that time in the zenith of his reputation as a classic scholar, and to Dr. Zachary Pearce, afterwards Bishop of Rochester, who had then recently published an improved edition of Longinus. We are persuaded that every candid judge will pronounce the censure to be illiberal and severe. Those eminent men, while they added to the treasures of literature and the reputation of their country, by their unwearied labours on the valuable remains of Greece and Rome, were so far from deserting or negligently performing the duties of their sacred office, that they rendered the study of such authors as are usually stiled profane, of admirable use in the explanation of the holy scriptures, and the defence of their religion against the attacks of its adversaries. Dr. Bentley's sermons at Boyle's lectures, the first that were delivered on that occasion, entitle him to a high place in the class of divines. Dr. Pearce's Vindication of the Miracles of Christ, and his posthumous notes on a considerable part of the New Testament, are a sufficient proof that he was not inattentive to his peculiar profession as a minister of the gospel.

But if so slight a deviation from the direct duties of the clerical character, could so far "chafe" the poet's "spleen" as to compel him to exchange "panegyric" for "satire," how would his wrath have boiled over, and how caustic would have been the ebullition, if he had lived at the beginning of the nineteenth century, and had cast his eye upon *Rural Sports* by the *Rev.* Wm. B. Daniel! What would he have said of the boisterous apostates from the grace of God to the mysteries of the dog kennel? We honestly confess that we ourselves, though far from wishing to possess an equal degree of rigorous strictness, could not avoid wishing that the epithet *Reverend* had not appeared in the title page, and that we should have been better pleased, if, instead of writing on the pleasures of the chace, the avowed ecclesiastic had been employed in collecting the various readings of Sophocles or Euripides. In the first effusion of a humour which we acknowledge was tinctured with somewhat of the spleen, we were tempted to give a paraphrastic translation of his motto, *Vitanda est improba Syren desidia*; and to understand it as a declaration, that if he did not hunt and shoot he must be in bed all the winter, or at the best spend his days in an arm chair, dozing over a relaxing fire. We recollected the arch reply of a Quaker, more than thirty years since, to a reverend sportsman who was boasting of his infallible skill in finding a hare: "If I were a hare, I would take my seat in a place where I should be sure of not being disturbed by thee from the first of January to the last of December." "Why where wouldst thou go?" "Into thy study."

Such were our feelings when we first

Digitized by Google

took up Mr. Daniel's work. But a little reflection gave our thoughts a different turn. We considered that a fondness for rural sports, though it certainly does not indicate a very studious mind, is by no means incompatible with much moral worth; that it is not every one who "can make the closet the centre of his existence by a sedentary life;" and that a man may follow the hounds or carry a gun, and yet be a conscientious parish priest, be a pattern to his flock of public and private virtue, and have a heart warm as melting charity to the afflicted poor of his neighbourhood. A certain monitor within also whispered in good time, that some of us grave and sober critics, who have the same *handle* to our names,* are not always actually engaged in the express business of our profession. We do not pretend to assert that we are composing a sermon when we are writing a review on a book of rural sports. We are conscious that we have often been seen peeping into a hedge bottom, not indeed in search of a hare, but of a rare plant; and that in the prosecution of our favourite pursuits, we have climbed the steeps of Snowden, and traversed the rocks of Staffa, with as great a transport as can be produced by the most brilliant fox chace, which old Tom Noel or Meynel himself ever knew.

* All these sagacious reflections might have been spared, if we had recollected a little sooner that our business is not with the author but with his work. We are not sorry, however, that we have been induced to review the temper of our minds, before we pass a judgment on the performance of another man: for in consequence of this self discipline, we trust that we are better prepared to form a fair and impartial estimate of its merits, and entertain a hope that we may, in some measure, remove or lessen the scruples of our more serious readers.

Mr. Daniel has accustomed himself to read and think, as well as to pursue the diversions of the field. In the course of his work he manifests so much chearful good humour, sterling good sense and unaffected honesty, that we can readily believe him a favourite member of the Essex hunt; and do not doubt that he often checks by his presence the indecency and profaneness which would otherwise escape from the lips of many a rough country squire, when the declining sun has warned the party to retire from the open air into the dining-room, and to exchange the noisy and active sports of Diana for the equally noisy but less active joys of Bacchus.

A reflecting mind will give an air of science to its amusements, as well as to its graver occupations. There are sportsmen whose superiority to a fox or a hare is founded almost entirely on the distinction between the pursuer and the pursued; and who differ from the hounds, their companions in the chace, in having only two legs and riding comparatively at ease on the back of a horse, while their hounds have four and run on foot. Our author is not one of these. He is not satisfied with merely catching his game; but is animated with the laudable ambition of forming an acquaintance with its character and habits: and of knowing all that has been said of it by writers on natural history. The knowledge which he has acquired, he has benevolently wished to communicate; and has added to the information obtained from others, so many observations of his own, that he will be deservedly quoted in future systematic works as an original authority. On this account we do not scruple to allow him a respectable situation in this department of our Review. He does not indeed arrogate to himself the high and mighty character of author; but modestly presents himself to the public under the humble appellation of compiler. He frankly acknowledges that a large portion of the contents of his volumes has been collected from various publications; but at the same time asserts, and truly asserts, that "the fresh matter is considerable: and that the whole is arranged in a novel and distinct system."

Rural sports may be distributed into three grand classes, hunting, fishing, and shooting. These accordingly constitute the several parts of the work.

Hunting, again, may be divided into fox-hunting, stag-hunting, hare-hunting, coursing, and the less noble pursuit of those animals which go under the general denomination of vermin.

The treatise on hunting is introduced by a panegyric on the dog and a general

* It is a favourite observation of one of our brave naval commanders, that the chief difference of *rank* among British subjects consists in some men having handles to their names, and others not.

Digitized by Google

history of the kind; for which, like all his recent predecessors, he is much indebted to the luxuriant fancy and elegant pen of Buffon. Like him he derives from the shepherd's dog many of the numerous varieties which have been the effect of domestication: but in opposition to that popular naturalist, he asserts that the dog will couple both with the wolf and the fox, and that the dogs of Greenland and Kamptschatka are of wolfish origin. Among the many instances which he has given of that instinctive sagacity in his favourite animal which nearly approaches the confines of intellect and reason, one or two appear of dubious authority; but the collection is the most copious which we have seen, and will be entertaining to readers of every description.

Having given this general account of the species, he proceeds to those which are more particularly connected with rural sports, and amongst these the fox-hound takes the lead.

With respect to the size and shape of fox-hounds, and their management both in the kennel and the field, he takes for his guide "that well informed fox-hunter who has favoured the world with his thoughts on that particular diversion." But he does not blindly rely on "this compleat master of the science:" he sometimes gives a different opinion of his own "founded on long and successful practice:" though, as he modestly intimates, the difference "may have resulted from local situation." On the construction and œconomy of the dog-kennel, he has a right to assume a decisive tone; for he is master of one himself, and, in whatever concerns it, is perfectly at home. But Mr. Meynel, he informs us, is, perhaps, "the only man compleatly skilful in making the most of any particular hound by nicety of feeding." "Hounds," he adds, "to do their work in style, should be well in flesh, and that flesh, firm; they should never be fat——a *fat* hound, a *fat* horse, or a *fat* man, if propriety be at all consulted, can have no business at a fox chase."

The conclusion of the following paragraph concerning the height and shape of the fox-hound will relax the muscles of the most rigid cheek into a smile.

"The height and shape of the fox-hound, is next to be considered: and doubtless the difference of country may excuse a variableness of opinion in this respect; but there are certain hounds well adapted for business; and which will not suffer themselves to be disgraced in any country; and these are the middle sized. All animals of that description are strongest and best able to endure fatigue. In the colour of their hounds most sportsmen have their prejudices; in their shape, it is presumed they must all agree; to look well they should be nearly of a size, if they appear of the same family it will be an addition, and if handsome withal, they are then perfect so far as respects their appearance; but there are necessary points in the shape of a hound, which ought ever be attended to, for if he is not of perfect symmetry, he will neither run fast, nor bear hard work; much speed is required, and he should possess adequate strength. His legs should be straight as arrows; his feet round, and not too large; his shoulders should lie back; his breast rather wide than narrow; his chest deep; his back broad; his neck thin; his head small; his tail thick and bushy, and which, if he carries well, will add to his comeliness. It must be kept in mind, that although a small head is mentioned as one of the requisites of a fox-hound, that it is to be understood as relative to beauty only; for as to goodness, large headed hounds are in no wise inferior. As an instance: amongst a draft of young hounds from Earl Fitzwilliam's was one, of whom Will Dean, his Lordship's huntsman, made this remark in his letter: "that he could not "guess at Lord Foley's dislike to the hound "called Glider, then sent, which was of "the best blood of the country, being got "by Mr. Meynell's Glider, out of Lord Fitz-"william's Blossom, and was moreover the "most promising young hound he had ever "entered, unless his lordship took a distaste "to the largeness of the head; but he begged "leave to assert, although it might appear a "trifle out of size, there was a world of se-"rious mischief to the foxes contained in it." The event justified Dean's prediction in its utmost latitude, for Glider was a most capital chace, and long a favourite stallion hound, notwithstanding the magnitude and inelegance of his head."

The directions concerning the breeding, education, and future government of fox hounds are equally full and explicit. But we have neither room to follow him in his details, nor capacity to pass a judgment on their merit. On this occasion we are obliged to employ that implicit faith which we are sensible does not properly belong to the workshop of a reviewer. But in the present instance there is no alternative. *Rural Sports* must either be reviewed by an incompetent critic, or it must not be reviewed at all. For when, from the days of Le Clerc to the present hour, did a fox-hunter take his place at any of our boards?

The diseases of dogs are treated of at large. The most fatal of these are that

called distinctively the distemper, and canine madness. The former, which, Mr. Daniel tells us, "is the most fatal (the plague only excepted) that any animal is subject to," has been known in this country only about forty years; and has become milder and less frequent within the last twelve or fifteen. Man however has been favoured by its appearance; for it is asserted, "on the experience of those placed in situations least likely to hazard a conjecture," that since the distemper has made its havoc among the species, *canine madness* has not been so common. Of this latter dreadful disorder, and its baleful effects, many particulars are given, with a variety of medicines recommended by different persons for its cure. Many of these are known to be ineffectual; and in the author's opinion, no antidote for the poison yet discovered can be safely relied on. But he recommends from his own experience a preventive which has been known from the time of Pliny, and which surely ought to be enjoined on every breeder of dogs by a positive law under the sanction of a severe penalty. On so interesting a subject, we deem ourselves bound by our duty to the public to transcribe the passage.

"The prevention of the direful effects of canine madness seems to have been attempted in the early ages; to accomplish this, Pliny recommends the worming of dogs, and from his time to the present, it has most deservedly had its advocates. Very strong proofs have been adduced of its utility, nor is it natural to imagine, so easy and effective an operation would have been omitted, had not more virtue been attributed to it, than it really possesses, and wherein it failed, the absolute prevention of madness was said to be the consequence, whereas the fact was and is, that taking out the worm, has nothing to do with annihilating the disorder, although it will most certainly hinder the dog seized with it, from doing any hurt to man or beast. A late author asserts he had three dogs that were wormed, bit by mad dogs at three several periods, yet notwithstanding they all died mad, they did not bite nor do any mischief; that being determined to make a full experiment, he shut one of the mad dogs up in a kennel, and put to him a dog he did not value; the mad dog often run at the other to bite him, but his tongue was so swelled, that he could not make his teeth meet; the dog was kept in the kennel until the mad one died, and was purposely preserved for two years afterwards, to note the effect, but he never ailed any thing, although no remedies were applied to check any infection that might have been received from the contact of the mad dog.

"The compiler has had various opportunities of proving the usefulness of worming, and inserts three of the most striking instances, under the hope of inducing its general practice.

"A terrier bitch went mad that was kept in the kennel with forty couple of hounds, not a single hound was bitten, nor was she seen to offer to bite. The bitch being of a peculiar sort, every attention was paid to her, and the gradations of the disease (which were extremely rapid) minutely noted, the hydrophobia was fast approaching before she was separated from the hounds, and she died the second day after; at first warm milk was placed before her, which she attempted to lap, but the throat refused its functions; from this period she never tried to eat or drink, seldom rose up, or even moved, the tongue swelled very much, and long before her death, the jaws were distended by it.

"A spaniel was observed to be seized by a strange dog, and was bit in the lip, the servant who ran up to part them, narrowly escaped, as the dog twice flew at him; a few minutes after the dog had quitted the yard, the people who had pursued gave notice of the dog's madness, who had made terrible havock in a course of ten miles from whence he had set off. The spaniel was a great favourite, had medicine applied, and every precaution taken; upon the fourteenth day he appeared to loath his food, and his eyes looked unusually heavy, the day following he endeavoured to lap milk, but could swallow none; from that time the tongue began to swell, he moved himself but seldom, and on the third day he died; for many hours previous to his death, the tongue was so enlarged, that the fangs or canine teeth, could not meet each other by upwards of an inch.

"The hounds were some years after parted with, and were sold in lots, a madness broke out in the kennel of the gentleman who purchased many of them, and although several of these hounds were bitten and went mad, only one of them ever attempted to bite, and that was a hound from the Duke of Portland's, who in the operation of worming had the worm broke by his struggling, and was so troublesome that one half of it was suffered to remain; the others all died with symptoms similar to the terrier and the spaniel, viz. a violent swelling of the tongue, and a stupor rendering them nearly motionless, and both which symptoms seemed to increase with the disease.

"The idea that worming prevents a dog from receiving the infection when bitten should be exploded; but the foregoing facts shew how far it may be recommended for the restriction of a malady horrid in its effects where a human being is concerned, and which to the sportsman and the farmer, is attended with such dangerous and expensive consequences."

The account concludes with anecdotes of fox-hounds and fox-hunters. The following, we believe, are new, and will be generally entertaining.

"The speed of the fox-hound was well ascertained by the trial at Newmarket, betwixt

Mr. Meynell and Mr. Barry, and this account of the training and feeding the two victorious hounds, is from the person who had the management of them. Will Crane was applied to, after the match was made (which was for 500 guineas), to train Mr. Barry's hounds, of which Bluecap was four, and Wanton three years old. Crane objected to their being hounds that had been entered some seasons, and wished for young hounds, who would with more certainty be taught to run a drag; however the hounds were sent to Rivenhall in Essex, and as Crane suggested, at the first trials, to induce them to run the drag, they took no notice; at length by dragging a fox along the ground, and then crossing the hounds upon the scent, and taking care to let them kill him, they became more handy to a drag, and had their exercise regularly three times a week upon Tiptree Heath; the ground chosen was turf, and the distance over which the drag was taken was from eight to ten miles. The training commenced the first of August, and continued until the 28th of September, (the 30th the match was ran); their food was oatmeal and milk, and sheeps' trotters. Upon the 10th of September the drag was drawn (on account of running up the wind, which happened to be brisk,) from the rubbing-house at New Market Town end, to the rubbing house at the starting post of the Beacon Course, the four hounds were then laid on the scent; Mr. Barry's Bluecap came in first, Wanton (very close to Bluecap) second; Mr. Meynell's Richmond was beat by upwards of a hundred yards, and the bitch never run in at all; the ground was crossed in a few seconds more than eight minutes; three score horses started with the hounds; Cooper, Mr. Barry's huntsman, was the first up, but the mare that carried him was rode quite blind at the conclusion. There were only twelve horses up out of the sixty, and Will Crane, who was mounted upon a king's plate horse, called Rib, was in the twelfth. The odds before running were seven to four in favour of Mr. Meynell, whose hounds it was said were fed during the time of training entirely with legs of mutton.

"The speed of Merkin, a fox-hound bitch bred by Colonel Thornton, was still superior; he was challenged to run any hound of her year five miles over Newmarket, giving 220 yards, for 10,000 guineas, or to give Madcap 200 yards, and run the same distance for 5000. Merkin had run a trial of four miles, and the time he performed it in was seven minutes and half a second. This bitch, of whom a portrait is here given, was sold in 1795 for four hogsheads of claret, and the seller to have two couple of her whelps.

"Madcap at two years old challenged all England for 500 guineas. Lounger, brother to Madcap, did the same at four years old, the challenge was accepted, and a bet made for 200 guineas, to run Mr. Meynell's Pilgrer; the parties were also allowed by Col. Thornton to start any other hound of Mr. M's., and Lounger was to beat both; but upon Lounger's being seen at Tattersall's by many of the first sportsmen, his bone and form were so capital, that it was thought proper to pay forfeit, which was done by giving Colonel T. a pair of gold couples.

"Lounger was afterwards sent as a present to the Duke of Northumberland, by Colonel T. for a stallion hound, his grace's keenness perhaps exceeding that of any other fox-hunter in the kingdom, and which shewed itself in one instance by his having the fox's head *deviled*, after a very severe chase, and eating the greater part of it."

* * * * * * *

"Enthusiasm in religion, love or politics, has seldom exceeded that which Mr. Carter shewed for fox-hunting; this gentleman possessed a respectable estate near Witney, in Oxfordshire, and could boast the best hounds and horses in that part of the country. In his dress, manners and accommodation, the huntsman and whipper-in were evident models of his imitation. Amidst the intercourse of friendship, and in the endearments of domestic life, the language of the chace was never forgotten, even his nearest relations were esteemed only in proportion to his darling amusement; those who were anxious for his affections, had no hopes of success, but by riding themselves into them over five barred gates; in short, throughout the surrounding country, fox-hunting Carter was the epithet by which he was universally known and distinguished: when he was one day endeavouring to leap a gate of unusual height, the leg of his favourite hunter caught between the upper bars, threw him on the other side, and tumbling with all his weight upon him, fractured one of his legs in such a manner, as to leave the sufferer only the dreadful alternative of amputation or death. Mr. C. was not long deliberating upon the choice; recollecting that he never should be able to keep the saddle at a fox chace with a wooden leg, he swore that he came into the world with two legs, and with two he would go out of it. In this determination he persevered, and after languishing some time, if to a man of his resolution and violent temper, the term languishing can ever be applied, he departed this life as he would have ended a fox-hunt, with the exulting shout of the death halloo, having previously bequeathed his estate (except an annuity of two hundred pounds to his wife,) to his favourite nephew, for no other reason than because whilst a boy he used to follow him through all the dangers and delights of the chace; and excluding all his other numerous relations, who were more careful of their limbs, and did not choose at the risk of their *necks* to obtain a chance of enjoying his property."

* * * * *

"The insertion of the following replies from two huntsmen may be excused, as they tend to shew the absolute possession which the business of the chase had over every other action or idea. The first was, the Duke of

Richmond's huntsman, whose hounds being hunting at the end of the season 1783, and coming to a check, was asked the reason by his master; "Why, my Lord, it must be owing to those damn'd stinking violets, I think."

"The second was of Lord Stawell's huntsman, who having rode after his hounds into the garden of More Park, near Farnham, where the sward walks are kept remarkably neat, and where his horse was doing mischief, was called to very sharply by the gardener, who told him that his master and mistress never rode there; who was answered by the huntsman (going off in a gallop), "That's very strange, for I never saw finer riding ground in all my life."

The natural history of the fox himself succeeds, taken chiefly from Buffon and other writers, with original anecdotes which our limits will not permit us to insert.

The stag is the next animal of chase, and, as royal game, may be thought by some to have a right to priority in a book of rural sports. Mr. Daniel is of a different opinion; and with a benevolence which becomes him as a man, and a loyalty which does him honour as a British subject, feelingly expresses his regret that his sovereign, by an exclusive chase of the stag, deprives himself of a pleasure which would greatly add to his happiness.

"At the present day, as an object of chase to the sportsman, the stag requires but cursory mention; those indeed who are fond of pomp and parade in hunting, will not accede to this opinion, but the only mode in which this chase can recommend itself to the *real* sportsman, is, when the deer is looked for and found like other game, which hounds pursue; and it is not uncommon for an outlying fallow deer, tried for and unharboured in this way, to shew much sport with a pack of harriers, especially where the country is inclosed.

"At present very few hounds (except those of the royal establishment) are kept for this amusement exclusively,; and were the king once to see a fox well found and killed handsomely, he would in all probability give a decided preference in favour of fox-hounds; for what a marked difference is there, between conveying in a covered cart, an animal nearly as big as the horse that draws it, to a particular spot, where he is liberated; and cheerly riding to the cover side, with all the extacy of hope and expectation."

Of hare hunting, as might be expected after what has been said of the stag, Mr. Daniel makes little account. It is too tame and too stationary for his active spirit. He accordingly gives us scarcely any thing concerning it from his own experience; but has been liberal in his quotations from other authors. Xenophon, Mr. Blome, the ingenious author of Observations on Hare-hunting, and Mr. Beckford are his authorities.

The following instance of an unconquerable passion for hare-hunting we have extracted as a curiosity.

"But various as are the sorts of hounds, and heavy the expence of keeping them, yet the manner in which the following little pack was managed, by the persevering œconomy of their owner, merits remark. With half a dozen children, as many couple of hounds, and two hunters, did Mr. Osbaldeston (clerk to an attorney) keep himself, family, and these dogs and horses, upon Sixty Pounds per annum. This also was effected in London, without running in debt, and with always a good coat on his back. To explain this seeming impossibility, it should be observed, that after the expiration of the office hours, Mr. O. acted as an accountant for the butchers in Clare-market, who paid him in offal; the choicest morsels of this he selected for himself and family, and with the rest he fed his hounds, which were kept in the garret. His horses were lodged in his cellar, and fed on the grains from a neighbouring brew-house, and on damaged corn, with which he was supplied by a corn-chandler, whose books he kept in order. Once or twice a week in the season he hunted, and by giving a hare, now and then, to the farmers over whose grounds he sported, he secured their good-will and permission; and several gentlemen (struck with the extraordinary œconomical mode of his hunting arrangements which were generally known) winked at his going over their manors. Mr. O. was the younger son of a gentleman of good family, but small fortune, in the north of England; and having imprudently married one of his father's servants, was turned out of doors, with no other fortune than a southern hound, big with pup, and whose offspring from that time became a source of amusement to him."

Coursing is closely connected with hare-hunting; and here the natural history of the greyhound is properly introduced. The following anecdotes concerning its swiftness and ardour are selected, as affording points of comparison with the foxhound.

"With respect to the swiftness of the greyhound, the following questions were submitted to a gentleman, whose greyhounds are known to be as swift as any in the kingdom. Whether the speed of a greyhound is equal to that of a first rate race-horse for the distance of a mile, or for a greater or smaller distance? and, whether the speed of any hare (supposing the dog and hare to be started without the law usually allowed to the hare in course

Digitized by Google

ing) is equal to that of the greyhound; and to what distance, within that of a mile, the hare could exert that superiority of speed, supposing the hare to be the fastest animal of the two? His opinion was, that, upon a flat, a first rate horse would be superior to the greyhound, but in a hilly country, as in Wiltshire, a good greyhound would have the advantage; on the second point, that although he had seen many hares go away from greyhounds, laid close in with them, without a turn, yet he believes a capital greyhound (so laid in) would not suffer a hare to run from him without turning her. An incident, however, occurred in December 1800, which brought the speed of the greyhound and race-horse into competition. A match was to have been run over Doncaster course for one hundred guineas, but one of the horses having been drawn, a mare started alone to make good the bet, and after having gone the distance of about a mile, a greyhound bitch started from the side of the course, and ran with her the other three miles, keeping nearly head to head, which produced a singular race, and when they arrived at the distance-post, five to four was betted on the greyhound; when they came to the stand it was even betting. The mare won by about a head.

"In February 1800, a brace of greyhounds in Lincolnshire ran a hare from her seat to where killed, a distance, measuring straight, upwards of four miles, in twelve minutes: during the course there was a great number of turns, which very considerably increased the space gone over; the hare ran herself dead before the greyhounds touched her; this extensive course, in so short a time, is a strong proof of the strength and swiftness of the hare. Horses have been as much distressed in keeping up for their riders to see a course, as in much longer chases with hounds. The compiler recollects a hare being found close to the town of Bottisham, in Cambridgeshire, and which took away for the six-mile bottom, twenty two horses started, but only one could make a gallop at the conclusion of the course; the hare (who was within fifty paces of the cover) was dead some yards before the greyhounds, who were obliged to be bled to recover them."

* * * *

"The uncommon ardour and velocity of greyhounds have often occasioned their destruction. An instance happened many years since to a famous dog of the Rev. Mr. Corsellis, who chanced to be wind-bound at Dover. A hare in the neighbourhood had beat all her pursuers until this attack, when the dog was so superior to her in speed, and pressed her so close, that she ran for the cliff as her only chance of escaping; but the greyhound threw at, and caught her at the brink, and went with the hare in his mouth to the bottom of the precipice, where they were both literally dashed to atoms."

The first volume concludes with brief accounts of the rabbit, martin, badger, and otter.

The second volume, in compliance with a prevailing modern custom, is divided into two separate parts: a custom which, in our judgment, would be "more honoured in the breach than the observance." It cannot but be peculiarly displeasing to a naturalist, who loves to distinguish by appropriate characters all objects which bear different names. As matters are now ordered, we are utterly unable to determine in what the essential difference between a volume and a part of a volume consists.

The first part of the second volume, if part it must be called, is devoted to the calm and sober amusement of fishing in fresh waters. In every respect unlike the fox-hunter, the hare-hunter, or even the courser, the angler takes his solitary stand, and sometimes remains for hours together almost fixed to the same spot. Mr. Daniel, whose passion for the country and its amusements knows no bounds, notwithstanding his indifference to hare-hunting, which he probably thinks neither one thing nor the other, can steal along the verdant bank with the stillness of patient expectation, as well as follow the music of the cheerful horn and sweet-toned hound over ditches and five-barred gates. He speaks of both with the fondness of an amateur, and relates achievements in each.

—quorum pars magna fuit.

In this as well as the former section of the work, the preceptive part is preceded by a dissertation on the external form, inward structure, and general œconomy of fishes. Here also he appears chiefly in the character of a compiler; and though he has made extracts from various authors, he has drawn most of his materials from a System of Natural History, in four volumes, printed at Edinburgh in 1792; but, contrary to his usual practice, has often transcribed the language of the anonymous author, without once referring to his work.

A detailed description of the rivers of Great Britain and Ireland follows; but we know not for what reason or with what use. Its connection with the immediate subject of the work is too general to excite any lively interest. The geographer knows its value when accurate and complete; but a fisher on the

Digitized by Google

banks of the Thames, or the midland Ouse, cares little about the meanders of the Forth, the furious rapids of the Spey, or the majestic flow of the Shannon. To the naturalist, a full and particular account of the different kinds of fish, which are nearly peculiar, or most abundant in any stream, would be highly acceptable and gratifying; but for such a work only scanty materials are as yet to be found. Our author's information on this head is by no means discriminative or abundant. Thus under Bedfordshire all that we are told is, that the Ouse is a good river for trolling, and produces (as does the Hyee and the Ivel) pike, perch, fine eels, and common fish in abundance; and under Buckinghamshire, that its rivers produce trout, and good fish of other sorts. With respect to the last sweeping article, we may safely ask, what river does not?

Nor can we afford greater praise to the general execution of the design. Instead of following the course of nature, and tracing a river from its source to its mouth, he has followed the divisions of the counties; and, to make the confusion still greater, has arranged the counties in their alphabetical order. The same river is consequently often mentioned several times, and at the distance of several pages.

This total want of all real order has betrayed him into several considerable, and some laughable errors. He tells us, for instance, as a curious circumstance, that "crayfish will live in no stream which does not run towards the south. The gentleman," he adds, "who favoured me with it, has tried to stock, and it invariably happens that they disappear from waters that run in opposite directions, however apparently well adapted, from having plenty of their favourite food, water-cresses, &c. In confirmation of this remark, the rivers of Surrey have no crayfish, while those of Sussex abound with them." This would indeed be a curious circumstance, if the fact were well ascertained. But to destroy its credit at once, as far as it rests on the authority of the present work, it is attached as a note to the article Berkshire, the rivers of which, Mr. Daniel assures us, abound in crayfish; and who does not instantly perceive that the Berkshire rivers have the same direction as those of Surrey, and that as they fall into the Thames by its right bank, their course must, upon the whole, be to the north?

But this is by no means the most striking blunder into which our author has fallen through his inattention to the connected geography of the country. Confounding the two Loch-levens with each other, and connecting them in his ideas with the river Leven, which has no actual connection with either, but discharges the waters of Loch-lomond into the Clyde at Dunbarton, he has removed the fresh water Leven, with its celebrated island, in which the unhappy queen of Scots was confined, from the neighbourhood of Kinross, on the eastern side of Scotland, to the north of Argyleshire; and that its waters may not flow with those of its salt-water namesake into Loch-linnhé, he has compelled them to run over a ridge of mountains into the Loch-lomond river Leven, and delivered them to the care of the Clyde. Compared with this mighty achievement, the labours of Hercules are the sports of a child. It is, however, not altogether without example in modern times. A pedestrian traveller had, some years before, conveyed the river Dee over the mountains of Snowdonia, from Bangor, in the detached part of Flintshire, to Bangor in the county of Carnarvon; and instead of suffering it to run in its ancient channel by the walls of Chester into the æstuary which had, time out of mind, borne its name, had forced it into the waters of the Menai.

When this book of rural sports comes to a second edition, as we doubt not it soon will, Mr. Daniel will do well to write the account of rivers over again; or, as we should think more adviseable, entirely to expunge it.

In the progress of the work, the practical angler will receive much valuable information with respect to his rods and lines, his floats, his hooks, and his baits, both natural and artificial, which are described at great length and with great clearness; as also the particular times and modes in which the different kinds of fresh-water fish are to be caught. The directions are taken partly, of course, from old Walton, and partly from more modern authors: the descriptions of the different species, sometimes from Pennant, sometimes from the Scotch System of Natural History, and sometimes from the Elements of Natural History, printed also at Edinburgh, and reviewed in our first volume. But the author himself has furnished much original matter, and has enlivened the dryness of didactic and de-

Digitized by Google

scriptive detail, by intermingling with it numerous amusing and well authenticated anecdotes. The following account of the tench will, we are confident, be equally acceptable to the naturalist, the epicure, and the lover of wonders.

"The tench does not commonly exceed four or five pounds in weight: Mr. Pennant says he has heard of one that weighed ten, and Salvianus speaks to some that weighed twenty pounds: it is thick in proportion to the length; the scales are very small and covered with slime: the eyes are large, and of a gold colour; the irides are red; he is leather-mouthed, and sometimes there is a small barb at each corner of the mouth; the colour of the back is dusky, and dorsal and ventral fins of the same hue, and those of the male much bigger than those of the female; the head, sides, and belly of a greenish cast, most beautifully mixed with gold (especially those taken in rivers) which is in its greatest splendour when the fish is most in season; the tail is quite even at the end, and very broad.

"The tench loves still waters, and their haunts in rivers are chiefly among weeds, and in places well shaded with bushes or rushes; but they thrive best in standing waters, where they lie under weeds, near sluices, and at pond heads; they are much more numerous in pools and pits than in rivers, although those taken in the latter are far preferable; they begin to spawn in June, and may be found spawning in some waters till September; their best season is from that period till the end of May."

* * * * *

"Tench are said to love foul and weedy more than clear water, but situation does not always influence their taste; the compiler has taken tench out of Munden-hall Fleet, in Essex, belonging to Mr. Western, which was so thick with weeds, that the flews could be hardly sunk through them, and where the mud was intolerably fœtid, and had dyed the fish of its own colour, which was that of ink, yet no tench could be better grown, or of a sweeter flavour; many were taken that weighed nine, and some ten pounds the brace; and the skull and back bone of one preserved at the Hall, which was found dead by the side of the water, when compared in length to any of those beforementioned, must have nearly doubled its weight. In a pond at Leigh's Priory, the compiler caught a quantity of tench weighing about three pounds each, of a colour the most clear and beautiful: but when some of them were dressed and brought to table, they smelt and tasted so rankly of a peculiar weed, that no one could eat them; some that were conveyed alive, and put into other water, soon recovered themselves from this obnoxious taint; an experiment that will always answer in this kind of fish, where it is suspected that there is a necessity for cleansing them; and the above circumstance is recited to shew, that no decisive judgment can be formed from the external appearance of the tench, however prepossessing it may appear.

"The tench that has occasioned most animadversion, is that which the engraving represents; the unusual size and form are alike impossible to be accounted for; its bulk perhaps exceeds that of any one ever known to be an inhabitant of the most extensive waters of this country, and the shape, which seems to have accommodated itself to the scanty space allotted for its residence, together stamp it a lusus naturæ. Its history is, that a piece of water, at Thornville-royal, Yorkshire, which had been ordered to be filled up, and wherein wood, rubbish, &c. had been thrown for years, was in November 1801 directed to be cleared out. Persons were accordingly employed, and almost choaked up by weeds and mud, so little water remained, that no person expected to see any fish, except a few eels; yet nearly two hundred brace of tench, of all sizes, and as many perch, were found. After the pond was thought to be quite free, under some roots there seemed to be an animal, which was conjectured to be an otter; the place was surrounded, and on opening an entrance among the roots, a tench was found of most singular form, having literally assumed the shape of the hole, in which he had of course for many years been confined. His length from fork to eye was two feet nine inches; his circumference, almost to the tail, was two feet three inches; his weight eleven pounds nine ounces and a quarter; the colour was also singular, his belly being that of a char, or a vermillion. This extraordinary fish, after having been inspected by many gentlemen, was carefully put into a pond; but either from confinement, age, or bulk, it at first merely floated, and at last with difficulty swam gently away. It is now alive and well."

For the gratification of another class of readers, we shall select a shorter article.

"In this country many acres of swampy, moorish grounds, producing little feed for cattle, and, in the present state, a trifling rent, might be profitably converted into fish-ponds, particularly within thirty or forty miles of the metropolis. An acre of water, after being two years stocked, will annually yield two hundred carp, and one hundred tench, that will sell upon the spot to the London fishmongers at a shilling each; an income to be obtained from no other produce to which such sort of land can be appropriated."

The last part of this work is devoted to the pleasures of the gun, as far as they have for their object the pursuit of the feathered tribes; for, we believe, our author would esteem it a sin, little inferior,

Digitized by Google

in point of moral turpitude, to a breach of one of the ten commandments, to shoot a hare. It is introduced, like the preceding parts, by a view of the general character and habits which distinguish the order of birds. The author then particularizes the bustard, the pheasant, the common and red-legged partridge, the cock of the wood, the black cock, the moor cock, or, as it is more commonly called in the north of England, moor game; giving descriptions of each from Pennant and others, and adding liberally from the stores of his own personal knowledge.

The history of these birds, and of those which are not protected by the game laws, and which are known to sportsmen by the general name of wild fowl, would afford matter for copious extracts, equally curious and pleasing; but we are persuaded that we have already given enough to excite a desire of possessing the whole; and we heartily recommend the volumes of Rural Sports to a place in the great hall or dining-room of every country 'squire in the kingdom. They will operate as medicines to the mind, when the badness of the weather forbids those masculine pursuits which prevent the want of physic for the body: they will save a long frost from many a bitter curse; and will lighten the service of the whole household, from the butler to the scullion, from the huntsman to the stable-boy, by keeping their master in good humour.

Under every division of the work, that nothing may be wanting for the direction of the sportsman, the various laws which have been made from time to time for the preservation of game, are distinctly and chronologically specified, with the addition of a few adjudged cases. The account of the old forest law is particularly full.

We had almost forgotten to notice, what we ought by no means to omit, the admirable engravings by which the descriptions of the quadrupeds, fishes, and birds mentioned in the work, are illustrated. As natural history figures, many of them have uncommon merit. The fishes, in particular, we are obliged, though reluctantly, to prefer to those of Mr. Heath in the fourth volume of General Zoology. There is also in many cases an expression of character and spirit which shews the hand of a master. In this last respect, the terrier and fox, the snared hare, the wounded pheasant, the covey of partridges, the brood of partridges, the setter and black grouse, the old English setter, and Pluto and Juno, are eminently excellent. The figure of the tench caught at Thornville royal is valuable on account of its singularity.

Notwithstanding we have already transgressed so much, we cannot deny ourselves the satisfaction, nor Mr. Daniel the justice, of letting him make his own bow to the readers of our Review, as well as to the rest of the British public.

"The compiler here closes his labours. On the various topics which he has undertaken to treat, he has endeavoured to direct the attention to whatever he thought of sufficient importance to repay, or of tendency to amuse it. In selecting this information, he found his work grow upon him, and it has, in consequence, considerably exceeded its intended bulk. Some particulars, which he did not originally design to touch upon, he afterwards found to be so intimately blended with the main purport of the book, that the total omission of them would have left it defective.

"In the most common pursuits, as well as in the most complicate science, there is a certain previous knowledge requisite, to enable us to prosecute them with facility and success. Without some such knowledge, even the pastimes of the field will rarely compensate the time and trouble expended upon them. This knowledge it has been the compiler's aim to impart. His instructions have been drawn from writers of the greatest merit. Whenever he has ventured to differ or to doubt, he has done so from the teachings of actual experiment; opportunities of intercourse he has enjoyed with the best judges; his own means of intelligence have been considerable; and the implements he has himself recommended have undergone repeated and successful trials.

"Of the subject itself, which has engaged his researches, he has only thus much to remark. The diversions of the field have been not seldom regarded as the resources of rigorous idleness and intellectual vacancy; they have been condemned, as unconnected with that dignified activity of mind which explores the tracks of science, and extends the empire of reason. But must every amusement be renounced which does not contribute to expand our understanding? It is a cynical and sickly philosophy, which would decry any recreation, which neither pollutes the manners nor hurts the mind. The pursuits of the sportsman lure us from the smoke of cities to the healthful breezes of the forest, and the animating enjoyments of the field; neither is it true that they are so closely allied to stupefaction, as some censors would persuade us. The man of moral feeling and lively fancy may, in the midst of such pursuits, indulge

Digitized by Google

them to the utmost. "There is no one," (says the eloquent Zimmerman) "who may not, by quietly traversing the mountains with his gun, learn to feel how much the great scenes of nature will influence the heart, when assisted by the powers of the imagination. The sight of an agreeable landscape; the various points of view which the spacious plains afford; the freshness of the zephyrs; the beauty of the sky, and the appetite which a long chase procures, will give energy to health, and make every new step seem too short. The privation of every object that can recal the idea of dependence, accompanied by domestic comfort, wholesome exercises, and useful occupations, will add vigour to thought, and inebriate the heart with the most delicious sensations." Where, indeed, hunting and the pursuit of a game form the sole employment of people, it tends naturally, and almost inevitably, to give a coarseness, and rusticity to the character; but there is no danger of this in modern times. Such recreations, on the contrary, may serve to temper the polished effeminacy of the age, and to prevent its degenerating into a too soft and artificial urbanity. The magistrates in the Greek republics encouraged a taste for music among the citizens, as contributing, by its harmony, to allay the ferocity inspired by gymnastic and military exercises. In modern Europe, there is more need of caution, lest all the more boisterous and manly diversions should be exploded, and there be nothing left to counteract the emasculating tendency of our luxurious and fashionable manners.

"Of the laws made for the protection of game we have before spoken. Much has been at various times said respecting the severity of great landed proprietors towards their humble tenantry; and examples of individual oppression have been adduced, in proof of the complaint alledged. It is too true that men invested with power do not always use it with discretion: we are but too apt to be more attentive to our own pleasure than to our neighbour's peace; but still, we believe, that the instances of the extreme exertion of the power involved in the exclusive right to kill game, have been greatly exaggerated. It is indeed to be regretted, that in any, even in a single case, the game laws should be perverted from the rational objects which occasioned their introduction: should any such instances arise by an adherence to the letter, they can never occur without an infringement of their principle. Those who derive a peculiar advantage by any legislative ordinance, ought to be careful so to employ it, as not to harass the excepted part of their fellow-subjects. It is the particular duty of such persons to act with an eye to the true spirit and intention of the laws which regulate the pursuit of game: and to remember, that, although they reserve to them an exclusive participation of rural sports, they confer no right to infringe the privileges, or interrupt the happiness, of even the humblest classes of the state."

We have only to add, what a Roman actor might, but a modern writer must not, say for himself,

Valete & plaudite.

ART. III. *Testacea Britannica; or, Natural History of British Shells.* By GEORGE MONTAGUE, *F. L. S.* 4to.

THOUGH in our last volume we had not the satisfaction to give Mr. Montague unqualified praise, we are truly glad to meet with him again. He is too valuable an acquaintance to be willingly lost, and we rejoice to find that he now presents himself before the public in a better form and dress, so as to make his communications both more instructive and more pleasing. He has exchanged the alphabetical for the scientific arrangement, and enables us to perceive at once with clearness and accuracy, how far that branch of natural history which he has undertaken to illustrate, has advanced under his hands. His style too is much more pure and perspicuous. It is, indeed, still blemished by a few negligences, which a very little care would easily have prevented: but in general it has that simplicity which is suited to his subject, and is such as a man naturally writes, when he is in full possession of his subject, and gives the produce of his own observation and reflexion.

Conchology, we readily confess, is that part of natural history which has always appeared to us the most embarrassing and the least instructive. It is well known that Linnæus himself engaged in it with reluctance, and looked upon it as a degradation of science. It was, he thought, absurd to dignify the habitation, with the form and apparatus of classification and description; and to pass over, or slightly notice, the living inhabitant. The desire of completing his system at length overcame his scruples. The beauty of shells is so generally admired, that they will always occupy a distinguished place in public and private museums: and as the impossibility of meeting with the greater part of them in a recent state, must have damped, if it did not altogether extinguish, the hope of distributing them into general and

Digitized by Google

subordinate families, from prominent characters in the animals themselves, nothing remained but to observe the different forms of these external coverings, and to examine how far they were capable of being reduced to some kind of regular order.

Mr. Montague has adopted the Linnæan arrangement, with a few variations and improvements; and if it be not supereminently the best, it appears to be as natural and easy in practice, as any which has hitherto been formed. But though with Linnæus he has taken his generic characters from the form and structure of the shells, he has by no means lost sight of the animal inhabitants. Indeed, whenever it is possible, they should always be considered as strictly and naturally connected. The shell is not merely the habitation of an organized being: it is part of the being itself; formed from its substance; inseparably attached to it while it continues to live, and powerfully affecting its general habits and œconomy. We may, therefore, justly presume that the form and structure of the one will afford the best key to the essential characters of the other. It is acknowledged that "few of the Linnæan genera of testacea are wholly inhabited by the same animal." Nor is it at all surprizing that two professedly artificial distributions, founded exclusively on separate and those far from primary characters, should not perfectly coincide. To form a truly natural arrangement, the conchologist must look beyond the outline of an aperture and the construction of a hinge: he must investigate the natural connection of a multivalve, of a trivalve, and of a univalve structure; of a fixed and of a moveable position; of a turbinated and not turbinated form, with a peculiar inward physiology and an external mode of life. Such an analogy will, we doubt not, one day be found: and though the complete discovery may be far distant, every step towards it, and every attempt to make the first step, is worthy of praise, and will not be without its due reward. Linnæus has referred most of the testaceous vermes to some of the genera of his order mollusca, or vermes without a testaceous covering; and tho' he was far from supposing that each of his artificial genera of shells had a peculiar corresponding mollusca, he seems to have taken it for granted, that all the species of each particular genus are of the same kind. To his two genera of multivalves, chiton and lepas, he has assigned respectively the doris and the triton. Of the bivalves, he has assigned to the pholas, the mya and the solen, an ascidia; and also to the mytilus, but with a mark of doubt: to the tellina, the cardium, the mactra, the donax, the venus, the spondylius, the chama, and the ostrea, he has assigned a tethys; and also to the arca, but with a mark of doubt: to the anomia, an unnamed mollusca, and to the pinna, a limax. Of the univalves, he has assigned to the argonauta, a sepia; to the nautilus, an unnamed mollusca; to all the rest, except the dentalium, the serpula, the teredo, and the sabella, a limax; to the three former of these, a terebella; and to the last, a nereis. With the generic characters of these, translated from the Systema Naturæ, Mr. Montague has very properly introduced his work, and has added the spio and the amphitrite, formed since the time of Linnæus. He has also subjoined Muller's arrangement of univalve testacea by their several animals.

In the genus chiton, Mr. Montague has added to those of Pennant in the British Zoology, and of Da Costa, the cinereus, the albus, and the fascicularis of Linnæus; and the septemvalvis, a nondescript: but has given no information with respect to the animal.

The genus lepas, Mr. Montague, following Dr. Pulteney, has divided into two, as not possessing any similitude, except in that of the animal inhabitant. Those of the sessile kind he terms balanus, and continues the pedunculated ones under their original title. The new British species of balanus are the rugosus of Pulteney; and the conoides of Donovan. To the anatifera, the only proper species of lepas in Pennant, are added, the anserifera and scalpellum of Linnæus, the fascicularis of Ellis, and the sulcata, a new and elegant species found on Gorgonia Flabellum, near Portland Island.

The lepas seems a connecting link between the balanus and the mollusca genus triton, the only known species of which inhabits the clefts of submarine rocks. The animals in all the genera are fixed, and appear to have the same general habits, the approximating sides of the rock affording to the triton litoreus a defence, and performing the office of a shell.

The pholas has received no addition to Pennant's British species, but the striatus

of Linnæus; and it is doubted whether it is an original native of our coasts, or become naturalized in consequence of being brought by ships from southern climates. Like all its congeners, it is a borer, and, in conjunction with the teredo navalis, effectually destroys the planks of a ship; the pholas perforating across the grain, and the teredo insinuating itself with the grain.

The addition to Pennant's and Da Costa's British species of mya, are, the true pictorum of Linnæus, found hitherto in England only in the river Kennet, above Newbury in Berkshire; the pictorum of Pennant, Lister, Da Costa, and Donovan, being a different species, not described by Linnæus, is called by Mr. Montague ovalis, the inæquivalvis of Walker: the prætenuis of Pulteney: and the suborbicularis, the distorta and bidentata, nondescripts. The first is found in hard limestone at Plymouth, and is dredged up in Salcomb-bay, detached from any other substance, so that it seems to be a borer only when it finds limestone: the second is found also in limestone at Plymouth: the third is of a doubtful genus, but as it is more nearly allied to the mya than any other, it is placed there for the present.

As a specimen of Mr. Montague's easy and perspicuous manner in his descriptions and critical remarks, we shall extract his account of the mya dubia of Pennant, with the interesting information contained in his appendix.

1. PHOLADIA.

Mya Dubia. Br. Zool. t. 44. f. 19.—Turt. Lin. iv. p. 170.

Chama Parva. Da. Costa. p. 234.

Pholas Faba. Pult. Cat. Dorset. p. 27.

"M. with a thin, brittle, opaque shell, of a light colour, and oval shape, marked with fine concentric striæ: the beak is small, but prominent, placed at one end: the valves when shut, have a large oval gape or opening in front, opposite the hinge. Inside white: hinge furnished with a small plate, or rudiment of a tooth, projecting inwards.

"There seems to have been various opinions with respect to the class in which this shell should be placed.

"Mr. Pennant, who first gave it to the public, met it in the Portland cabinet; and seemed to be doubtful with regard to the genus in which it ought to be placed, by the trivial name of dubia he affixed to it.

"Da Costa has placed it with his chama, which consists chiefly of Linnæan myæ. Dr. Pulteney has made it a pholas; we presume under the authority of Dr. Solander. It does not however appear that there ever were sufficient grounds for placing it in the pholas genus. Even Dr. Pulteney himself remarks, that he has seen several of these shells, but had not seen one with the accessory valves, the essential part of the character of that genus.

"Mr. Pennant and Da Costa mention its possessing a tooth, or the rudiment of one. This circumstance perhaps has more inclined us to fix it in the mya genus; others may perhaps hereafter remove it to the mytilus; for the small elevation of the hinge is scarcely to be denominated a tooth."

"Plentiful at Torbay, in fragments of limestone, driven on shore by winter storms, but is not to be found in the rocks, which are ever uncovered by the lowest ebb tides; and of course is rarely obtained alive: in this state, however, we have procured it, and proved beyond doubt, that it cannot belong to the pholades, as it is void of accessory valves.

"The perforations in which these shells are concealed, are sometimes lined with concreted, calcareous substance, closely connected with the rest of the stone, and equally hard, composed of several coats, or laminæ, of a different texture, not unfrequently half a line, or more, in thickness: the openings to these chambers are small, and have somewhat the appearance of two holes broken into one, which is adapted to the shape of the tubes of the animal.

"The inhabitant is an ascidia, with two very long, slender, white tubes, exceeding the length of the shell; these are connected together their whole length, but terminated by two orifices, ciliated with fleshy fibres, of a dark purplish-brown: the body is also white; near the posterior end is a foramen, through which, a small foot, or sustentaculum, is sometimes protruded, and doubtless the apparatus, which assists in perforating rocks, being always placed in its cell with that end downwards, and incapable of turning.

"It is probable this, as well as all other similar animals, whose habits are to perforate stone, are provided with an acid, or some solvent menstruum capable of performing that office: it must also be recollected, that this, seemingly laborious task, is not affected in any given time, but is the work of years; as the chamber for the lodgment of the animal only requires enlarging as the shell grows.

"Stone of a vitrifiable nature, is impenetrable to these animals, but all such as are wholly, or even partly calcareous, are more or less attacked;* and while this, the mytilus rugosus, donax irus, venus perforans, and

* This remark might be attended with considerable national advantage, if pursued with experimental application, under the direction and encouragement of Government. A coating of pounded flint, or glass, laid on timber with a firm cement, would effectually preserve it from the calamitous ravages of the teredo navalis, and other animals of similar habits.

some others, are destroying the hardest lime stone; the pholades are performing similar works, assigned by nature, on softer substances, such as chalk, indurated clay, and wood, which in like manner are perforated by some solvent power; not by the thin, fragile shells, that cover such animals, as some have erroneously asserted, and is too generally credited. All these become fixed in their cells for life, for as they enter in the most minute state, the excavations are conic, with the small end outwards, so that the shells are as it were become enclosed.

"It is most probably, the young of these, and other perforating ascidiæ, that drill the small round holes so frequently observed on shells; and not the trochi, which are incapable of such works."

We have only to observe, that in the second paragraph, instead of *class*, Mr. Montague should have said *genus*. With respect to its class and its order, there has been no difference of opinion.

To the genus solen are added the minutus of Linnæus, a rare British species found burrowed in land limestone at Plymouth: the fragilis of Pulteney: the squamosus, the pinna and the novacula, nondescripts; the latter in every respect like the siliqua, except in the hinge, which is furnished with one strong blunt curved tooth in each valve at one end, destitute of lateral laminæ: these teeth turn contrary ways, and when closed clasp or hook into each other. As the cultellus of Pennant is certainly not that of Linnæus, it is here called antiquatus, the name given it by Solander in the Portland cabinet. Pennant, Da Costa, and Pulteney, have all erred in giving it but one tooth in each valve; whereas in one valve it has two, into which the single tooth of the other closely locks; but they are brittle, and easily destroyed.

The alterations and additions in the genus tellina are numerous. The incarnata of Pennant, the ferroensis of Pulteney, the radiata of Da Costa, and Lister, and the trifasciata of Donovan is called fervensis, its trivial name in Gmelin and Turton. The donacina of Linnæus is supposed to be the trifasciata of Pennant. The planata of the British Zoology, and Turton, the polita of Fulteney, &c. is called tenuis after Da Costa and Donovan. The carnaria of Pennant is supposed to be the incarnata of Linnæus. The additions are, the lactea, the carnaria, and the inequivalvis of Linnæus: the remies? and reticulata? of Linnæus, called fausta and proficua after Pulteney: the striata, and the fabula, of Gmelin: the squalida and læta of Pulteney; (depressa? and punicea of Gmelin: the maculata of Adams;) the rotundata (undata? Pulteney) and the flexuosa, a variety of which is erroneously given by Donovan as the venus sinuosa of Pennant.

The additions to carduum are the aculeatum and the medium of Linnæus; the exiguum (pygmæum of Donovan and Turton): the discors (tellina pisiformis?) the amnicum (tellina amnica of Gmelin, rivalis of the Linnæan Transactions, &c.), and the lacustre (tellina lacustris of Gmelin, &c.): the rubrum and muricatulum described by Walker; the nodosum, the elongatum, and the arcuatum, nondescripts. The animal of the corneum, the amnicum and the lacustre, all fresh water species, is an ascidia with a long tongue-shaped foot, by which it moves backwards by jerks, dilating and contracting it alternately. They are all viviparous, and are probably either androgynous or hermaphrodite, as all those which Mr. Montague dissected early in June contained perfect young.

Under the genus *Mactra*, several errors of former authors are corrected. Pennant has mistaken the true mactra stultorum of Linnæus for his tellina radiata; and has given for the mactra stultorum, a shell which has generally been supposed a variety of the solida, here made a new species, and called subtruncata. He has also taken a shell not known to Linnæus for his venus borealis. It is the mactra listeri of Gmelin, &c., the tellina plana of Donovan, compressa of Pulteney's catalogue, which latter name Mr. Montague adopts. The animal has "two slender tubes placed near together at the anteriour end; one, about three inches long, is continually thrown about in search of food, such as insects, which may be seen passing up this transparent syphon, with the current of water it is continually taking in, and discharging at the shorter tube, placed nearer the hinge; retaining only the nutritious matter: but it occasionally ejects the superabundant waters from both tubes." The mactra lutraria of Linnæus, and the hians of Pulteney, and the Lin. Trans. having been confounded, the difference between them is clearly described by Mr. Montague. The animal of these two species is not a tethys but an ascidia. The additions are the glauca of Donovan, the dealbata (pellucida Gmel.), the boysii (alba of Mr. Wood. Lin. Trans.), the triangularis, and the tenuis, nondescripts.

Digitized by Google

Under the genus donax, the additions are the complanata and the plebeia, noticed before only by Lister; and the castanea, a nondescript. The error of Pennant in calling the donax irus of Linnæus, tellina cornubiensis is also rectified. This species perforates the hardest lime stone. Its animal inhabitant is an ascidia, and not a tethys; which is probably the case with most which perforate other bodies.

The additions to the genus Venus are the paphia, pectunculus fasciatus of Da Costa; the tigrina of Linnæus: the granulata of Gmelin: the pullastra of Mr. Wood: the minima, the subcordata, the triangularis, the spinifera, and the perforans, nondescripts. Pennant's erycina is determined to be the verrucosa of Linnæus; his rugosa, the gallina of Gmelin and our author's striatula; his mercenaria the islandica, and not the mercenaria of Linnæus, which is the wampum of the American Indians, and has not been found on our coasts; and his litterata, the decussata.

The chama is rendered a British genus, for the first time, by the insertion of the chama cor, found about the Hebrides.

Under the genus Arca, the glycimeris of Pennant is referred to the pilosa of Linnæus on the authority of Pulteney; the barbata to the lactea, in opposition to Pulteney; and the tortuosa to the noæ. The minuta of Gmelin is the only addition.

The genus ostrea is divided into two, after Pennant and others; those which are aurited being separated from the rest under the generic denomination of pecten. A difference also is pointed out in the hinge, that of the pecten having a small sub triangular, that of the ostrea, a transverse, striated cavity.

The lineatus, first noticed by Dr. Pulteney, and sent by him to Da Costa, is the only addition to Pennant's species of pecten. His subrufus is referred to the opercularis of Linnæus.

The ostrea striata of Donovan, first noticed by Lister, is in the body of the work, added to the edulis, the only species in Pennant, but in the appendix is removed to the genus anomia. Mr. Montague has recently taken alive a few large and strong specimens, adhering to old bivalves.

The aculeata and undulata of Gmelin are the only additions to the genus anomia. The squamula is supposed to be the young of the ephippium, and the cepa not to be distinct from it.

To the mytili of Pennant are added the crista galli and discors of Linnæus; the avonensis, which seems to have been described by Lister; the striatus from Walker; the ungulinus of Donovan; and the præcisus, resembling the solen minutus, and the discrepans, nondescripts.

The following original observations annexed to this genus will give pleasure to our readers.

"We shall here take the liberty of remarking, that very great attention is requisite to discriminate some of the minute bivalve shells, and separate them from the bivalve monoculi.

"The great affinity that the coverings, or shells, of some of this class of insects, bear to the testacea tribe, has in all probability caused many to have been considered as small species of mytilus, or the fry of larger; for many such monoculi are capable of shutting their valves intirely, and inclosing every part of the animal: in which state they always are when dead, so that it is no easy matter to discriminate.

"Mr. Walker is not the only one who has fallen into this error, in his figures 76, 77, and 78, all of which we have received from Sandwich, and have found them in other parts.

"The first is found in fresh-water, and is not much unlike monoculus conchaceus, Gmelin Syst. p. 3003, but is longer, in proportion to its breadth, than the figure given of that insect by Donovan, British Insects, i. t. 5.

"The other two, given by Mr. Walker, are marine monoculi; both found on oysters, and other rugged shells: and is not uncommon on the coast of Devon: especially No. 77, about the byssus of the pinna ingens: both these appear to differ only in shape, and do not seem to have obtained a place amongst the apterous insects. When examined under a microscope, the shells are punctured all over.

"To these supposed mytili of Mr. Walker, we may add the monoculus conchaceus, which has been sent to us for such; and we could enumerate many others, which inhabit both salt and fresh-water, that might readily be mistaken for minute shells: one of which is figured in Tab. 14 No. 8. of this work by mistake, not having an opportunity of examining the animal till after the plate was engraved.

"This and another species of monoculus in every respect like it, but of a longer and more cylindric shape, is found on oysters on the south coast of Devonshire; and on the byssus of the pinna ingens; a general repository for monoculi and very minute shells, especially nautili and vermiculi.

"These two species of monoculus are extremely smooth and glossy, of a blush-co-

Digitized by Google

lour when alive, or fresh, and opaque yellowish-white when dead; and are distinguished from any other, by the remarkable sinus in front, near the end, through which is a groove or channel; but this perforation is only to be distinguished when the valves are laid open. Had Gmelin made any mention of this singular structure, we should have been inclined to think these were his M. luteus and M. flavidus:* but as we have not at present an opportunity of consulting the figures of those insects given in Muller, must leave the matter to be decided by entomologists; craving pardon for this digression.

"We cannot however quit the subject without remarking, that the surest distinction between the shells of the bivalve monoculi and the minute bivalve testacea is, that the latter always, more or less, possess some concentric wrinkles or annulations of growth, as well as some appearance of umbo or beak: such therefore, which are destitute of these marks, may with confidence be referred to the former.

"If any such doubtful objects are put into water, even after the animal has been long dead and dried; and when softened, the valves carefully opened with the point of a fine needle, and afterwards put into a drop of water under a microscope; the antennæ and legs will soon appear, if a monoculus."

Linnæus, on the authority of Hasselquist, calls the animal of the pinna, a limax, to which it has not the smallest affinity. It appears more nearly allied to the animal of the mytilus, which is called by Linnæus an ascidia with a mark of doubt. It seems to be entirely destitute of locomotion, being immoveably fixed by its byssus to other bodies. The muricata of Linnæus is added to the two former British species. The genus nautilus, the second of the Linnæan univalves, was not admitted into the British Zoology. A number of minute species have since been discovered by Walker and others, some known to Linnæus and others not. Mr. Montague has given 16 species.

The animals of all the 12 following univalves are said to be a limax, but, as Mr. Montague observes, "the greater part of them do not correspond with the definition of the mollusca animal. It is well known that most, if not all, fresh water, as well as most marine univalve shells are inhabited by an animal possessed of only two feelers, destitute of eyes at their tip, but *(having them)* placed at their base, varying in situation in different subjects. But besides this difference, the circumstance of the aquatic testacea, being inhabited by animals of different sexes, and not hermaphrodites, as in the mollusca limacis, *have* not been sufficiently attended to. It will be found also that some are viviparous, and others oviparous: and it is remarkable that all those with four tentacula, whose eyes are placed at the summit of the two longest, are hermaphrodite, and are all land species. Those with two tentacula, and their eyes situate on the head, are of different sexes, and except two known species at present (turbo elegans and carychium) are all aquatic.

"That the Linnæan limax ought to be divided there cannot be the least doubt; but we cannot agree with Muller, that it is capable of forming so many genera, by the mere circumstance of the eyes being placed a little more or less behind, or on one side of the tentacula. There seems, however, to be two strong natural divisions: first, those with ocellated tentacula; and second, such as have their eyes situated on the head: each of which might again be divided into two families; thus,

1 LIMAX.

"Body oblong, creeping, with a longitudinal, flat disk, or sustentaculum, beneath: foramen, or aperture, most usually placed on the right side: tentacula ocellated.

"Terrestrial hermaphroditical.

"* Tentacula four: eyes two, placed at the summit of the two longest.

"** Tentacula two.

2 LUBRICA.

"Body oblong, creeping, with a longitudinal flat disk, or sustentaculum, beneath: foramen, or aperture, most usually situated on the right side: tentacula not ocellated: eyes two, placed on the head. Mostly aquatic, and of different sexes,

"* Tentacula, or feelers, four, one of which is plumose.

"** Tentacula two.

"To the first division of the limax would belong all the mollusca tribe usually termed slugs: of these the limax cinereus and agrestis, Gmelin p. 3100, and p. 3101, appear to be the link between the testacea and mollusca, (being possessed of a shelly substance under the shield upon the back,) connecting these land animals together; as some of the marine bullæ do that of the aquatic: bulla aperta, haliotoidea, and plumula, equally conceal their shells.

"The circumstance of some of the naked limaces possessing a shell internally, the anato ical enquiries of Swammerdam and Lis-

* The antennæ indeed of the one figured in this work was not simple, but composed of several bristles.

r could not overlook; both these authors ave described and figured it.

"That these animals therefore belong as uch to the vermes testacea as many of the bul-, there is no doubt; but it was not thought ecessary at present to form a new genus on urpose, for a shapeless shell of irregular rowth.

"It is usually somewhat oval, sometimes at and thin, with a membranaceous margin; thers are half as thick as they are broad, id rarely possessed of any concavity: colour lvery-white, or of a micaceous appearance; ie upper side is a little convex, and slightly rinkled concentrically to the smaller, or pos-rior, end: the under part is sometimes ough, and granulated with crystal-like shin-ig angles.

"This shell is the lapis limacis or snail-tone of authors, and is said to have been sed for medical purposes: according to po-ular opinion, it cures the tertian ague, if fas-ened to the patient's arm.*

"Favanne has figured several species of li-nax in his Zoomorphose, tab. 76, that ppear to be the intermediate link between uch as possess an internal shell, and those vith testaceous covering; these have only small shell attached to the posterior end. But as no such have been discovered in Eng-and, we only mention it to shew the nice radations in nature's work; and how utterly mpossible it is to divide that chain, which he has so admirably linked together."

The cypræa pediculus of Pennant is eparated from the pediculus of Lin-næus on the authority of Dr. Solander, whose trivial name, arcticus, is adopted: nd it is doubted whether the pediculus f Borlase and Donovan, not uncommon n our shores, be not also a different pecies, on account of its wanting the ulcus on the back, so invariable in the oreign ones. To this genus are added, he bullata and the voluta; the former loubtful whether only a variety of the ediculus; the latter found in the West ndies, but never before given as a Bri-ish shell, though it is sometimes taken live by the oyster dredgers in Salcomb Bay. Its animal when alive extends a hin membrane from each side the aper-ure, and almost covers the shell. The ediculus has the same property to a reat degree, and when in motion under vater has a very elegant appearance, rom its diversity of colours.

Under the genus bulla, Mr. Monta-ue is rich in information concerning he animal inhabitants. The curious izzard-like substance found in the lig-aria has been described by Mr. Hum-phreys in the 2nd vol. of the Linnæan Transactions. The extraordinary struc-ture of three other species is so well de-scribed in the present work, that we can-not resist the temptation of laying before our readers the account of the halio-toidea.

"The animal, like that of the preceding species, so completely envelopes the shell, that not the least appearance of it is to be disco-vered, either in a dead or living state. It is of an oval shape, and of a reddish, or brown colour; sometimes nearly white: has much the appearance of a contracted, naked limax, and indeed seems to be nearly allied to that class of animals.

"The upper part of the body is very con-vex, covered with a thick, tough, ligamen-tous skin, that conceals the shell, and extends downwards on each side, where the edges are thin, and detached from the body: in the fore part of this margin, is a sinus, through which the animal protrudes an appendage, or arm, somewhat flat, a quarter of an inch in length, the extremity of which is bifid; the lower division terminating in a thread-like process. The body of the animal beneath, or rather the sustentaculum, is oblong and flat, with a deep depression between it and the marginal skin: the head is furnished with two small, white tentacula, at the base of which, are two small black eyes.

"The shell may be felt under the skin on the back, but is difficult to be extracted with-out breaking, from the extreme toughness of the part that covers it; the best method of ef-fecting it, is to make a longitudinal incision on the back, with a pair of sharp pointed scissars.

"The animal is possessed of considerable locomotive power; and when in motion, frequently contracts the margin or loose skin into wrinkles, or folds, exposing the sides of the body.

"It is in size three times as large as its shell, and is incapable of much contraction, or expansion: at first sight might be mis-taken for the animal of B. aperta, but on com-parison, will be found essentially different ex-ternally, and more particularly in being desti-tute of the testaceous gizzard, so remarkable in that animal.

"In the singular circumstance of the shell being enclosed within the animal of some of this class, there is a considerable analogy be-tween them and the laplysia. The L. de-pilans, possesses a flexible, corneous sub-stance under the skin on the back, termed a shield; which differs only from these species of open bullæ in not being of a testaceous sub-stance: this is of an oval shape, pointed at one end, which turns inward, and a little to one side, in a sub-convulated manner: it is

* Encyclopædia Britannica.

Digitized by Google

marked with concentric wrinkles: colour purplish-brown.

"This, therefore, seems to be the link between the true mollusca animals, and the testacea: and it is probable future researches may discover, that many which have hitherto been considered as belonging to the mollusca tribe, are really testaceous, upon dissection."

The additional species are the aperta, the hydatis, the fontinialis, and the hypnorum of Linnæus; the akera of Gmelin; the catena (punctata? Adams) the truncata and the emarginata of Adams; the obtusa described by Walker; and the haliotoidea, plumula, umbilicata and diaphana, nondescripts. The account of the animal of the fontinialis is worth transcribing.

"The animal is of a light colour, with a yellowish cast: tentacula two, setaceous, long: eyes two, black, placed underneath, at the base of the tentacula. When in motion, it covers great part of the shell with a thin pinnated membrane, thrown out on the right side, extending quite behind, and partly on the left side, covering the smaller volution: this membrane is very deeply divided or digitated, the points of which meet, and sometimes intersect on the back of the shell; and are so transparent as scarce to be distinguished, but by the assistance of a glass. The sustentaculum, or foot, is long and narrow: the foramen, or common aperture, is on the left side, as must be the case with all the animals of this kind inhabiting heterostrophe shells.

"It has very considerable loco-motive power, and transports itself by adhering to the surface of the water with the shell downwards: against which it crawls with as much apparent ease as on a solid body; and will sometimes let itself down gradually by a thread affixed to the surface of the water, in the manner of the limax filans* from the branch of a tree.

"The property of crawling under water, against its surface, is not wholly confined to this species; but we know of no other testaceous animal capable of suspending itself under water in the same way."

The additions to the genus voluta, are the pallida of Linnæus, the denticulata and alba, described by Walker, and the catenata, a non-descript.

Under the genus buccinum, the additional species are the perdix of Linnæus; the bilineatum of Gmelin; the lineatum of Da Costa, &c.; the ambiguum and hepaticum of Pulteney; the terrestre (Acicula, Muller; obtusulum, Turton, who describes two shells under the same name, one with five spires, the other with three, of which Mr. Montague does not seem to have been sensible, though he has given that with three spires, under the name of obtusulum, and has referred to another of Walker's minute shells;) four other minute shells copied from Adams; and the cinctum and minimum, non-descripts.

In the genus murex, the British Zoology is enriched by the purpureus, the linearis, the muricatus, the turricula, the rufus, the sinuosus, the attenuatus, the gracilis, the septangularis, and the tuberculatis, all non-descripts. The additions to trochus are the tumidus and the fuscus.

We have hitherto distinctly specified the additions which have been made in the present work to the British species of Pennant and Da Costa, the only two modern writers who have professed to bring them into one collective view; and this we have done, that our readers may form an idea of the progress which has since been made in this department of natural history; and in this particular, may be able to estimate the obligation it is under to Mr. Montague. The remainder of the genera are treated with equal distinctness, and illustrated by critical remarks, equally judicious and discriminating, and are enlarged by at least an equal number of additional species; but the limits of the present article will not permit us to pursue them in detail. We will, therefore, only make two or three extracts from such parts as appear most original and instructive.

The following rules for distinguishing a reversed shell may be useful to young conchologists:

"Nothing appears more confused and incomprehensible, than the various descriptions of different authors, concerning the spiral turns of a heterostrophe shell; some call it from right to left, others, vice versa, from left to right.

"Every conchologist knows, that most convoluted shells turn one way, and that there are a few species which are heteroclitical, or invariably turn contrary to the usual manner: some indeed have doubted, whether this is a permanent character; there requires, however, no argument to prove it is so, to those who have taken the trouble to examine the common species of heterostrophe shells, which daily present themselves to our notice in our rural walks. Indeed, it is rather strange, that not one of these shells, whose nature is to have their spires turn in

* For an account of the limax filans, see Lin. Trans. vol. iv. p. 85, tab. 8.

the more unusual manner, has (to our knowledge), ever been met with to vary from that formation; as such accidental deformities have been found, in a few instances, amongst those which are usually termed dextrals, or have the more usual spiral turns, and have become lusus heterostrophon shells.

"In order, therefore, to explain which way the turn of the spiral convolutions of a reversed shell takes, omitting the vague signification of turning to the right or left; we shall observe, that the more common turn of shells is with the apparent motion of the sun, or as the index or hand of a clock moves.

"But in order to be more clearly understood, let us compare the spiral volutions of a shell to a common cork-screw, and we shall find, that whether the mouth or apex is placed upwards, the spires will turn from the upper to the lower end like a common screw, which is in the same direction as the index of a time-piece, and what is commonly understood by a dextral or right-handed screw. As a further definition, such shells have their aperture on the right side, when examined with that end downward, and is in the direction of the sun's apparent motion.

"On the contrary, a reversed shell, when placed in a perpendicular position, has its spiral volutions in an opposite direction to the motion of the index of a watch, or a clock, or to a common screw, and in fact resembles what is usually termed a sinistral, or left-handed screw. These have their aperture on the left side, or opposite the left hand of the person holding the shell, with the mouth downwards, and the opening is opposite the sun's apparent motion.

"In order to determine whether a flat shell, whose volutions are laterally placed, is a reversed species, we have only to examine which way the volutions turn from the apex or centre towards the mouth; and if we find it contrary to the motion of the index of a watch, it is a heterostrophe, or reversed shell; and, vice versa.

"In some of the more depressed species of helix, or nautilus, attention is requisite to be paid to the mouth, in order to determine which is really the upper side of the shell, for it is on that side the spiral turns are to be taken from the centre or apex; and in most instances this is to be determined by the oblique direction of the aperture to the under part, where the lip rarely extends so far as on the upper part. In fixed shells, such as serpula, there is no difficulty, as the side which is sessile must be considered the base or under part; thus in the serpula lucida, the fixed part is sometimes very small, and the mouth protends spirally upwards, in a contrary direction to the sun, and therefore must be considered a reversed or heterostrophe shell, the same as if the volutions nearest the mouth had turned laterally upon the centre or fixed ones.

"This shell, indeed, is most frequently found with regular lateral volutions; and though subject to great variety, with respect to contortions, it invariably turns the aperture one way.

"In some species of nautilus, however, there can be no rule to ascertain whether it is dextral or sinistral; for when the aperture is exactly lateral, the lip collapses the body equally, and the sides of the shell similar, as in N. calcar. it cannot be defined.

"In others of that genus, as in N. beccarii and beccarii perversus, two shells, the principal distinction of which is the contrary turn of their volutions, it is easily determined by the convexity of the upper side, and, of course, the aperture being placed somewhat beneath."

As a corrective of the romantic particulars which have been published concerning the amours of snails, our readers will be pleased with Mr. Montague's more sober relation:

"It may be expected in the history of this animal, so long celebrated for acting the part of Cupid in its amours, that something should be said upon a subject so singular and extraordinary.

"So much, however, has been already written by different authors on the loves of snails, which requires more than common faith to credit, that we must beg to refer our curious readers to the more recent accounts of the actions of snails in love, given in the first volume of the Naturalist's Miscellany; where the author very properly prepares the reader for the belief of such wonders, by saying, 'I must request my readers to summon all their philosophical faith to receive the surprising particulars.'

"That the hermaphroditical animal of the helix aspersa, as well as h. nemoralis, (or at least some of them,) possess small testaceous spiculi at certain seasons, must be admitted; but that they are missile darts, we have much reason to doubt, though it is natural to suppose the animals are furnished with them, for the purpose of stimulating each other to love, because it is only at that season they are found to possess them. If such are ever discharged at each other, we have been extremely unfortunate in our observations, for in no one instance could we ever find the dart penetrated, though at the time the animals are close, the point may irritate: but it is neither sufficiently strong, nor sharp-pointed, to penetrate the tough skin with which these animals are furnished; and, indeed, the extremely viscid secretion, with which they are so copiously provided, adheres so strongly to these spiculi, when wholly projected from the body, that they are for a time held by it. Perhaps we may be told hereafter, that this tough excretory fluid is used as a cord to regain these darts after they have been discharged, but such we should hold equally fabulous, with much of the accounts related by various authors.

Digitized by Google

"These celebrated love-darts are subpellucid white, and very brittle, about a quarter of an inch or three-eighths in length, and somewhat triangular, like the blade of a small sword."

Next to the serpula, a new genus is formed for such as bear some affinity to that tribe, but do not come under the Linnæan generic character, being independent, and not affixed to other bodies. These, which are entirely of the more minute kind, and were almost wholly unknown to Linnæus, Mr. Montague has brought together, under the generic name vermiculum.

The genus teredo, our author proves, has been misplaced in the system. It is a compleat multivalve, and ought to be placed with the pholas, or between it and the balanus, for it has no affinity either to the serpula or dentarium. In a future edition, Mr. Montague will undoubtedly so place it.

The introductory remarks to the genus sabella are so judicious, as well as new, that we shall make no apology for subjoining them as a concluding extract:

"Before we enter upon the descriptions of the several species of sabella indigenous to the British coasts, it may not be improper to remark, that in placing them amongst shells we have deviated from our own opinion, and have followed the system of Linnæus, and other later writers, in continuing this genus amongst the vermes testacea.

"The tubes in which the animals of this class are enclosed, are all, more or less, composed of extraneous matter agglutinated together, such as sand, gravel, and broken shells, of a finer or coarser texture, according to the nature of the animal inhabitant, and not prepared by a testaceous secretion from the body of the animal, forming a compact solid substance, the true character of a shell.

"Amongst the sabellæ of Linnæus, many larvæ of sub-aquatic flies are placed, several of which are to be found in our rivers and stagnant waters; but these, deriving their origin from winged insects, have no claim of affinity to a sabella, much less to a place in conchology.

"We are not aware that any true sabella is found in fresh water; and certainly no winged insect has yet been discovered to perform its change from the larva to the perfect fly, in salt water.

"Gmelin has enumerated a great many sabellæ which inhabit fresh water, principally on the authority of Schroeter, many of which are varieties only of the same imperfect insect: the larva of the ephemera vulgata, some that of phryganea, and perhaps other neuropterpus insects.

"The tubes or cases in which these larvæ are concealed, are formed of whatever extraneous matter is near, and which is increased as its growth requires. This accounts for the many elegant varieties of such tubes. Some are composed wholly of small shells of various kinds, others of fragments of shells mixed with sand, bits of stick, stalks or fibres of plants; and it is remarkable, that some species attach pieces of stick longitudinally, while others bite off short pieces and place them transverse, like basket-work, some placing them triangular, others quadrangular or lozenge shaped; but the most beautiful variety is that found in waters abounding with helix nautileus, with which we have seen these cases compleatly coated, in a regular and most elegant manner, with their apertures outwards, and some of the animals yet alive. Another variety, coated with fine sand and minute bits of shining mica, found in Cornwall, and other streams running over micaceous granite, is deserving notice; but we must not enter further on a subject which more properly belongs to entomology.

"Why a part of the Linnæan sabellæ should be removed into the mollusca class of vermes, and others left amongst the testacea, is difficult to determine; for those whose inhabitants are nereis, have no more claim to a place amongst shells, than such as are inhabited by an amphitrite or terebella; and might, certainly, with as much propriety, be transferred to their proper animal class.

"That the sabella genus should be wholly expunged, and the several animals placed in their respective genera amongst the mollusca, there can be no doubt; for those whose cases are made up of agglutinated fragments of shells, the exuviæ of other animals, are as little deserving a place amongst testacea, as those formed wholly of sand, or composed of both. Such are equally extraneous substances, foreign to the animals, and are only attached by a mucous or glutinous secretion, which forms the internal coating, and is the only part of such tubes really belonging to the animals; and which, in any species, cannot be termed more than coriaceous, but more commonly membranaceous, of a thin, flimsy, flexible substance when moist, but extremely fragile when dry."

Upon the whole, we congratulate the lovers of natural history on the expectation which they may justly form, of further elucidation of British conchology from the continued labours of so acute, so rational, and so diligent an observer as Mr. Montague is cultivating the proper field for the produce of real knowledge. Instead of gratifying an ill-founded scientific vanity, in collecting a great variety of rare specimens from the shores of the Indian and Pacific Oceans, of which nothing more than the shell is likely to be ever known, he is solicitous to become well acquainted with all that

relates to the comparatively few species which are found on his native coasts, and in the woods, the fields, and the streams to which he has daily access. Here the animal inhabitant may be studied and understood; and here principles may be investigated and established, which may be analogically applied to the shells of distant countries, and may gradually lead to a system founded on the primary and invariable lineaments of nature.

We have only to add, that figures of some of the rarer and hitherto unpublished species are given, drawn and engraved by a female friend of the author, for the execution of which a needless apology is offered. They are such as natural history figures should be, faithful delineations of the originals, correctly drawn, and clearly expressing the distinguishing characters.

ART. IV. *Goldsmith's Natural History abridged, for the Use of Schools. By Mrs.* PILKINGTON. 8vo.

IN our former volume we expressed our satisfaction in contemplating the improved system of education, which is gradually making its way in our private schools. Our public ones, which boast of ancient foundation, and possess the advantage of established fame, are, we fear, too strongly wedded to prescribed and supposed venerable forms, to admit of any innovation. None are more sincerely disposed than ourselves to acknowledge the value of classical attainments. We regard them as equally essential to the character of a scholar and a gentleman. Without them no one has a right to aspire to the profession of law, physic, or divinity: no one can properly discharge the duties of a statesman, or a magistrate.

But still they ought by no means to engage the whole of our attention in those early years, when alone a due preparation can be made for the active and beneficial employments of mature life. The productions of nature in what are usually called its three kingdoms, and the laws under which bodies act upon each other, are the materials on which men of all ranks and degrees are to work, and the rules by which they are to direct their operations. The former are the subjects of natural history: the latter of natural philosophy. In some occupations they are of indispensible necessity: in all, they are of admirable use. In the higher stations of life they are of peculiar importance, as affording perpetual and inexhaustible means of filling up those hours of leisure, which are too generally lost in listless ennui, or disgraced by dissipation and vice.

The man of large estate, the soldier, and the sailor, should, above all others, be naturalists. The latter are compelled by the duties of their office, the former is enabled by the independence of his fortune, and his freedom from professional confinement, to traverse distant regions, and to obtain the most favourable opportunities of studying their various productions. And if they have no turn for natural pursuits, how much vacant time will they be in danger of mis-spending? How much must they often suffer from an incapacity to find either business or amusement? But if they have been well instructed in the elements of natural science, how will they rejoice in the wide field of observation which opens upon them on every side? With what transport will they enter upon a new climate, and survey the novelties which burst upon their view? And how much will the progress of useful knowledge be accelerated by their enlightened researches?

For this purpose, it is not sufficient to put into their hands an indigested history of animals, plants, and fossils, thrown together without order, and without principles. Such a one may amuse them for a few hours; but will as soon be forgotten, and scarcely ever resumed. Nothing can be of durable and substantial benefit, which does not in the outset call their judgment into action, and accustom them in its progress to examine and to compare, to define, and to arrange. System is the one thing needful. A bad one is better than none: but the best is certainly to be desired; and even of this best, they should be carefully taught the deficiencies; that in all their observations they may direct their attention to its advancement, and may skilfully employ their talents in raising it nearer to perfection. When a disposition to analyze and to methodize is produced, the stamina of a naturalist are formed: every succeeding year will add to his strength: no bounds can be set to his growth; and,

Digitized by Google

as is said of cartilaginous fishes, he will continue to increase as long as he continues to live.

We fear the work now before us will not greatly contribute to this pleasing effect. Mrs. Pilkington has been singularly unfortunate in the author she has chosen to abridge, and in the judgment she has formed of his character. She misleads her fair pupil, Miss Elphinstone, when she informs her in the dedication that Goldsmith, as a natural historian, has obtained universal credit. She has been strangely misinformed, or she would not have said in her preface, that his history of animated nature is justly and universally admired. The fact is, Goldsmith was no naturalist. Whenever he wrote from the spontaneous impulse of his own mind, he wrote in verse: and among the poets of the latter end of the eighteenth century, he is of the first order. But, like many other men of genius, he was too indolent to do much without an additional stimulus. When he wrote in prose, he wrote for bread.

Goldsmith, said Dr. Johnson, is writing a history of ancient Rome, and he will make it as entertaining as a novel: he might have added, and as little entitled to credit. Master of a pleasing style, he had a happy facility in working up the materials of other writers into an elegant and imposing form: but as he possessed no extensive range of knowledge, and was almost equally void of discriminating and of combining powers, he compiled always without judgment, and too often without care. With respect to his natural history, he is said to have acknowledged that he treated what he thought a trifling subject in a trifling manner. Fortunately for him there was then in the English language no popular view of the subject which could boast of any degree of elegance, and his work had an extensive sale. It may still continue to amuse those who read only for amusement, but it has no further claim; nor can any abridgment of it be ever employed with advantage as an elementary book. Such a book is still a desideratum in our language; and it is, we fear, an acquisition which we are not likely soon to obtain. To make it what we wish it to be, will require an union of genius and science, which is rarely employed in providing the first rudiments of knowledge for the young. We know of only one living writer, who has all the qualifications necessary for the task, and is, at the same time, accustomed to the consideration of entering into the imperfect views, and supplying the wants of the uninstructed mind. No one who has read (and who has not read?) the sketches of natural history, scattered through the little volumes entitled Evenings at Home, can be at a loss to guess whom we mean. That writer's plain and elegant style, and happy talent for familiar illustration, would be most beneficially employed in conducting the unpractised naturalist through the three kingdoms of nature, in explaining the principles on which the classification of their various parts has been conducted, and in selecting such details as would render the whole equally interesting and instructive.

At present, we can only lament that Mrs. Pilkington has bestowed her time and attention on a work which will not fulfill her laudable intentions. But in justice to her it is incumbent upon us to add, and we add with pleasure, that her abridgment, as far as we have compared it with the original, is faithful and elegant.

ART. V. *A History of Quadrupeds, adapted to the Capacity of Youth. By Mrs.* MARY TRIMMER, *of Kentish Town.* 8vo.

WHEN this history of quadrupeds was first announced, we felt some prepossession in its favour. We did not, indeed, expect that it would realize the ideas expressed in our last article, but the respectable name of Trimmer induced us to look for some judgment in the arrangement, and for much moral instruction in the application of its materials. A glance at the title-page lowered our hopes, by introducing to us a Mrs. *Mary* Trimmer, and not the well-known author of various publications for the use of young persons, which have been so generally circulated and approved. A slight view of the work completely dispelled them, and convinced us that, if Mrs. Pilkington's Abridgment of Goldsmith must by no means aspire to the honour of being admitted as an elementary book for the instruction of youth in an advanced

Digitized by Google

stage of their education, Mrs. Mary Trimmer's compilation will have no just cause of complaint if it be consigned to the very lowest form. In some respects, it may be advantageously put into the hands of such as have just advanced beyond their hornbook, and have learnt to put syllables together. The figures will excite the curiosity, and some of the details will fix the attention of the little urchins, much better than a book of moral sentences; the subject itself will more usefully enlarge their ideas than is done by most of the fictitious tales which at present form the principal rudiments of their learning. But before it can become fit for this humble office, it must receive some material defalcations and corrections: nothing must be said in it about procreation, rutting seasons, and organs of generation; nor should a child be told, what every one but a child in natural history knows to be false, that the argali and the musmon are different animals; and that "there are seven species of camel which live in a wild state in the desarts of Arabia and Africa, and in the temperate parts of Asia."

We have too lively a recollection of our youthful feelings to take pleasure in speaking unfavourably of a professed female production: some feeble remains of gallantry incline us to indulge the persuasion that something of a *ruse de guerre* has been employed on this occasion, and that, like poor Slender in the play, instead of sweet Ann Page, we have got hold of a great lubberly boy: but if there be really a Mrs. Mary Trimmer, of Kentish Town, in existence, we must honestly advise her to betake herself to some other calling, and to employ her time in making caps, or puddings and pies, or in short any thing within the limits of innocence, rather than a book on natural history.

ART. VI. *Tracts on the Natural History of Animals and Vegetables. Translated from the original Italian of the Abbe* SPALLANZANI, *by John Graham Dalzell, Esq. Advocate.* Second Edition. 2 vols. 8vo.

THE curious experiments of the late indefatigable Abbe Spallanzani, on several subjects of natural history, and particularly on animal physiology, are well known in every part of Europe. So long ago as 1765, appeared his dissertation on microscopic animalcula, in which he established their animality in opposition to Needham's theory of a vegetative power, and Buffon's of organic molecules. It was followed 1768, by his celebrated prodromus on animal reproduction, particularly of the heads of snails, the feet and tails of water newts, &c. after amputation. In 1776, the principles of his first dissertation were farther developed and supported, in his tracts on the natural history of animals and vegetables, the translation of which is now before us. And finally, in 1778, were published his dissertations on animal digestion, and the generation of animals and vegetables. The latter dissertations were translated into English in 1784, with an introductory analysis of the tracts on the natural history of animals and vegetables; but the tracts themselves did not appear in our language till the year 1799, when they were printed at Edinburgh without the name of the translator. In the first edition, the tract on the animalcula of infusions was considerably abbreviated: those on seminal vermiculi, on animals and vegetables confined in stagnant air, on animals killed and revived, and on the origin of the plantulæ of mould, were given entire; with the addition of two memoirs on the reproduction of the head of the terrestrial snail; by Mr. Bonnet, of Geneva. With respect to the latter, the translator observed in his preface, that Signor Spallanzani (besides his prodromo) published two memoirs *sopra la riproduzione della testa nella lumache terestri*, which would with more propriety have formed part of the volume; but that he was not so entirely master of his own time, as the superintendance of publishing two or three hundred pages would require. He also confessed, that in some passages he had not been able to ascertain the author's meaning with precision; a confession which was fully verified by the frequent obscurity of the translation.

In the second edition, with which we are more immediately concerned, the name of the translator appears, and many improvements have been made. The dissertation on the animalcula of infusions is given nearly entire; nothing being now omitted but a part of the controversy with Mr. Needham, which, in the present day, would be uninteresting

to most readers: and two epistolary dissertations are added on the same subject, addressed to the author by Mr. Bonnet. To Bonnet's memoirs on the reproduction of the heads of snails, are prefixed two memoirs on the same subject by Spallanzani; and to the whole, are annexed three memoirs on the reproduction of the members of the water newt by his Genevan friend. Occasional notes by the translator are now also for the first time, introduced, with some general preliminary remarks to supply the place of other elucidations. The translation itself is in this second edition not only corrected and revised, but so much altered in all its parts as to render it almost a new work: the former errors and obscurities are not only generally removed, but the construction of the sentences is frequently changed, and the whole reads much more like an original. Still, however, a few imperfections remain, arising partly from the improper use of some of the auxiliary verbs which our countrymen in the northern part of the island are scarcely ever able entirely to surmount, and partly from too close an adherence to the Italian idiom in rendering the conjunctive and other particles. In some cases, the meaning must be gathered from the connection, and not from the literal force of the English expression. Thus, when relating the result of Pistorini's experiments on animals confined in stagnant air, he tells us, that "two animals died *as soon* as one, though Pistorini used the same vessels and animals of the same size and species." The sentence, detached from the context, would direct our attention to the circumstance of their not living longer, whereas the wonder was that they lived as long, that is, did not die sooner.

From the notes and introductory observations, Mr. Dalzell appears to have acquired an extensive acquaintance with the subjects discussed in the original work, by actual experiment, as well as by extensive reading and close thinking; and we cannot but consider this improved edition of the translation as a valuable addition to our English stock of physiological knowledge. The general results of the experiments have, indeed, been so frequently mentioned in different publications, that they have now but little attraction on the score of novelty.—But still it was desirable that the English reader should have an opportunity of becoming acquainted with the manner in which they were obtained, and with the particular details on which they are founded. It is equally pleasant and instructive, to view the progress of a superior mind in its patient researches after truth; to follow it through its miscarriages no less than its successful efforts; and to perceive how one step suggested another, and either led to a conclusion apparently satisfactory, or ended in doubt and perplexity.

The genius of Spallanzani was penetrating and cautious, ardently desirous of investigating the secrets of nature, and unwilling to rely on first appearances. He never formed a decisive judgment till he had done all in his power to survey the subject in all its relations: he had also a happy facility in diversifying his expedients for the acquisition of knowledge; and if at any time he was induced to repose in a false theory, his mistakes were owing to the imperfect state of knowledge which was common to all his contemporaries. His observations and reasonings on the effect of stagnant air on animal life, were made before the late brilliant discoveries concerning the constitution of the atmosphere: we cannot wonder, therefore, that he attributed the death of animals in close vessels to noxious exhalations from their bodies, and not to a change in the constituent parts of the air itself.

His correspondence with Bonnet, and his manner of conducting the controversy with Needham and Buffon, bear all the marks of a candid and liberal mind. Considering those who were engaged in the same pursuits with himself as auxiliaries and not as rivals, he pointed out their mistakes with an amiable delicacy and a kind solicitude not to wound their personal feelings. But, as is too common with men of letters, in his judgment of those whose studies took a different direction from his own, he was supercilious and unjust. Of Linnæus and his followers, he always spoke with contempt, and servilely copying Buffon, absurdly distinguished them by the disparaging appellation of Nomenclators. But if he had not arrogantly disdained to profit by the talents and labours of a man, who will be esteemed by impartial posterity, greatly his superior in the utility as well as variety and extent of his investigations, he would not have given the name of Tremella to a Conferva,

Digitized by Google

and have spoken of it in so loose a manner, as to make it impossible to determine what species he meant.

Mr. Dalzell laments, in his preface, that the subject of animal reproduction has been less studied in Britain than on the continent; and that there are few or no original experiments in English. We confess that it is not with us an occasion of regret. When we read that four hundred and twenty-three snails were compleatly, and three hundred and twenty partially, decapitated by Spallanzani, in one course of experiments, and are told that a prodigious number have suffered the same fate, with a great variety of other mutilations, from the scalpel and scissors of other observers, our pity for the sufferers overbalances the pleasure of an increased acquaintance with the power of nature; and turning with horror from the mangling operations, as from the guillotine of a Robespierre, we instinctively ask, cui bono? We well know that this question has often been put to the curious naturalist by the ignorant and foolish: but we must also insist that there are occasions on which it may laudably be adopted by the wise. When no natural feeling of our frame is counteracted, and no actual good sacrificed, there are no researches into the hidden treasures of nature, however idle and unprofitable they may at present appear, which ought to be despised. An increase of knowledge will in time always lead to increase of power. But when the investigation cannot be pursued without inflicting torments on sensitive beings; and when there is also no apparent likelihood of producing benefit either to ourselves or to them by the proceeding, that christian benevolence which ought to extend to all the creatures of God, will surely restrain our hands, and direct us to studies more consonant with its benign spirit.

Mr. Bonnet, indeed, fearing that the mind of the compassionate reader would revolt at some of his experiments, begs him to consider, "that animals which after losing one or several limbs, continue gradually devouring the prey presented, undoubtedly cannot experience the sensation of pain to the excess which our own sensations lead us to imagine; and that we are very insufficient judges of what passes within an animal so remote from us in the scale of living beings." We are willing to hope that the humane sentiment of our great poet may not be physically just. But though we should not admit that

"— the poor beetle which we tread upon,
In corporal sufferance feels a pang as great
As when a giant dies;"

still it cannot be denied that a snail has some feeling: it cannot be supposed that it lives as comfortably without a head as with one, and that the time required to renew the amputated part is a pleasant part of its existence.

It is certain, that till the process is completed, it is unable to eat; and we know not that we have any right wantonly to deprive a sentient creature of an enjoyment, which some philosophers, if we may judge from their appearance at a good dinner, seem to place, in their scale of human felicity, but a few degrees below the point of *summum bonum*.

Let us, then, rest satisfied with the experiments which have already been made. They have established the fact; and have left no room for reasonable doubt.—— They have proved that the impartial parent of every being has made up to the lower tribes of animals, in tenacity of life, what has been denied to them in delicacy of feeling. Henceforward, let snails and newts, and all their cold-blooded brethren, enjoy the undisturbed possession of the limbs which their Creator has given them:

And if a few inferior joys
Be all of life they share,
Let pity plead within our breasts
That little all to spare.

ART. VII. *Nouveau Dictionnaire d'Histoire Naturelle appliqué aux Arts, principalement à l'Agriculture & à l'Economie rurale & domestique. Par une Société de Naturalistes & d'Agriculteurs.* 8vo.

BOMARE's dictionary of natural history has, for a considerable time, been the standard work of its kind in France, and has been received with respect in other parts of Europe. It is the work of a real naturalist, and contains an immense number of interesting details. But the three kingdoms of nature occupy too wide a space, to be discerned in all their parts by the eye of any one man. In the animal kingdom, the insect order alone would find abundant

employment for a whole life. The lovers of natural history, will therefore, be pleased to meet with a new work of a similar kind, and still more comprehensive in its general plan, undertaken by some of the most eminent naturalists in France; each confining himself to the particular branch which he has most diligently studied.

In the present work, the history of quadrupeds and birds is executed by Sonini, author of Travels in Egypt, and editor of an improved edition of Buffon. His arrangement of quadrupeds is that which he himself has already laid before the world in his supplement to Buffon: in the birds he has adopted the nomenclature and method of Latham. A long bodily indisposition has prevented this able and well-known naturalist from extending his labours to the reptiles and fishes. These, with the naked and testaceous mollusca, and the vermes, have fallen to the lot of Bosc, member of the society of natural history at Paris, and of the Linnæan society in London.—Desmaret also has furnished some articles on quadrupeds, and Vieillot on birds. The coleopterous insects are described by Olivier, author of Travels in Greece, and of the principal articles on the natural history of insects in the Encyclopédie Methodique. The other orders of this class are undertaken by Latreille, associate member of the national institute. Virey, the author of the Natural History of Man, and the editor of the present work, has charged himself with the articles on the structure and faculties of man and other animals. The veterinary art is treated by Huzard, an approved professor of that branch of medicine.

The vegetable kingdom is divided between Bosc, Du Tour, Cels, Thouin, Tollard, and Parmentier. Bosc has detailed the genera with their most useful species, and has particularly laboured the synonyms, referring the whole to the artificial system of Linnæus, and the natural ones of Jussieu and Ventenat. Du Tour has chiefly confined himself to cultivated vegetables, whether natives of France or exotics; for the latter of which he is particularly qualified, having resided at St. Domingo in the capacity of a planter. Tollard has principally attended to vegetable physiology, and Parmentier to domestic and rural œconomy.

The mineralogy is the work of Patrin, who has spent eight years in Russia, and has studied the science among the mountains of Daouria, and along the chains of Ural and Altai.

The application of chemistry to the different productions of nature, especially to plants and minerals, has been assigned to Chaptal, well known for his chemical knowledge. Physics properly so called, and meteorology, are the department of Libes, professor of natural philosophy in the central schools of Paris.

Such an assemblage of eminent names will naturally raise the expectations of the public; and, we are persuaded, these expectations will not be disappointed. The first six volumes are now on our table, which include only the three first letters of the alphabet; and if the work proceeds as it has commenced, it will form a more extensive and accurate collection of natural history than has hitherto been laid before the public.

The articles Ane (Ass), Aigle (Eagle), Alouette (Lark), and Autruche (Ostrich), by Sonini; Cochon (Hog), by Sonini and Parmentier; Coucou (Cuckow), by Vieillot; Baleine (Whale), by Virey; Cheval (Horse), by Huzzard; Abeille (Bee), Araignée (Spider), and Cochenille, by Latreille; Chenille (Caterpillar), and Chrysalide, by Olivier; Corps organisés, Animal, and Alimens, by Virey; Arbre, by Tollard and Thouin; Bette (Beet), and Cacaoyer (Cacao), by Parmentier; Bois, (Wood), Botanique, Cafoyer (Coffee), Canne à Sucre (Sugar Cane), Cannelier (Cinnamon), Chanvre (Hemp), Chene (Oak), Chou (Cabbage), and Cottonier (Cotton Tree), by Du Tour; Argent (Silver), Argill (Clay), Basalte, and Bitumes, by Patrin, are extended to a considerable length, and are rich in information.

None of these admit of sufficient abridgment to come within our prescribed limits. We shall, therefore, translate part of two shorter articles, as specimens of the work. The first shall be from the article Chameau, by Desmarest; the other from the article Champignons, partly written by Bosc, and partly by Parmentier.

"Chameau (Camel), the name of a genus of quadrupeds, belonging to the first section of the order of ruminants, characterised not only by their having three kinds of teeth, but also by their great height, their divided upper lip, long and arched neck, one or two dorsal bunches, and naked-callosities at the joints of their legs and the lower part of their breast, &c.

"The camel, though placed in the order

Digitized by Google

of ruminants, differs from its congeners in some striking particulars. It has not a completely cloven horny hoof, but only a small nail at the anterior extremity of each lobe, (doigt,) and a kind of callous very hard sole common to them both: the lobes themselves are separated from each other by a shallow furrow. In the lower jaw it has six cutting and two canine teeth; in the upper, it has two cutting teeth inserted in the os intermaxillare, a character found in no other ruminating animal, and one or two canine on each side, which become rather large as they grow old. The grinders are exactly similar to those of other ruminants. It has five stomachs; but the fifth is only an appendix to the paunch, and serves to hold a certain quantity of water, which the animal forces back into its mouth, when it is sensible of thirst.

"The camel genus is confined within a zone of three or four hundred leagues in breadth, and which extends in length from Morocco to China. One of its species, the camel with one dorsal bunch or the dromedary, occupies the whole length on its southern side: the other, the camel with two bunches, or the camel properly so called, is found on its northern side, but only from the ancient Bactriana to Persia. The former, though a native of a warm climate, cannot bear excessive heat: it ceases both in Africa and in the East Indies, where the elephant commences, and cannot comfortably live either under the burning sky of the torrid, or in the mild air of a temperate zone. The latter, though best suited to a temperate climate, can subsist in a more rigorous one; for it has been brought by the Buretes and Mongols as far north as the Lake Baikal. Bactriana, now Turkestan, appears to be its original habitation; and there it is now found in the greatest abundance.

"It is only the camel with two bunches which has preserved the ancient name. The other has received the denomination of dromedary, though, as we shall see under that article, the word dromedary, in its proper sense, is confined to such individuals of the species as have been trained for riding and excel in swiftness."

* * * *

"CHAMPIGNONS (mushroom), the first and lowest family in the scale of vegetable life. The different species of which it is composed resemble other plants solely in their mode of growth; and differ from them in having neither leaves nor flowers, nor any thing of an herbaceous nature, and being more simple in their form and organisation.

"Theophrastus, Dioscorides, Pliny, and all the ancients in general, attribute the origin of mushrooms to a certain viscous substance produced by vegetable putrefaction. Their commentators have been of the same opinion. Clusius is the first who asserted that mushrooms spring from seeds. Boccone, Mentzel, Tournefort, Micheli, and afterwards Gleditch, Haller, Hedwig, Linnæus, Beauvois, and above all Bulliard, have supported the same side of the question.

"The discovery of animalcula induced several learned men, Butner, Weis, Muller, Scopoli, &c. to suppose that mushrooms have an animal origin: and Necker and Medicus, two German naturalists, have recently considered them, the former as a new union of the decomposed cellular tissue of vegetables; the latter as a decomposition of their pith and juice, which change their nature by means of a certain quantity of water and heat; that is, to adopt the author's own language, mushrooms are a vegetable crystallization.

"It was reserved for Bulliard to dissipate the doubt of naturalists, by proving that mushrooms are organised nearly in the same manner as staminiferous vegetables; that they have fibres, vessels, roots, flowers, and seeds; that they have a primary developement, a gradual increase, and a succeeding decay; and that they do not finally perish till, like all other organised beings, provision has been made for the continuance of the species.

"In fact, says Bulliard, no mushroom can exist which has not been produced from the seed of another individual; and that which is vulgarly called the spawn of mushrooms, is nothing but the seeds agglutinated to some other body. The seeds of most mushrooms may easily be obtained by laying them, when fresh, upon a glass, which will soon be covered with them. As in other vegetables, they differ in number, situation, insertion, size, form, colour, &c. Some may easily be discovered without the aid of a lens: others are so small that the strongest magnifying power can scarcely render them visible. These seeds transported by the winds, attach themselves to different bodies, by means of a gluten which moistens their surface, are carried by rain into the earth, and if circumstances favour their developement, whole fields are soon covered with mushrooms.

"All these facts have been established by Bulliard; but still it has not been fully proved that these rudiments of a future plant are really seeds. Gærtner is of opinion that they are a kind of gems or buds. I myself suggested this idea to Bulliard, when I was engaged with him in making experiments on the subject; but though it is supported by the analogy of alcyones, and other polypes, as determined by the experiments of Trembley and others, which I repeated at the same time, he was not willing to admit it as a general principle, and yet acknowledged it to be just in the case of the esculent truffle.

"I have since examined numerous individuals of both these classes of organised beings, and strengthened by the authority of so able a judge as Gærtner, with the recent one of Mirbel, I am fully convinced that these rudiments of mushrooms are true buds, separated from the plant nearly in the same manner as the young polype is separated from its parent. This process we shall further

explain under the articles polype and plant. Some species of the mushroom tribe attain to their full maturity in five or six hours; others require not less than a year for that purpose. Their growth is produced by intersoception: that is to say, the mushrooms by means of their roots or organs performing the functions of roots, draw from the earth, or the particular bodies on which they grow, a lymphatic juice, which properly distributed as far as the first divisions of their fleshy fibres, encreases their length and breadth, and gives them more or less solidity. Those whose substance resembles cork, have a striking resemblance to the trunks of trees, of which the boletus igniarius may be produced as an instance, which adds every year a new system of tubes, and produces new embrios in the same manner as trees produce new flowers and new fruit. In the woody species the growth depends upon various movements of the vegetable fluid, and there is an elaboration not only of the proper juices, but also of the nutritive lymph which passes into the capillary vessels. In the fugacious ones the lymphatic humour filtrates through the interstices of their substance, like oil in cotton, while their proper juices circulate along the capillary vessels.

"Plants, whose organisation is so different from that of all other vegetables, give out when analyzed peculiar products. The results of their artificial as well as of their natural decomposition, are very analogous to those of animal substances. Under water, they give out hydrogen, azote, and carbonic acid gas.

"Some species are employed in the arts: more are used as human food; and many of them are poisonous. The greater part of them are of no service to man, but afford nourishment to legions of the larvæ of insects.

"It is difficult to give any general character of unwholesome mushrooms. A knowledge of the different species is the only certain guide, and these are so subject to change their appearance, that there will often be reason to doubt. We should labour in vain were we to attempt to banish them entirely from the tables of the luxurious; but we cannot refrain from observing, that they have been proved to furnish little or no chyle, and consequently afford no nutriment: they digest only by the means of trituration, or to speak more properly, they do not digest at all.—They are nothing but seasoning to other meats.

"When mushrooms are gathered for the table, the old ones should be rejected; for it is a fact, that some which are innoxious when young, become dangerous when tending to decay; they then, also, lose much of their flavour.

"It has been determined by positive experiments, that vegetable acids are antidotes to their poisonous qualities. Any one who has suffered by them should, therefore, be made alternately to vomit, and to drink vinegar diluted with water; and when there is a doubt of their goodness, it is advisable to steep them for some hours in vinegar.

"The effects of their poison are, vomiting, oppression, tension of the stomach and lower belly, anxiety, griping, violent thirst, heart-burn, dysentery, fainting, hiccup, universal trembling, gangrene, and death."

The latter part of the article is by Parmentier, who is of the same opinion with Bosc on the subject.

"Daily experience," says this able naturalist, "demonstrates that the best mushrooms, those which are a common ingredient in our ragouts, may be very dangerous either in consequence of their having been gathered too early or too late, of their having been exposed to the influence of fogs, stagnant air, or putrefying bodies; of their having been eaten to excess, or of a particular bodily constitution in the person who eats them. Jussieu, my colleague, who so successfully follows the steps of his uncles, is of opinion that all mushrooms are more or less prejudicial to health, and that many disorders are produced by them which are attributed to other causes.

"But notwithstanding these melancholy facts, gluttony will still prevail; mushrooms will continue to be eaten. It may be proper, therefore, to point out the means of preventing or lessening their dangerous effects. It will be prudent to keep them some time after they are gathered, to macerate them in cold water repeatedly changed, to mix with them in the dish of which they are to be an ingredient, some wine, or vinegar, or lemon juice, or some acidulous herb; above all, to chew them well, that they may be less likely to swell in the stomach into an indigestible mass; and, in fine, when any threatening symptoms begin to appear, to administer immediately emollient medicines, oils, acids, and especially emetics. But I again assert, that no mushroom is nutritious: it contains only a savoury substance, which may doubtless be found in other vegetables; and as it is not always possible to distinguish those which are essentially, from those which are occasionally pernicious, let us proscribe the use of them in our sauces, and employ in their stead artichoke bottoms, celery, or some other culinary herb, which, with a little management, may be made to acquire the seductive flavour of the perfidious mushroom.

"My experiments on these vegetables would have been incompleat, if I had not endeavoured to investigate their mode of acting on the animal œconomy, with the hope of discovering an effectual antidote to their poison. I mixed some noxious mushrooms with some minced meat, and caused a dog of moderate size to swallow the mixture. In a little time he became stupid; then manifest-

ed signs of nausea; and at length threw up the food which he had just taken: after this crisis he seemed to be better, but soon threw up a kind of viscous slimy matter; and the vomiting continued with intervals to his death, which took place in about ten hours.

"The design of my experiment did not permit me to administer to him any medicinal aid. I employed an able surgeon to open him, who having attentively examined the state of his stomach and other viscera, assured me that he perceived no signs of erosion or laceration, and nothing more than the characteristic effect of a violent emetic, an effect confirmed by the symptoms which preceded the death of the animal.

"It appears that vegetable poisons operate almost always in the same manner. I have given a dog some fresh hemlock, which produced effects similar to those of the poisonous mushroom. Wepfer, in his history of the water hemlock, proves by numerous examples, that the most noxious plants occasion the same kind of disorders. This physician gave wolfsbane to some animals which had for some time been kept without food: in almost half an hour they threw it up, with a thick, viscous, frothy substance, and were afflicted with violent reaching till they died. When their bodies were opened, nothing was discovered but the vestiges of a powerful emetic."

We have selected the latter article on account of the important information which it contains; the former not so much for its excellence, for there are many much better, as for its differing from all former naturalists, in describing the camel with two cutting teeth in its upper jaw. Aristotle and Pliny both observe, that the camel is the only animal without horns, which has no teeth so situated; and in this representation, as far as we know, all succeeding authors have hitherto concurred.

We also regret that Desmarest, though he was aware of the impropriety, has continued the appellation of dromedary, as a general name of the species, with one dorsal bunch, of which it is in fact only a variety. The two species are clearly described by Aristotle and Pliny, and called, one the Arabian, and the other the Bactrian camel. Διαφερουσι, says the former, δ' αι βακτριαι των Αραβιων αι μεν γαρ δυω εχουσιν υβους, αι δ' ενα. Camelos, says the latter, *inter armenta pascit oriens, quarum duo genera Bactriani & Arabici, differunt quod illi bina habent tubera in dorso, hi singula.* —The word dromas occurs as a name of the camel in Livy, and is expressly attributed to the Arabian camel by Strabo. It is lengthened into dromedarius in the vulgate translation of the Old Testament, and in Jerom's Life of Malchius; who says, that the camel is so called on account of its swiftness. The latter term has been adopted by the moderns, but with some confusion in the application of it to the species. Aldrovandus, Gesner, Linnæus, and Buffon, have all given it to the camel with one dorsal bunch. Tepontinus, quoted by Gesner, Johnston, and Bell, the British traveller into Russia and China, reverse the names, and call the camel with two dorsal bunches the dromedary. Mr. Bell relates that he found many dromedaries on the banks of the Volga among the Tartars, who, he says, have few Arabian camels. It is not improbable that the name dromedary may be applied to a high-bred, swift-footed variety of both species. But however that may be, it is better to discontinue it entirely, as a specific appellation, and to follow Aristotle and Pliny in calling the species with one dorsal bunch the Arabian camel, as Dr. Shaw has judiciously done in his General Zoology.

The best account of the species and varieties of camel which we have seen, is in Russel's History of Aleppo. If our author had been acquainted with this work, and had particularly attended to the note quoted in our last volume, p. 945, he would, we doubt not, have given a different description of the apparatus for preserving fresh water in the stomach of this interesting quadruped.

ART. VIII. *A General System of Nature, through the Three Grand Kingdoms of Animals, Vegetables, and Minerals, translated from Gmelin's last Edition of the celebrated Systema Naturæ, by Sir Charles Linné, amended and enlarged by the Improvements and Discoveries of later Naturalists and Societies. By* WILLIAM TURTON, *M.D. Author of the Medical Glossary.* Part 2. Vol. I. 8vo.

IN our review of the former volumes of this translation we expressed a wish that Dr. Turton, instead of Gmelin's edition of the Systema, had taken for the ground-work of his version the last edition published by Linnæus, and had taken from Gmelin only such alterations and additions as are real improvements. When we first laid our hands on this fifth volume, which relates to the vegetable

kingdom, we felt a recurrence of the same wish with a greater degree of solicitous earnestness. The readers who require an English translation of that part of the work which describes the animal kingdom are comparatively few. Zoology, in its full extent, and in its more difficult branches, is not a fashionable pursuit with the unlearned; and there are many circumstances which will probably prevent its ever becoming generally prevalent. But botany has charms which are almost universally attractive: the love of plants is found in all ranks of life, and is peculiarly suited to the elegant taste and delicate feelings of the female sex. The number of greenhouses and stoves has rapidly increased within the course of a few years, and may justly be ranked among the most refined luxuries of the present age. The pleasure of possessing these must be greatly increased by a scientific acquaintance with their contents, and a capacity to arrange them according to their respective relations and affinities. It was, therefore, highly desirable, that the second part of the Systema Naturæ should appear in our native language, with the addition of the numerous exotics which, since the death of Linnæus, have been poured in upon us from the remotest regions of the earth. We were accordingly disposed to give a cordial welcome to this part of Dr. Turton's labours; but our pleasure was not a little diminished by the apprehension that our unlearned, and especially our fair readers, were to contemplate these treasures in the perverse arrangement of Gmelin. This was clearly announced to us in the title page. The fifth, as well as the former volumes, is said to be translated from Gmelin's last edition of the celebrated Systema Naturæ. But here, as in many other instances, we have found reason to acknowledge the truth of the old adage, *fronti nulla fides*; an adage which a reviewer almost instinctively translates, there is no trusting to title pages. Many a time has the discovery given us a painful mortification. For once, it affords us a lively pleasure. Dr. Turton, certainly not for his own advantage, has sacrificed truth to the uniformity of his title pages; and has not even thought it worth his while, either in a preface or by any other method, to give us any intimation of his departure from his original plan; and yet his fifth volume may with almost as much propriety be stiled a translation of Ray's Historia Plantarum as of Gmelin's edition of the Systema Vegetabilium. He has not only separated the classes icosandria and polyandria, which have been most absurdly blended together by the last editor, but has also replaced all the classes which had before been abolished by Thunberg, and has restored the whole of the Linnæan arrangement, with the single exception of the order monogamia, in the class syngenesia. And in this small deviation from the original system he is sanctioned by the sterling judgment of Dr. Smith and Professor Willdenow. He has, in fact, given the English reader an abridged translation of the last and incomparably the best edition of the Species Plantarum, now publishing at Berlin. The order of the genera and species, the terms of his generic and specific characters, and the additions of new plants are all taken from Willdenow, wherever Willdenow varies either from Gmelin or Linnæus. But it is not merely a copy of Willdenow: the new genera chiefly of Austrasian plants, instituted by Dr. Smith, with many new species under the old genera, which were not known to Willdenow, are carefully added; so that Dr. Turton's work has a just claim to be esteemed the fullest enumeration which has ever appeared, and will enable the female botanical student to find out the genus, species, and name, of the rarest exotics which she may have the happiness to possess.

Dr. Smith and Professor Willdenow having, without the knowledge of each other, named distinct genera in honour of Persoon, an honour well merited by his skilful investigation of the intricate tribe of fungi, Dr. Turton inadvertently inserted both genera, each in its proper place, under the same name. This error he has corrected in his table of errata, and has properly directed that Willdenow's personia should be called caraba, the name originally given to it by Aublet, its first describer; a disposition to which, we doubt not, the candour of the learned Professor will readily submit, from the consideration that Dr. Smith's genus is an original one, which has not been presented to the scientific world under any other name.

The translation is, as in the former volumes, generally faithful and judicious, and will be readily understood by all who are possessed either of Withering's, Hull's, Martyn's, or any other English elementary work. And to some of these

the young botanist must necessarily apply; for of Linnæus's introductory explanation of the vegetable kingdom only a small part is translated, giving little more than a brief account of the fructification. The definitions, as far as they go, are clear and accurate, that of the follicle excepted, which is said to be a single-valved pericarp, opening longitudinally on one side, and *containing loose seeds*. The idea directly conveyed by the last phrase is totally inconsistent with the essential principles of vegetation. Loose seeds can derive no nutriment from the parent plant, and will never come to maturity. The original is folliculus membranaceus, univalvis, latere dehiscens, a seminibus distinctus. Its meaning, though not completely expressed, certainly is that the *receptacle* of the seeds is attached to the pericarp at its base, and is unconnected with it in any other part.

The present volume includes the class polyandria, and Dr. Turton will doubtless wait for the completion of Willdenow's valuable edition, before he brings his version to a close, a consummation devoutly to be wished by the merely English botanist. We have observed several errors of the press, not mentioned in the table of errata, which, we trust, will be carefully corrected in a future edition; and as the botanical part of the work is likely to have a more extensive sale than the rest, Dr. Turton will probably be induced to reprint it in a detached form.

ART. IX. *A New Illustration of the Sexual System of Linnæus.* *By* ROBERT JOHN THORNTON, *M. D. &c.* Folio.

"TO turn the penny, once, a wit
Upon a curious fancy hit;
Hung out a board, on which he boasted,
'Dinner for threepence, boiled and roasted!'
The hungry read, and in they trip,
With eager eye and smacking lip:
'Here, bring this boiled and roasted pray.'
Enter potatoes, dressed each way:
All stared and rose, the house forsook,
The dinner cursed, and kicked the cook.
My landlord found, poor Patrick Kelly,
There is no jesting with the belly.
"Now can't you guess the application!
Don't raise too high an expectation."

So sang, or so said our English Roscius, forty years ago, in one of his humorous prologues. Whether Dr. Thornton had never heard of this luckless Hibernian, or confident of his own powers, had no doubt of equalling the most lofty expectations which could possibly be excited, we know not: but certain it is, that he did not hesitate, previous to the appearance of this new illustration of the Sexual System in successive numbers, to publish a prospectus, at least as full of promise as the humbler board of poor Paddy. It was recommended alike to the lover of science and the lover of elegance, as a great *national work*: it was described at its outset, in a dedication to the queen, as intended to exceed all works of the kind on the continent, and to be not only (by employing the first artists of this country) a *national honour*, but an *eternal* memorial of that protection which is granted to science by her most gracious majesty: its patronage was pompously announced as comprehending her most gracious majesty, their royal highnesses the prince and princess of Wales, and the duke of Gloucester; their serene highnesses the princess of Wirtemberg, and the princess Sophia of Gloucester; nine foreign kings and potentates; seventy-four English, and five foreign nobility; one hundred and ninety-four gentry; two hundred and sixty-six medical gentlemen, twenty florists, and fourteen public bodies, at the time when only one hundred and fifty subscribers were deficient, beyond which number not a single individual was to have the honour and happiness of possessing this *superb work*. Its claim to general admiration was to be founded partly on the fairness of the paper, the beauty of the letter, the accuracy of the figures, and the splendour of the coloured engravings: but, as in these, Dr. Thornton was to be indebted entirely to the talents and skill of professional workmen and artists, it would naturally be taken for granted, that the part executed by himself would possess an equal degree of pre-eminent excellence. He could not but be sensible that, as the superior qualities of the paper and type are merely decorations, so the engravings, though in some degree illustrative, are chiefly ornamental; and that the substance, the life, and the spirit must be sought for in the matter, the *facundia* and the *lucidus ordo* of the literary composition. For, if we suppose him unacquainted with the mishap of Patrick

Kelly, he could not be a stranger to the maxims of Horace. And if, for a moment, he had entertained the idea, that the richnesss and magnificence of the embellishments could compensate for the poverty and squalidness of the work itself, the

" Inceptis gravibus plerumque & magna professis
Purpureus, late qui splendeat, unus & alter
Assuitur pannus"

of the Roman didactic poet, must have occurred to his memory, and checked the insolence of the presumptuous hope.

Such a presumptuous hope he appears not to have entertained; but to have felt the necessity of keeping pace, in his own exertions, with the best artists of the age. His plan of the work, as it was detailed in his original proposals, and repeated almost verbatim in his first number, is such as required no small degree of knowledge and diligence.

" The object of this work, therefore, will be, to trace in as perspicuous a manner as possible, the philosophical principles of botany, from the earliest times, up to the present period; and by faithful and well executed engravings, of the several subjects of investigation, to render this curious and interesting enquiry level to every one's comprehension.

" Following the order of nature, I shall begin with the seed committed to the ground. and trace its various evolutions, until the root, stem, branches, and leaves are formed. I shall here chiefly dwell on the anatomy of the root, their diversity, of forms, and office.

" The object of my next consideration will be, to display the organized structure of the stem and branches, when I shall consider the several juices of plants, with the motion of the sap.

" Pursuing the course of nature, I shall next contemplate the various appendages attached to the stems and branches, explaining the organization and design of each.

" Next I shall examine into the structure and variety of leaves; their relationship to light; the evolution from them of oxygen and other airs.

" My next enquiry will be the food of plants, when I shall enter widely into the consideration of the principles of agriculture.

" Arriving at the flower, I shall consider its structure; the uses of the several parts which compose it; when a full enquiry will be made respecting the sexual relationship, with a refutation of the objections which have been raised against this doctrine.

" Thus far the natural history of botany.

" I shall next lay before my readers an account of the origin of systems, when those of Rivinus, Tournefort, &c. will be given, with a full explanation of the sexual system of Linnæus.

" In the order of the discoveries, the lives of the several eminent botanists will be comprehended, with their portraits, including the most celebrated professors and botanical writers of the present day.

" After this introduction, I shall commence with a translation of the genera of plants of Linnæus."

Here the delineation of the plan in the first number stops: but in the original proposals Dr. Thornton proceeds thus; " to which will be added, all the discoveries made since his time. In order to render the science of botany as simple as possible, the classes of Linnæus will be reduced to twelve, his genera new arranged, and tables given, invented by the author, comprising the easiest discriminating characters."

It must strike all our readers that this proposed translation of the Genera Plantarum, is spoken of as the *commencement* of the work; but by what it is to be followed, we are not told. It seems, however, evident, that it could not be the intention of the author to comprize more than the introduction in the twelve or fourteen numbers, which, according to the original proposals, were to complete the splendid part of this great national work. And to effect this in the compass of about one hundred and sixty-eight folio pages would require a compression of matter, we believe hitherto unexampled. It would be to squeeze an Iliad into a nutshell.

Dr. Thornton's subscribers must soon have been sensible that his powers of compression are very feeble, and that he would execute only a small part of his plan within the assigned limits. This, however, he himself did not soon discover; for, after the publication of the fifth number, he still pledged himself to the purchasers, that the whole should not extend to more than twelve or fourteen, and should comprize *all the philosophical principles* of botany. It was not till the thirteenth number appeared, that a ray of light darted upon him, and convinced him that, the illustration of the seed vessel and seed being yet unfinished, the other branches of his promised philosophical enquiry could not be dispatched in the fourteenth. But this enlargement of his intellect was not all clear gain. It was obtained at

a lamentable expence of memory. Notwithstanding he had expressly declared n his first proposals, and had repeated nore than once in the progress of the vork, that his object was to trace, in as ierspicuous a manner as possible, *the hilosophical principles* of botany; he now, n 1802, gravely tells his subscribers, hat "when he first *launched forth* his Vew Illustration of the Sexual System of Linnæus, the horizon was overcast, and he sciences and arts checked by the exences and uncertainties of a war involvng the whole of Europe:" that therefore "no intention could at that time be ntertained of entering into *philosophical isquisitions*: but the prospect of returning eace, and the revival of the arts, dawning, e was persuaded by several well-wishers o what *they were pleased* to call a *national vork*, to enlarge his views, which were beore, of necessity, so extremely limited; nd considering the high *respectability* of he body of his subscribers, and the natual inherent *spirit* of the British nation, he as consented to their wishes, and trusts, nd hopes, that in so doing, he has *the ore satisfied* the large bulk of subscribers, ully able to appreciate the different vaues of a *full* or a *contracted* illustration of he most lovely of the sciences."

So true is the observation of the poet, hat

"Nature to all things fixed the limits fit,
And wisely curbed proud man's pretending wit.
As on the land while here the ocean gains,
In other parts it leaves wide sandy plains;
Thus in the soul while memory prevails,
The solid power of understanding fails;
When beams of warm imagination play,
The memory's soft figures melt away."

He at length proposed that the work hould extend to about twenty numbers. Seventeen are now before us; and we re called upon by our duty to the pubic to state how much is done, and to apreciate, to the best of our judgment, ow well it is done. Knowing nothing f Dr. Thornton, but through the meium of his publications, and total strangers to all his connexions, we trust that ur minds are free from every improper ias; and as we shall nothing extenuate, o we shall set down nought in malice.

The first section of twelve pages conains only the plan of the work. The econd is devoted to an explanation of he three kingdoms of nature, and a fanciful comparison of the great families of lants, with the different ranks of civilized society, translated with little variation from the Systema Naturæ. The whole would scarcely have filled two pages, but to swell it to the bulk of four, it is stuffed with two quotations from Milton, with a long note from Aristotle and Cicero, and a pious address to the Deity from Fenelon, which, having like Bayes's prologue, an universal fitness, would do equally well for any part of any system of natural history, that ever has been, or ever will be published.

Hitherto we have been only in the porch. The third section conducts us over the threshold, and introduces us into the vestibule of this magnificent *national* edifice. It is entitled, *The different kinds of seed vessels*, and informs us in a style of beautiful *simplicity*, that "as the crysalis of the silk worm is included in a golden tomb, so is the seed guarded in a similar manner: and that for the farther purpose of the protection of the seed, nature has sometimes filled this vessel with air, as in the bladder senna; or with down, as in the bean and cotton plant." The pericarp is distinguished, as usual, into the capsule, silique, legume, follicle, drupe, pome, berry, and strobile, with the addition of the nut, which Dr. Thornton exultingly tells us, twice within the compass of three lines, he has considered as a distinct species of pericarp; adding that the almond, which, according to Linnæus, is a dry drupe, perhaps would better *follow the ensign* of the nut. The berry (bacca) he defines, a pulpy seed-vessel, enclosing *numerous* seeds, dispersed throughout the pulp. By inserting the word *numerous* he excludes all the monospermous berries of Linnæus, as well as the fruit of the rubus, which, according to Linnæus, is a compound berry, having a single seed embedded in the pulp of each of its component parts. And to make it evident that his idea of a bacca is alike inaccurate and imperfect, he has figured, as an instance of it, the fruit, in popular language, called a strawberry; which Linnæus terms an improper bacca, and which, according to his own definition, is not a bacca at all.

The fifth section enumerates the component parts of the seed, to illustrate which Dr. Thornton, following almost every author from the days of Grew, has chosen the common garden bean. But with Grew before him, who is a model for clearness of method and perspicuity of description, though his style is now become obsolete and apparently stiff, he

has contrived, if contrivance it can be called, to jumble together a mass of matter, like the original chaos, without form and void. In the course of our literary labours we have seldom met with a more striking example of confused conceptions, puerile misplaced reflections, slovenly construction, and inaccurate, ungrammatical language. In support of part of our censure, we appeal without fear of contradiction to the following sentence.

"The pod of the bean, as you have before learnt, is a legume composed of two valves, which *were* the pieces or shells, which the bean divides into, filled with the softest down, which appears, viewed by the microscope, a clustre of blebs or bladders."

We have already hinted, that in the progress of the work, our author's memory seems to be impaired. We now begin to suspect that it was never very strong, owing, doubtless, to the impetuous and desultory character of his *imagination*; for of judgment, as our readers will soon be convinced, he has "a plentiful lack." Through the whole of what he pleases to call his Illustration of the Sexual System of Linnæus, he considers his readers as entirely ignorant of the first principles of botany and natural philosophy: but though he forms so mean an opinion of their knowledge, he makes them amends by attributing to them a flattering acuteness of apprehension, a certain intuitive discernment, which enables them to perceive what he ought to have said, and to penetrate into the inmost recesses of his mind, when more is meant than meets the eye or ear. He could not otherwise have considered them, as having already learnt that the pod of a bean is a legume *composed of two valves*. For all that he has told them concerning a legume is in the last section, and at the distance of little more than a single page, where it takes up not quite two lines, and where not a word about the valves is to be found. But like a true Englishman he spoils the compliment in the same breath. He seems to have no doubt of their receiving, on his simple authority, as palpable an absurdity as ever insulted the common sense of mankind; that these two valves of the pod, *i. e.* the case or covering of the bean, *were*, sometime, he does not say when, the pieces or shells into which the bean itself divides.

Of puerile misplaced reflection the following is a sufficient proof. "The bean itself naturally divides into two lobes. If you examine the surface of these lobes there will not be found the smallest inequality, all is smooth and glossy, whereas the finest polish of human ingenuity is extremely rough. Only view the best wrought needle, it presents to your eye nothing but huge inequalities, whereas the works of the Almighty ever manifest the most astonishing perfection."

Nothing gives us a more sincere and lively pleasure than to observe the mind of the naturalist animated with a prevailing rational piety; but even piety itself loses much of its venerable character, when founded on misconceived ideas, or introduced on trivial occasions, and out of its proper place.

Of slovenly construction, the last member of the sentence first quoted, beginning with the second *which*, is a conspicuous instance.

Of inaccurate, ungrammatical language, there is scarcely a page in the whole work, where Dr. Thornton gives his own words, which would not afford at least one example. Let the following suffice.

"By making a transverse section along the lobes, there will be seen on the surface *small vessels* interposed among the *blebs*, which even to the naked eye *has* a greener appearance than the other parts."

To form an idea of the perplexity in the general arrangement, it would be necessary to read the whole section; but we cannot think it worth either our time or paper and ink, and we are persuaded that no one would thank us for giving ourselves the trouble of transcribing it.

The sixth section explains the uses of the several parts of the seed: and here, as according to his own account, he ventures to differ from other botanists, it is fit that he should be permitted to give his ideas in his own language.

"The pericarp is usually represented, by botanists, as solely destined for protection; whereas, its chief and primary use is the nourishment of the young seeds. Hence the pericarp, or column in its centre, serves the office of placenta to the embryos; the seeds being, as we saw before, attached to them by a thread, or pedicle, which bears an analogy to the umbilical chord of the fœtus, so little do even the subordinate parts of creation lose by comparison with the higher.

"This chord is very visible in the bean and nut, and indeed exists in every plant; but, as the embryos increase in growth, this attachment is dissolved, and vegetable pas-

turition may now be said to be performed: and as the chord becomes in the child a ligament, so the pod assumes a new appearance, and becomes a dry husk; and its valves separating, the seeds are dropped from within its bosom, which may not be unaptly stiled a second birth.

"An objection may, perhaps, be started to this doctrine, from the consideration of succulent and stony fruits; but these, in their early stage, have the same organization as pericarps.

"We have an example of this in the pear and the mango; and it may be observed, that the deposit of hard, woody, or stony particles, does not take place till a considerable time after the full formation of the embryo. Young filberts, or the walnuts which we use for pickles, are also very familiar examples of the soft state of the early shell.

"The woody shell may therefore be considered as a true pericarp; and, as the manner in which the kernel is able to escape from its inclosure is a matter of no small wonder to the contemplators of nature, it certainly deserves our present consideration.

"For the escape of the seed, the hard shell, acted on by heat and moisture, and the rarefaction of the air within, and force of the struggling embryos, endeavouring 'to burst their cearments,' opens 'its marble jaws,' and this with a facility exceeding common apprehension.

"For this purpose shells are like pericarps, which first seem of one valve, one entire piece, scarcely shewing even a line of separation, and then divide, as the occasion requires, into several different compartments, or pieces, but more usually into two, which might be conjectured from observing the natural division that takes place in walnuts, apricots, and other stone fruits."

Confusion worse confounded!

How shall we understand the beginning of the second sentence, "hence the pericarp or column in its centre?" Is it the *or* explanatory or disjunctive? If explanatory, the whole and one of its parts are represented as the same thing; and this, it cannot be denied, is in our author's characteristic manner. He has already taught us, that the division of a bean may be converted into the divisions of its pod, the case or covering in which it is contained; or to adopt a familiar illustration, that a man's leg and thigh may become his stockings and breeches. But it would be uncandid to suppose him always blundering. Let the *or* then be disjunctive, and let us understand Dr. Thornton to mean, that sometimes the pericarp, and sometimes the column in its centre, serves the office of placenta to the embryos, still there is no clear discrimination between the whole, and part of that whole. And with this interpretation, to what shall we refer the plural pronoun, *them?* The word embryos is the only preceding plural substantive; but the embryos are, in this case, the seeds themselves, and though it is too often true of the human species in a figurative sense, we never heard of any inanimate being that was either literally or metaphorically attached to itself. The plural pronoun must, therefore, be referred to the pericarp and its central column, taken collectively, and the *or* should have been *and*. But still there is the same want of distinction between a part and the whole; for the columella or central column is considered by all botanists as part of a capsule which is one species of pericarp.

Despairing to make either sense or grammar of this part of the sentence, let us pursue the suggested analogy as it is further illustrated.

"The thread, or pedicle, bears an analogy to the umbilical chord of the fœtus, and as after animal parturition is performed, the umbilical chord becomes in the child the suspensory ligament of the liver, so"—— Who would not expect to hear that the thread, or pedicle still retains its general form and firmness, and having discharged one important office, is made permanently subservient to another? But we are told no such thing. "The thread or pedicle is moreover well known to wither, and in a short time to lose the whole of its vegetable organization." What then? "So the pod assumes a new appearance, and becomes a dry husk, and its valves separating, the seeds are dropped from within its bosom, which *may not be* unaptly stiled a second birth." Thus, by a dexterous legerdemain, the pedicle entirely disappears, and we are presented with the pod, which our author has already told us, serves the office of a placenta to the embryo seeds, and which he now says, bears an analogy to the umbilical chord; but he must be a skilful juggler indeed to render the deception compleat, and make us imagine, that either one or the other of them resembles it in becoming a dry husk after the time of parturition, and permitting, "by the separation of its valves, the new-born child to drop from within its bosom, so as to receive what may not be unaptly stiled a second birth." So unfortunate is Dr. Thornton in his attempt to "compare

Digitized by Google

the subordinate parts of the creation with the higher :" so little is he apprized, that a real general analogy may be rendered ridiculous by carrying it too far, and pursuing it too minutely.

The other parts of the quotation would afford ample matter for similar animadversion. The same confusion of ideas and terms prevails throughout. The woody or stony shell, which encloses the seeds of some plants, is now a true pericarp, and now only like one; and " for the escape of the seed, acted on by heat and moisture, and the rarefaction of the air within, and force of the struggling embryos endeavouring to burst their cearments, it opens its marble jaws with a facility," and in a manner "exceeding," not only a " common," but even Dr. Thornton's " apprehension."

The remainder of this comparatively long section consists chiefly of extracts from Grew and Bonnet, concerning the uses of the three coats of the arillus of the seed, and of the two inclosed lobes. He does not agree with Grew in thinking, that the chief design of the arillus is the filtering of the water for the nourishment of the seed, though he allows that, if the arillus be extremely thin, the water pervades it: but asserts, that " it is a wise protection for it, as the shell of an egg defends the young chick, and being indigestible, the seed passes through the bodies of animals when swallowed whole, and being of an oleaginous nature, prevents a too copious influx of moisture from coming to the lobes, which *are* sure to destroy them." Indulging that " freedom of enquiry for which the present age is so remarkable," and disdaining to receive " with oracular veneration the ipse dixit of a great name," but at the same time " with all due deference," he differs also from Linnæus himself, with respect to the propriety of calling these lobes cotyledons, and thinks that they are not analogous to the cotyledons of beasts, which correspond with the human placenta, but bear a much stronger affinity with the mammæ or breasts, and " form a kind of milk, which is conveyed to the plantule by means of the returning vessels which descend to it from the substance of the lobes." As an illustration, if not a support of his opinion, he observes, that " the mucilage of almonds has obtained the appellation of *milk* of almonds, and that the liquor procured from barley when it is germinated is called sweetwort," and adds with great gravity, " new milk, we know, has precisely the same taste"!!! Surely the sensible appearance and qualities of these preparations are sufficient reasons for their respective names, without seeking for their origin in the physiology of the seed lobes. But no absurdity or opposition to fact can stop the Doctor in his ardent pursuit of analogies. As the number of cotyledons, we beg his pardon, of mammæ or breasts, is different in different seeds, " it is thus," he observes, "with the parent animal which possesses two or more dugs." This all the world knew. But we, at least, did not know that " the number of dugs is always proportioned by nature to the offspring to be produced, and that as in a litter of pigs, each pig always goes to its own dug, and never usurps that of another, so children, when first born, shew the same partiality to one breast." If this were strictly and universally true, the cow must have at one birth at least double the young of the human mother; whereas both of them have generally only one, and the woman, we believe, has twins more frequently than the cow. We have consulted those who have had more experience in these matters than ourselves, and are assured that new-born children do not shew a partiality for one breast, but, which may easily be explained on other principles, are often found to incline to that which they sucked last. Were we even to admit the Doctor's assumption as a fact, to make it harmonize with his system, a woman should always bear twins, each of which should have exclusively its own breast.

All that is said of the seminal or dissimilar leaves, with the exception of eight or ten lines, is taken verbatim from Grew and Bonnet: but these eight or ten lines demonstrate that Dr. Thornton did not understand what he had read and partly transcribed. For though Dr. Grew expressly and rightly says, that " the dissimilar leaves are the very lobes of the seed, divided, expanded, and thus advanced;" or as he afterwards explains it, " are nothing else but the main body of the seed," and relates at large how he came to make the discovery; our author, with his usual misconception, says, that the seminal leaves *issue from* the seed, and may be called *appendages* to the lobes.

We find, as we proceed, in almost every page, new instances of the same carelessness and insufficiency. But we

Digitized by Google

are weary of pointing out the defects of this boasted *national* work, and of exposing the imbecility of its projector. We will, therefore, relieve our readers as well as ourselves from the prosecution of an irksome task, by making a rapid analysis of the remainder. Indeed we should not have extended our animadversions on it to so great a length, if it had not been so pompously obtruded on the public, and if Dr. Thornton had not so frequently been the herald of his own praise, in a succession of detached advertisements, which have carried the business of puffing to its acmé of perfection.

As there is an undeniable connection between vegetation and air, all the modern discoveries concerning the nature and constitution of the atmosphere are detailed at full length, and for the most part in the words of the original authors. The Illustration of the Sexual System of Linnæus includes, of course, a system of chemistry; it teaches the botanical student the analysis and synthesis of compound bodies; the properties of vital air and azote; of oxygen, caloric, and light; and the composition of water, which also, as essential to vegetable life, could not be omitted, nor consequently the nature of hydrogen or inflammable air.

The tenth section, entitled, the composition of fixed air, we are tempted to transcribe *at full length*; not to give our readers any information on the subject, but as a specimen of Dr. Thornton's, or his printer's skill in the art of dilatation, or of spreading out a small quantity of matter over a large surface of paper.

"SECTION X.

"*V. The Composition of fixed air.*

"Synthesis of carbonic acid air or fixed air; or the union of its two constituents parts—charcoal and oxygen air.

"As the composition of fixed air is easiest understood by synthesis, we shall only mention, that if wood or *charcoal* be burnt in *oxygen air* it will be converted into an *acid gas*, whose *weight* will equal the sum of the *weights* of the *charcoal* which has been consumed, and the oxygen air employed."

This, with the addition of four lines from Prior, prefixed as a motto; and of two short notes occupying less than six lines, on the properties of fixed air, and the proportion of its constituent parts; and, as Bob Short says in the Spectator, with the aid of proper distances, covers a folio page.

In the section on the connection of air with vegetation, besides two long quotations from Dr. Darwin's Botanic Garden, we have Mr. Boyle's original proposals, to try the effect of the pneumatic engine exhausted, on plants, seeds, &c. transcribed from the Philosophical Transactions of the Year 1665; an Account of the Institution of the Royal Society, and of the invention of the air pump; the experiments of Mr. Cruikshank, to shew the effect of soaked barley on air in a close vessel, and of Dr. Ingenhouz, with a view to ascertain what species or mixture of airs is most favourable to the growth of seeds.

The twelfth section discusses the question, whether oxygen is supplied to seeds through any other medium than water percolating the earth. And for this purpose Mayow, Evelyn, Sir Kenelm Digby, and Sir Hugh Platt, are produced as approximating to the truth, and Dr. Ingenhouz as really proving the fecundating power of vital air absorbed by the earth.

The thirteenth section is on the fertilizing power of snow. The names given in the new French calendar to the months, November, December, January, February, and March, being derived from the dew or fogs, the frost, the snow, the rain, and the wind, which are supposed respectively to prevail in those successive months, and which Dr. Thornton regards as the five great instruments of oxygenation, he cannot resist the temptation of giving the whole French calendar: and that we on this side of the water may not be behind hand with our ambitious rivals and adversaries, he patriotically proposes a new nomenclature to our English calendar, beginning with November, or as he would call it, the foggy month, and going on in order thro' the frosty, the snowy, the thawing, the windy, the showery, the budding, the flowering or mowing, the ripening, the reaping, the sowing and the shedding months. Each of these months in the new English calendar is *illustrated* by poetical quotations from Thomson, Watts, &c. which, if they answer no other purpose, fill nearly three pages. And who will complain that the room which they take up is misapplied, when he considers their *close connection* with the New Illustration of the Sexual System?

The essence of the thirteenth section consists of a quotation from Dr. Grew, on the nature of snow, a reference to

Miller and Evelyn, to prove that they considered snow as having the properties of a manure, and two experiments made by Hassenfratz to prove that there is more oxygen in snow than in rain water.

The fourteenth section, on the utility of winds, is rich in information, wonderfully compressed; for though swelled by two questions from the Botanic Garden, it takes up only two pages. Leaving out four introductory lines, the whole is verbatim as follows:

"In this month (February) the sun occasionally bursts out, and melts the ice and snow covering the earth.

"The glebe being resolved, the month next in succession is Ventose (March), or, in our new English calendar, the *windy month*.

"The air being at this time compressed by cold, a greater quantity of oxygen is found in a given volume, and the winds act as a kind of bellows to the earth. Thus more oxygen is absorbed by the land, and (astonishing consequence!) the beneficial process of oxygenation is still farther carried on."

The answer to the question proposed in the fifteenth section, why rain promotes germination more than spring or river water, is equally concise. It appears from the experiments of Hassenfratz on rain water under an exhausted receiver, that the air which escapes contains a greater proportion of oxygen than either river water, spring water, or even atmospheric air.

To section the sixteenth, on the power of certain oxygenated substances to accelerate the progress of germination, the immortal Mayow, the unfortunate Lavoisier, the philosophic Humboldt, Professor Pohl, Jacquin, Vander Schott, Von Uslar, Dr. Hooper, and the learned Dr. Darwin, all contribute their respective quotas, Dr. Thornton keeping in the back ground, and addressing his readers only in a note, in which, however, with great self-complacence he informs them, that "his New Illustration of the Sexual System of Linnæus was begun long before Dr. Darwin's elaborate Phytologia, and the plan publicly proposed; and that the performances do not interfere, but mutually assist each other; that Dr. Darwin addresses his readers as already conversant in botany, and adepts in the new chemistry; whereas *his* work supposes in his readers a total unacquaintance with all kind of chemical and botanical knowledge; that he expatiates on the several subjects he has to treat of, and leads his readers, step by step, from lesser to higher flights, enforcing all the while his instructions by plates, which, from their fine execution (as is universally allowed), may be as a substitute for the plants themselves, and which he conceives to be the readiest way of attaining a knowledge of the useful and delightful science of botany."

The seventeenth and eighteenth sections are on the earth's internal heat; and in them Dr. Thornton takes an ample range, for they occupy no less than sixty-six pages, nearly as much as all the preceding parts of the work.

In imitation of the divines of the sixteenth and seventeenth centuries, who frequently treated their subjects first negatively, and then positively, he gives the systems of those philosophers who have formed what he deems erroneous opinions on the subject. These are Dr. Darwin, Buffon, and Will. Whiston. Dr. Darwin's hypothesis of the original formation of suns, gives him an opportunity of laying before his readers a concise view of astronomy, from which we learnt, to our inexpressible surprise, that Venus, as well as our earth, has its satellite; and that this satellite of Venus was discovered in the last century. Had Dr. Thornton claimed this discovery himself, the authority of so great a man would have been indisputable; and we must have admitted it as a fact, even though the new secondary planet should still continue to elude the sight of Dr. Herschel, of the astronomer royal, and of every other astronomer in the world. But as we are told that the discovery was made in the last century, it must have been known to others as well as to himself; and as no trace of it is to be found in any professed treatise of astronomy, we may be allowed to doubt on the subject, and to suspect that Dr. Thornton has asserted what is not true. Long did we puzzle ourselves with attempting to investigate the source of the error, and so continually did it agitate our minds, that, for some time, we were deprived of our nightly rest, and we know not what might have been the effect upon our health and spirits, or whether we should ever have been equal to the severe task of writing this review, if we had not happily been freed from our anxiety by a kind of vision between sleeping and waking, which, on account of the solemn mysterious stillness by

which it was accompanied, is in our estimation entitled to more credit than the frantic ravings of an intoxicated Delphic prophetess. We, therefore, do not hesitate to pronounce with oracular confidence, that once upon a time Dr. Thornton, happening to be left alone in the parlour of a friend, took up a book on astronomy, which lay by chance in the window, or on a table, and opened it at the chapter where an account is given of the discovery made soon after the invention of the telescope, that Venus, in different parts of her orbit, has different phases, like those of the moon; and that unwilling to lose the knowledge which he had thus incidentally obtained, as soon as he got home he carefully entered it in his immense common place book; but through the natural infirmity of his memory, and the habitual confusion of his ideas, he mistook the appearance for the reality, and has ever since believed that Venus *has* a moon, instead of being in some respects *like* one. If a nocturnal revelation could stand in need of confirmation, we might produce a strong analogical argument in its support. For what can be more probable than that a writer, who does not discern the difference between a substance and its case, and between a whole and its part, should fancy identity and similarity to be one and the same thing?

The affirmative side of the question with respect to the earth's internal heat is, of course, that which Dr. Thornton himself espouses. He agrees with that set of philosophers, who entertain the opinion that it arises from the conflict of elements contained within her bosom. The mention of central fires produces a profusion of learning, and a multitude of quotations poetical and prosaic, occupying, in the form of notes, nine close printed pages, in which, among other curious particulars, *all intimately connected with the Sexual System of Linnæus*, we are told, that "the Greeks entertained the idea that hell, or place of the manes of departed people, was in the centre of the earth—that the Jews seem to have entertained the same notion, and that hence our Saviour, adapting his discourse to their conceptions, gives the parable of Dives and Lazarus—that the word infernal comes from inferus; and that on the stage these (he leaves us to guess who) are always represented with torches in their hands, and involved in flames—that there is nothing in natural religion to authorize such a conception—that the innumerable stars above us are probably replete with inhabitants, and that we probably pass from one star or world to another star or world, according to our spent lives—that the pre-existence of the human race is supported both by revelation *as well as* reason—that the wisest of the ancients conjectured that there were no infernal regions and eternity of punishment—that Lucretius is one of these sages—and that the fables of the giants, and of the rape of Proserpine, are descriptive of burning mountains."

Earthquakes and volcanos draw our author into another series of notes, to the length of fifteen entire pages, and nearly the whole of almost as many more. In these notes, which are little more than quotations, we are *favoured* with Bishop Berkley's account of the eruption of Mount Vesuvius in 1717, and Sir William Hamilton's of those in 1779 and 1794—with a description of Mount Ætna, and of its eruptions in 1669 and 1755, and of the earthquake at Lisbon in 1755—with the composition and theory of gunpowder, aqua regia, fulminating gold, and fulminating silver—with an explanation of the cause of animal heat, which Dr. Thornton assures us was first discovered and maintained by himself—with the rationale of the affinities of aggregation and composition—with the theory of animal digestion—and with a history of the cases of several persons who have been consumed by an inward combustion.

Dr. Thornton, conceiving that he has amply considered the source and influence of heat on the seed, but of which (lost, we suppose, in the mass of multitudinous and multifarious matter which he had heaped about him on every side) he has forgotten to say even a single word, now proceeds to contemplate the power of the electric fluid in promoting the progress of germination. And as he presumes that his readers are no less ignorant of electricity than of botany, chemistry, and astronomy, he gives them the history of this science; of the various theories which have been formed concerning it by Dr. Franklin, Du Faye, and others; of the identification of the electric fluid with lightning, &c. &c. and then, less forgetful than he had been on the subject of the earth's internal heat, concludes with the experiments of Nollet, Berthollons, and D'Ormay, to shew

Digitized by Google

the influence of electricity on vegetation.

So far, or rather so little is this boasted national work advanced in its course. The various evolutions of the seed are not yet explained: the organized structure of the stem and branches, and of their various appendages; the structure and variety of the leaves, and of the evolution from them of oxygen and other airs; the food of plants, and the principles of agriculture; and lastly, the main professed object of the whole, the structure of the flower, with the illustration of the Sexual System, still remain behind. Nor is this all: the history of systems, and the lives of the most eminent botanists are to be given, before Dr. Thornton *commences* with a translation of the Genera Plantarum. If he had not been a novice indeed in the art of calculation, he must have been sensible that not twelve or fourteen, nor twenty, nor even a hundred numbers, will be sufficient to complete his design in the manner in which he has hitherto conducted it.

Sed ohe: jam satis est. The patience of the public must soon be exhausted. As to ourselves, we have not a drop left. Never were lavish promises more scantily realized. When the author himself appears, he exposes, what Dr. Johnson would have called, his inanity. But he is generally willing to avail himself of other men's labours. A very considerable part of the literary composition consists of quotations, most frequently verbatim, from various writers. Two quotations from Milton fill five pages. We have always thought that in the business of quotation, we reviewers are first-rate workmen: but in the presence of Dr. Thornton, we hide our diminished heads. His work is, indeed, little more than a piece "of shreds and patches," clumsily stitched together with coarse packthread, and instead of a national honour, may more justly be deemed a national disgrace.

But we are reminded that we have unaccountably overlooked the capital beauty of the publication; and that its merits, and its acceptableness with the public, rest chiefly on the excellence, the splendour, and magnificence of the engravings. We have all along been sensible of it, and in this respect are not at all disposed to be sparing of our praise. *Our* praise, however, is not needed. The smaller uncoloured botanical plates in general, but especially the larger coloured ones, do the highest honour to the artists, and will be lasting monuments of the fine taste and masterly execution which characterise the British nation in the present age. But when Dr. Thornton claims a share of the fame, we are reminded of a farce, which, in our playgoing days, afforded us much amusement. It is called, if we mistake not, A Peep behind the Curtain, and is written on the plan of the Duke of Buckingham's celebrated dramatic satire. Its plot turns on the rehearsal of a musical piece, founded on the story of Orpheus and Eurydice, in which some cows are to be introduced, dancing to the lyre of the ancient bard. When every thing else is ready, the cows are wanting, and the prompter is dispatched in haste to enquire the reason of the delay. We quote from memory, and, after a lapse of thirty years, will not vouch for more than the general spirit of the dialogue. "The author," cries the trusty messenger out of breath, "is impatient to see his cows: he relies much on them for the success of his piece." "*His* cows," replies the indignant maker, "they are *my* cows: *I* know that his play will be nothing without them; and I will have *him* to know, that vain as he is, he shall not run away with the glory of the carpenter."

ART. X. *A Description of the Genus Pinus. By* AYLMER BOURKE LAMBERT, *Esq. F. R. S. Vice President of the Linnæan Society.* Folio.

WE have here another magnificent and costly publication, but of a very different character from the foregoing article. Mr. Lambert, well knowing how to estimate the value of accurate ideas, perspicuous description, and just arrangement, has devoted his attention to the elucidation of a single genus, and has become a valuable addition to the list of monographers in natural history. One of the species of the genus pinus is a native of our island, and several others have been so long cultivated among us, that they may be considered as nearly naturalized: but the genus itself has hitherto been inperfectly understood, and the greater number of its species have been very insufficiently discriminated.

Digitized by Google

Linnæus has enumerated only 12 species in the last edition of his Systema Naturæ, and the Hortus Kewensis, though it has treated the subject better than any other work, "does not enumerate all the species that are now known, nor does it distinguish their characters correctly." Mr. Lambert, therefore, with a laudable ambition to supply the deficience, and to promote the advancement of useful science, has personally and repeatedly examined those that grow within a considerable distance from the metropolis; has observed them in different periods of their growth; and has particularly attended to the progress of the cones from their first formation to their full maturity. He has also "consulted every author of repute, with a view not only to ascertain the most accurate specific distinctions, but also to collect every fact relative to the culture and uses of each species." As the result of his labours he has now laid before the public, new specific characters, comprehensive lists of synonyms, and minute descriptions in Latin, with various miscellaneous observations in English: and as an appendix, an account, written by Dr. Maton, of several substances prepared from different species of pine, and employed in medicine or for other purposes; a letter from Mr. Davis, of Hommingsham, in Wilts, on the different kinds of timber afforded by the different species; an extract from Coxe's Travels relative to Christiana deal; and a letter from Thomas Marsham, Esq. F.R.L.S. on the insects destructive to pines. The whole is illustrated by admirable figures which exhibit a branch of the plant, the inflorescence and the fruit in different stages of its growth; all, for the most part, in their natural size, with magnified dissections of the particular parts both of the flower and fruit. The magnitude of the plates required for this purpose, the excellent execution of the engravings, and the elegant stile in which the letter press part of the work is finished, have so greatly enhanced its cost, as to render it unattainable to many who would wish to be in the number of its purchasers. These luxuries must be reserved for those who can spare as many guineas as are specified in its advertized price. For the benefit of others we will copy Mr. Lambert's new specific characters entire, and abridge such of his observations on each species, as we imagine may be most gratifying to the lovers of science and rural œconomy.

1. Pinus sylvestris; Scotch fir.

Foliis geminis rigidis; strobilis junioribus pedunculatis, recurvis dependentibus; antherarum cristâ exiguâ.

From this species is obtained what is called in London, yellow deal, in the country red deal, and sometimes, being generally imported from Christiana, Christiana deal. The Scotch fir raised in England is equal to the foreign in weight and durability, but is seldom so fine in the grain, and has a greater quantity of sap.

Most species of pine may be made to yield, and many of them produce spontaneously, a remarkable resinous juice usually called turpentine. The true Terebinthus of the ancients is obtained from trees of another genus, called by Linnæus pistachia; but the produce of the Scotch fir is now most commonly used on all occasions when a Terebinthinate juice is wanted, either in medicine or the arts.

From this resinous juice is obtained the essential oil of turpentine, by distilling four pounds of it with five pints of water.

Common resin is the residuum of the process, which, pushed as far as the nature of the substance will admit, produces black resin or colophony.

Tar is obtained from the roots and other parts of old pines, and differs from the native resinous juice in having acquired a disagreeable empyreumatic quality from the action of fire, and in containing the saline and mucilaginous parts of the tree mixed with the extractive and the oily.

Pitch is procured by melting coarse hard resin with an equal quantity of tar.

2. Pinus pumilio: the mugho, or mountain pine. Sylvestris γ of Aiton, β of Gmelin.

Foliis geminis abbreviatis strictis; strobilis ovatis, obtusis, minimis; junioribus sessilibus erectis.

It grows on the tops of the highest mountains where scarcely any other tree is to be found, and often covers with its thick and almost impenetrable branches a very extensive tract. When its branches are broken, a transparent resin of a very fragrant smell exudes, which is collected and sold in the form of a native balsam.

Digitized by Google

3. Pinus banksiana ; Labradore pine, sylvestris δ Aiton.

Foliis geminis divaricatis obliquis ; strobilis recurvis tortis ; antherarum cristâ dilatatâ.

This species is very rare in England, three only of any size are known by Mr. Lambert ; one at Paine's Hill, Surry ; another at Kew, and the third at Crome, the seat of Lord Coventry.

4. Pinus pinaster ; cluster pine.

Foliis geminis elongatis ; strobilis verticillatis confertis, ovatis, sessilibus, pendulis, antherarum cristâ rotundatâ.

The wood is soft, and in Switzerland is usually either cut into shingle for covering the roofs of houses, or employed for the extraction of pitch.

5. Pinus pinea ; stone pine.

Foliis geminis ; strobilis ovatis maximis, seminum alis abbreviatissimis ; antherarum cristâ dentato-lacerâ.

The nuts are of a large size, very hard, and contain kernels which have the sweetness of almonds. They are become an article of sale, and may be found in many of the London fruit shops. They possess a nutritive and demulcent quality, but from their oily nature soon become rancid and unfit to be eaten. The proportion of oil in them is, perhaps, greater than in the seed of any other plant ; one pound of them yielding five ounces, whereas the same quantity of linseed produces only two ounces and a half.

6. Pinus maritima.

Foliis geminis tenuissimis ; strobilis ovato-conicis, glaberrimis, solitariis, pedunculatis.

The only tree known to Mr. Lambert grows at Sion House. The figure is from a specimen in Sherard's Herbarium.

7. Pinus halepensis ; Aleppo pine.

Foliis geminis tenuissimis, strobilis ovato-oblongis, reflexis, lævibus, solitariis, pedunculatis.

This species is more like a shrub than a tree in England, and never grows to any great height in its native country. It does not well bear the cold of our winters, and is at present very scarce.

8. Pinus massoniana ; Indian pine.

Foliis geminis, tenuissimis, longissimis ; vaginâ abbreviatâ ; antherarum cristâ dentato-lacerâ.

The figure is taken from a specimen in the Banksian Herbarium, which was brought by Masson from the Cape of Good Hope, where it had been raised from seeds sent from China. The specimen has only the male catkin.

9. Pinus inops ; Jersey pine, Virginiana of Gmelin.

Foliis geminis ; strobilis recurvis oblongo-conicis longitudine foliorum ; aculeis squamarum subulatis rectis.

Most of the pine tribe are very brittle in their texture ; but in this species the wood has almost pliability enough to be tied in a knot, and may therefore be useful for hoops, baskets, &c.

10. Pinus resinosa ; pitch pine.

Foliis geminis ; strobilis ovato-conicis sessilibus ternis : squamis medio dilatatis inermibus.

One of its most distinctive characters is the uncommon length of the sheath of its leaves. It is a native of North America.

11. Pinus variabilis ; variable leaved bastard pine. Tæda γ of Aiton.

Foliis binatis ternatisque ; strobilis ovato-conicis subsolitariis : squamarum aculeis incurvis.

Mr. Lambert has not seen more than two trees of this species in England : one at Paine's Hill, the other at Kew. Its native situation is the sea shore of North America.

12. Pinus tæda : frankincense pine.

Foliis ternis elongatis ; strobilis deflexis : spinis inflexis ; vaginâ foliorum elongatâ.

A low tree on the sandy coast of North America,

There are two flourishing trees of this species at Sion House, but Mr. Lambert has never found any small flowers upon them. The male catkin is figured from a specimen brought from America by Mr. John Fraser.

13. Pinus rigida ; three leaved Virginian pine. Tæda β of Aiton.

Foliis ternis : strobilis ovatis confertis : squamarum spinis reflexis : vaginâ foliorum abbreviatâ.

14. Pinus palustris ; swamp pine.

Foliis ternis longissimis : strobilis subcylindraceis muricatis : stipulis pinnatifidis ramentaceis persistentibus.

It abounds in Virginia and Carolina. The wood is soft and light, and very sparingly impregnated with resin. Only two of any size are known by Mr. Lambert, one at Kew, and the other at Lord Coventry's.

15. Pinus longifolia ; long leaved Indian pine.

Digitized by Google

Foliis ternis, tenuissimis longissimis, pendulis; stipulis integerrimis, deciduis; antherarum cristâ convexâ integriusculâ.

A native of the mountain of Napaul in the East Indies, where it grows to the height of more than a hundred feet. Described from a manuscript communication by Dr. Roxburgh.

16. Pinus strobus; Weymouth pine.

Foliis quinis; strobilis folio longioribus, cylindraceis, lævigatis; antherarum cristâ geminâ, subulatâ minimâ.

First cultivated in England by Lord Weymouth, whence its English name is derived. It abounds most in New York, New England, Nova Scotia, and Canada, where it grows to the height of two hundred feet on the best ground in the vallies, in the crevices of the mountains, and on the banks of rivers, to which the rains and melted snows carry down the fattest parts of the soil of the highest lands. The bark in old trees is abundantly impregnated with a whitish resin, which has a very agreeable odour. The wood is of a yellowish white colour of a tolerable hardness, very fine, almost resembling the white cedar, and works straight, smooth, and shining.

17. Pinus cembra; Siberian stone pine.

Foliis quinis: strobilis ovatis: seminum alis obliteratis, antherarum cristâ reniforme crenatâ.

It flourishes most on the mountains of Switzerland and Siberia; is one of the hardiest of the genus, and of the slowest growth, seldom attaining the height of three feet in less than 14 years. Its timber is large, and has a finer grain than common deal, with a remarkably pleasant smell. The flowers have a more beautiful appearance than those of any other species, being of a bright purple colour; as are also the unripe, full grown cones, which have a bloom upon them resembling that of a ripe Orleans plumb. The kernels of the nuts, when stripped of a brownish rind, have the whiteness and softness of a blanched almond: they have an agreeable oily taste, and often form part of a Swiss as well as Siberian dessert; but Dr. Maton says, that when exposed to the air they sooner become rancid than those of the pinus pinea. From the shoots of the pinus cembra, bruised and macerated a month in water, is extracted an essential oil, called by the German writers Carpathian balsam, pellucid, verylig uid, and of a whitish colour, having an odour and taste like oil of juniper, and celebrated by them for its great medicinal virtues in disorders of very opposite characters.

The pinus cembra is at present very scarce in the nursery gardens about London, and bears a high price. Flourishing plantations of it are to be seen on Lord Clive's Estate in Shropshire; and in the grounds of Colonel Dixon, of Gledhow, near Leeds, in Yorkshire, by whose father, the late Jeremiah Dixon, Esq. it was propagated from cones procured in Switzerland. Several trees, two seventy years old, and others about fifty, are also growing at Mill Hill, in Middlesex, the seat of the late Peter Collinson, Esq. and now by a scientific kind of descent, in the possession of that very intelligent and indefatigable botanist, Richard Anthony Salisbury, Esq.

18. Pinus occidentalis; West Indian pine.

Foliis quinis longissimis, margine scabris: strobilis oblongis: squamis apice truncatis.

Dr. Swartz seems only to have seen trees of this kind without male flowers or fruit, and could procure only a branch with leaves, and a cone much mutilated. No figure is given.

19. Pinus abies; Norway spruce fir.

Foliis solitariis tetragonis; strobilis cylindraceis; squamis rhombeis, complanatis, margine repandis erosis.

Its wood is called white deal in England; is firm, straight, and regular in the grain; and is capable of resisting moisture for a long time. That which is grown in England is said to be more durable than that which is imported, and is particularly in demand for making ladders. On account of the fineness of its grain, and of its whiter colour, it is much used for cottage tables and other furniture; but in the North of England, at least, it was esteemed less durable than the red deal, and bears an inferior price. We who sometimes rise early in a winter morning and light our own fire when the rest of our household are in bed, know by experience that its chips are much inferior to those of red deal.

The common frankincense of the shops is probably no other, or at least is adulterated with, the resinous juice of this tree, which spontaneously exudes from its pores, and soon concretes into distinct drops, or tears. The genuine Burgundy pitch is prepared from this resinous juice.

Digitized by Google

20. Pinus alba; white spruce fir.

Foliis solitariis tetragonis incurvis: strobilis cylindraceis laxis: squamis obovatis integerrimis.

A native of North America above the 54th degree of north latitude, but it disappears southward. It is recommended by Wagenheim as a hardy, profitable tree; and is moreover one of the most ornamental of the abies tribe, growing with its branches feathered to the ground, and on account of the peculiar glaucous hue of its leaves, makes a beautiful appearance when mixed with other pines. Fine trees of this species may be seen at Milton-Abbas, in Dorsetshire, and at Paine's Hill. From its branches boiled with oats, biscuits and molasses, the American spruce beer is prepared.

21. Pinus nigra; black spruce fir.

Foliis Solitariis tetragonis, undique sparsis, rectis, strictis; conis oblongis.

A native of New England, Canada, &c. The young shoots and leaves, like those of the alba, are used in making spruce beer, and by some preferred to them.

22. Pinus rubra; Newfoundland red pine or spruce fir.

Foliis solitariis, subulatis, acuminatis; strobilis oblongis, obtusis; squamis rotundatis, subbilobis, margine integris.

First propagated in this country by Mr. Thoburn, in the gardens of Mess. Whately and Barret, at Brompton, where are a few trees, but too young to produce full sized cones. Its right to be received as a distinct species is not yet fully ascertained.

23. Pinus orientalis.

Foliis solitariis tetragonis; strobilis ovato-cylindraceis: squamis rhombeis.

This species is inserted only on the authority of Tournefort, who found it growing near Trebisonde. Mr. Lambert has not seen a specimen either recent or dried, but is inclined to think some cones brought from China belong to this oriental pine. Two of these cones are figured, as is also a branch copied from a drawing made by Aubriet, under the eye of Tournefort himself, and now in the possession of M. de Jussieu.

24. Pinus picea; silver fir.

Foliis solitariis planis, subsecundis, strobilis cylindraceis erectis; bracteolis elongatis; antherarum crista bicorni.

In Siberia, where this species is very abundant, it is considered by the Tartar hordes as a sure indication that good springs are at hand. Its wood is soft and not durable. Between the midrib and the edges of its leaves, there is a beautiful silvery white appearance, whence its English name is derived. It affords a liquid resin, sold in Germany under the name of Strasburgh turpentine, which is of a middle consistence between that of the terebinthus and the larix; in smell more agreeable than any other turpentine, except the cyprian; in taste the bitterest, yet least acrid.

25. Pinus balsamea; balm of Gilead fir.

Foliis solitariis planis, subsecundis strobilis cylindraceis erectis, bracteolis abbreviatis, antherarum crista muticâ.

A native of Nova Scotia, Canada, &c. Between its bark and wood are vesicles which contain a whitish transparent resinous juice, which is brought from Canada, under the name of Canada balsam, and apparently not very different in its qualities from the celebrated balm of Gilead exclusively the produce of amyris Gileadensis. From its cones, which are of a beautiful glossy deep purple colour, there exudes also a great quantity of transparent resin. Some of the largest trees of this species in England are at Woburn Park and Warwick Castle. They are said to be more than 20 years old: but in this country they generally decay sooner.

26. Pinus Canadensis.

Foliis solitariis, planis, denticulatis, subdistichis; strobilis ovatis, terminalibus, vix folio longioribus.

It bears a great resemblance to the common yew, but is less stiff. A large tree planted by Mr. Peter Collinson, by whom it was first cultivated here, is still standing at Mill Hill.

27. Pinus taxifolia; Nootka fir.

Foliis solitariis, planis, integerrimis, strobilis oblongis, antheris inflato-didymis.

Figured from a specimen in the Banksian Herbarium, brought from the north-west coast of America by Mr. Menzies.

28. Pinus lanceolata; broad-leaved fir.

Foliis solitariis lanceolatis, planis, patentibus; strobilis globosis; squamis acuminatis.

Figured from a fine specimen in the Banksian Herbarium, brought from China by Sir George Leonard Staunton, Bart.

29. Pinus larix; larch.

Foliis fasciculatis, deciduis; strobilis

ovato-oblongis; squamarum marginibus reflexis laceris; bracteolis panduriformibus.

The wood of the larch, cut into shingles of about one foot square surface, and half an inch in thickness, is used in Switzerland for covering the roofs of houses. At first the roofs appear white, but in the course of two or three years become perfectly black by means of the resin extracted from the pores by the sun, which also stops up the joints of the shingles and renders them impenetrable to rain. Used for subterraneous and subaquatic purposes, it is very durable, and Pallas relates that, in Siberia, some burial places of an unknown nation, and of remote antiquity, still remain with beams and supporters of larch entire.

It is from the pinus larix that the true Venetian turpentine is extracted, but though it bears the name, very little of it is exported from the Venetian territories: but it is probable that the merchants of that country were the first who substituted it for the genuine turpentine of Cyprus. The true liquid resin of the larch is obtained chiefly from France and Germany. That which is most commonly met with in the shops, comes from New England, but from what tree is uncertain.

The inner part of the wood of this tree yields a pure gum, scarcely inferior in its qualities to the Arabian gum, but appears to have been hitherto used only in Russia. It is dryish, of a reddish colour; and of a subresinous taste, but wholly soluble in water. It is found on the Ural mountains, when the forests have been set on fire by the carelessness of the huntsmen. During the combustion it exudes from the medullary part of the trunks, and is diligently collected by the natives, not only for the purpose of rendering their bows glutinous, but also of being eaten as a delicacy.

30. Pinus pendula; black larch.

Foliis fasciculatis deciduis, strobilis oblongis; squamarum marginibus inflexis; bracteolis panduriformibus acumine attenuatis.

A native of the cold mountainous parts of North America. The first tree planted in this country grew at Mill Hill, in the garden of the late Mr. Collinson.

31. Pinus microcarpa; red larch.

Foliis fasciculatis deciduis; strobilis subrotundis paucifloris; [illegible]iis inflexis; bracteolis ellipticis, obtu[illegible]minatis.

This species is scarce in England. The only tree of any size seen by Mr. Lambert is at Whitton, where it was planted by John Duke of Argyle. Mr. Loddige has cones both of this and the pendula sent annually from America. He has a large plantation of both species about eight foot high.

32. Pinus cedrus; cedar of Lebanon.

Foliis fasciculatis perennentibus; strobilis ovatis, obtusis erectis: squamis adpressis, rotundatis.

This celebrated tree is too remarkable to be mistaken for any other species. After the excision of a branch, the part remaining in the trunk gradually loosens itself, and assumes a round form like a potatoe. If the bark covering it be struck smartly with a hammer, the knot leaps out. This fact was communicated to Mr. Lambert by Sir Joseph Banks, and he has repeated the experiment himself. The cedar is extremely tardy in its increase of size, even under the most favourable circumstances. It has no title to its common epithet, lofty; since those which still remain on Mount Lebanon are by all accounts not very high; but their wide spreading branches beautifully illustrate the allusion made to them by the Psalmist in describing a prosperous people. The diuturnity ascribed by the ancients to the wood of the cedar does not correspond with that of pinus cedrus, but applies much better to the cupressus horizontalis of Miller. The word cedar was probably used by them, as it still is by us, with considerable latitude. The wood employed as a covering for black lead pencils is not pinus cedrus, but juniperus Bermudiana.

The late Sir John Cullum has taken great pains, in the Gentleman's Magazine for March 1779, to ascertain by whom the cedar was first introduced into England, and concludes that we are probably indebted for it to Sir John Evelyn. Some of the most vigorous in this country are at Paine's Hill, Whitton, and Chiswick.

All that have been mentioned by Sir John Cullum and Mr. Lambert are in the south of England. It is, we believe, not generally known that three fine cedars are now standing at Bierley Hall, near Bradford, in Yorkshire, formerly the seat of Dr. Richardson, author of several papers in the Philosophical Transactions, and mentioned with great respect by Dillenius in his preface to the third edition of Ray's Synopsis, and also in that to his own Historia Muscorum.

Digitized by Google

The grandaughter of Dr. Richardson is still living, and from her we have been favoured with the following particulars, which she has often heard from her uncle, who succeeded his father in the possession of the estate. When cedars were first brought into England, the largest one, then a very small shrub, was sent by Sir Hans Sloane as a present to Dr. Richardson, who, concluding that it would not bear an English winter, put it into a garden pot, and for some years placed it in his green house with the other exotics; but finding that whatever it gained in summer by being in the open air, it lost in winter, he grew tired of nursing, and ordered his gardener to dig a large hole in the corner of his flower garden, and fill it with good earth: here he planted it, and here it grew to a noble tree, but suffered considerably about 80 years ago by a high wind which happened when its boughs were heavily laden with snow, and tore off large arms to the amount of two cart loads of timber. Its present girt, at about one foot above the ground, is twelve feet three inches; at eight feet three inches from the ground, just below its division into two principal branches, fourteen feet: the extent of its longest branch from the perpendicular of the trunk, thirty-seven feet: one of the principal branches soon divides into three, the other into two. This tree must have been sent to Dr. Richardson before the year 1685, when Sir Hans Sloane, in a letter to Mr. Ray, expressed his surprise that a cedar in the garden of Mr. Watts should thrive so well as, without pot or greenhouse, to be able to propagate itself by layers that spring: but it could not be much before, for Dr. Richardson was not then quite 23 years old. The other two were planted some years after, and were part of a cedar hedge which was clipt for some time, but rising too high, the remainder of the trees were taken away, and only these two suffered to grow. Bierley Hall is situated in a strong clay soil, and the neighbouring country abounds in coal and ironstone. Dr. Richardson corresponded with most of the principal botanists in Europe, many of whose letters are still in possession of the family; those of Sir Hans Sloane in particular are numerous, but none in which the cedar is mentioned happen to have been preserved.

32. Pinus dammara; Amboina pitch pine.

Foliis oppositis elliptico-lanceolatis, striatis.

This curious species of pinus was first described by Rumphius, in his Herbarium Amboinense. A specimen of the leaves is preserved in the Herbarium of Sir Joseph Banks, who has lately received fragments of the cone also from Amboina. Dr. Smith has also discovered a specimen of the leaves in the Sherardian Herbarium at Oxford, among the plants collected by Dampier. It produces a resinous substance, described at large by Rumphius, and well known in India under the name of dammar puti or white dammar.

Mr. Lambert informs us that he intends to follow up the present work with the illustrations of the remaining genera in the natural order of Coniferæ; and that several drawings of the species of Dacrydium, and the Dombeya of Lamarck are already finished, and will be given to the public as soon as possible.

Digitized by Google

CHAPTER XXII.

GENERAL SCIENCE.

THE Royal Society of London is the only one in Britain that has contributed in its collective capacity to the scientific history of the last year: it is, however, in itself a host, and the present annual volume will be found of unusual value and importance. The Philosophical Society of Calcutta has also published a volume of high respectability, and in consequence of the recent establishment of a college in British India, we may reasonably expect an accession of vigour and spirit to an institution, with which no other colonial society can presume to vie. Dr. Rees's Cyclopœdia continues advancing with a firm and even pace, and promises to be no small credit to those who are engaged in the execution of so vast an undertaking.

ART. I. *Philosophical Transactions of the Royal Society of London for the Year* 1803. 4to. pp. 514. sixteen plates.

THE Royal Society continues its exertions in the cause of science with unabated energy and success. It has published, as usual, an annual volume in two parts, containing a variety of curious and important information. The first article is the Bakerian Lecture.

1. *Observations on the Quantity of horizontal Refraction, with a Method of measuring the Dip at Sea. By* W. H. WOLLASTON, *M. D. F. R. S.*

Dr. W. relates a series of observations made on the Thames from Somerset House, which show that the quantity of horizontal refraction observable over a short extent of water is much larger than was supposed, and that this refraction, although no doubt in part to be attributed to a variation of temperature, and therefore of density in the lower stratum of the atmosphere, is also materially affected by other circumstances as yet unknown. The method of measuring the dip at sea, as proposed by Dr. Wollaston, is to ascertain by the back observation the whole vertical angle between any two points of the horizon; half the excess of the angle above 180° should of course be the dip required. "The most obvious objection to this," the author remarks, "is the possibility that the refraction may in some measure be different in opposite points of the horizon at the same time, but on the surface of the ocean in general, any partial variations of temperature can rarely be supposed to exist."

2. *A Chemical Analysis of some Calamines. By* JAMES SMITHSON, *Esq. F. R. S.*

Citizen Hauy, in his Elements of Mineralogy, has asserted, contrary to the general opinion of chemists, that calamine is a simple oxyd of zinc, contaminated frequently with carbonat of lime, to which it owes its character of effervescing with acids. In consequence of this, Mr. S. was induced to analyze some varieties of calamine, for the purpose of obtaining a more perfect knowledge of those ores. Calamine from Bleyberg afforded him,

Oxyd of zinc - -	71.4
Carbonic acid - -	13.5
Water - - - - -	15.1
	100.0

A dense mamillated variety from the Mendip hills yielded

Carbonic acid - -	35.2
Oxyd of zinc - -	64.8
	100.0

Digitized by Google

A variety from Derbyshire, in minute pale yellow crystals, consisted of

Carbonic acid - -	34.8
Oxyd of zinc - -	65.2
	100.0

The electric calamine of Regbania, in Hungary, afforded,

Quartz - - - -	25.0
Oxyd of zinc - -	68.3
Water - - - - -	4.4
	97.7
Loss - - - - -	2.3
	100.0

It deserves to be noticed, that the quartz, though in so large a proportion, was rendered soluble by means of the metallic oxyd in dilute sulphuric acid, as after a time the solution became gelatinous.

3. *Experiments on the Quantity of Gasses absorbed by Water at different Temperatures and under different Pressures. By Mr.* W. Henry. 10. *Appendix to ditto.*

The first section of this paper relates to the absorption of gasses by water, under the usual atmospheric pressure. In this Mr. Henry has observed, that the proportion of carbonic acid gas absorbed by water, by means of agitation, depends greatly on the purity of the gas made use of. Thus when at the temperature of 55°, 20 measures of carbonic acid are agitated with ten of water, at least half the gas is absorbed; but from a mixture of 20 measures of carbonic acid with 10 of atmospheric air, 10 parts of water take up only 6 of carbonic acid. The cause of this diminished absorption is merely stated to be "connected with the proportion of common air contained in the unabsorbed residuum." Undoubtedly it is; but surely we may make a nearer approach to the true reason of the fact by supposing that a partition of the carbonic acid between the water and air takes place in the compound ratio of their respective quantities and chemical affinities; whereas, when pure carbonic acid is employed, the water unites with the acid to perfect saturation, on account of the absence of antagonist affinities. But Mr. Henry is disposed to believe, with Mr. Dalton, that the "absorption of gasses by water is purely a mechanical effect," a supposition, in our opinion, very incapable of accounting for many well-known facts. Common air cannot be entirely expelled from water by long boiling and the action of the air-pump, but if water having been so treated is impregnated with pure carbonic acid, the small quantity of air contained in the water will be liberated, obviously on account of its affinity with the water being overcome by that of the carbonic acid.

The second section of Mr. Henry's paper treats of the influence of pressure in promoting the absorption of gasses, and presents us with the following very important general law, deduced from a series of fifty experiments on various gasses, that "under equal circumstances of temperature water takes up, in all cases, the same volume of condensed gas as of gas under ordinary pressure."

4. *Experiments and Observations on the various Alloys, on the specific Gravity, and on the comparative Wear of Gold; being the Substance of a Report made to the Right Honourable the Lords of the Committee of Privy Council, appointed to take into Consideration the State of the Coins of this Kingdom, and the present Establishment and Constitution of his Majesty's Mint. By* Charles Hatchett, *Esq. F.R.S.*

This highly interesting paper is the joint production of Mr. Hatchett and Mr. Cavendish, and will be found, in all respects, worthy of the high reputation and acknowledged abilities of these philosophers. The experiments were undertaken at the desire of the privy council, in consequence of a considerable loss which the gold coin appeared to have sustained by wear within certain periods, which induced them to have an inquiry instituted, in order to ascertain whether this loss was occasioned by any defect in the quality, or figure, or impression of the coins.

The subject naturally divides itself into an enquiry concerning the effects produced upon gold by various metals when alloyed with it in different proportions; concerning the specific gravity of gold variously alloyed, and the modifications to which it is liable; and concerning the effects of friction in various circumstances. These are made the subjects of three sections, which we shall proceed to give some account of.

First, Of the effects produced upon gold by combination with other metals.

Arsenic, though it is with difficulty united with gold when the two substances are in small quantity and mixed in an open crucible, yet combines easily with this metal when applied to it at a

red heat, and in a state of vapour, in closed vessels. The alloy is of a grey colour when the proportion of arsenic is considerable, extremely fusible and brittle. If the arsenic is about 1-900th of the gold, the alloy retains the colour of gold, and, though brittle, bends in some degree before it breaks.

Antimony, either in fusion or a state of vapour, unites eagerly with gold, and in the proportion of 1-1920th destroys its ductility.

Zinc is also highly injurious to the ductility of gold, from which, however, it may be separated by heat; but this is not easily effected if, instead of pure zinc, brass is made use of.

Cobalt, in the proportion of four grains to an ounce of standard gold, begins to impair its ductility and colour. When it amounts to nineteen grains, the alloy becomes of a pale yellow colour, is brittle, and exhibits a fine-grained earthy fracture.

Nickel does not begin to render standard gold brittle in a smaller proportion than eight grains to the ounce.

Manganese unites with gold and renders it brittle, and is itself at the same time protected by the gold from the action of those metals which usually dissolve it.

Bismuth and lead have nearly the same effect as antimony; an alloy of standard gold, containing 1-1900th of either of these metals, being entirely destitute of ductility. If they are added in the proportion of half a grain in the troy ounce of standard gold, the alloy becomes remarkably spongy, and suffers a diminution of specific gravity.

Tin, in the proportion of eight grains in the ounce of standard gold, renders the alloy somewhat pale, but does not in the least degree affect its ductility; the bar may also be annealed at a low temperature without injury; but at a heat approaching the cherry red, or ten degrees of the pyrometer, the surface of the bar began to be covered with minute blisters or bubbles; it then curled up or warped on the edges, and after a time a complete solution of continuity followed, the bar falling down by its own weight from the supporters, in the form of a rough dark-coloured mass, having scarcely any metallic appearance. Hence it appears, that the assertions of Lewis and other chemists, respecting the remarkably ill effect produced on gold by a scarcely ascertainable quantity of tin, are erroneous, and probably originate from the lead, antimony, or bismuth, with which the tin may have been contaminated.

Iron, whether in the state of bar, or cast iron, or cast steel, unites with gold in the proportion of 1-12th, forming an alloy of a dull white colour, considerably harder than standard gold, but perfectly ductile.

Emery does not combine with gold.

Platina with gold forms a yellowish white ductile alloy.

Copper, when pure, in the proportion of 1-12th, if alloyed with gold, produces a deep reddish yellow perfectly ductile alloy. But many of the varieties of copper in commerce that are reckoned pure are not sufficiently so for mixing with gold, probably on account of a minute proportion of lead or antimony, as these may exist in the proportion of 1-120th without materially affecting the colour, ductility, or specific gravity of copper; yet when this copper is employed in the usual quantity for alloying gold, the mass will contain 1-1440th of lead, which we have already seen to be more than enough for rendering gold perfectly brittle.

The conclusion which Mr. Hatchett draws from the experiments of this section is, that only two metals, viz. copper and silver, are proper for the alloy of gold coin, as all the others either alter its colour or injure its ductility.

The second section treats of the specific gravity of gold when alloyed by various metals. In this Mr. Hatchett details the results of several experiments to show, that the specific gravity of gold alloyed with other metals is by no means that which results from a calculation of the respective densities of the component ingredients. The effects of bismuth and lead on gold are very similar to each other, and deserve to be noticed. Both these metals diminish the specific gravity of standard gold inversely as the quantity employed, till the proportion of half a grain of lead or bismuth in the ounce. Thus an ounce of alloy, 18dwt. 10grs. fine, with four grains of lead, is of the specific gravity 17.032; and when the lead is diminished to half a grain, the specific gravity is 16.627, being the minimum of specific gravity; for when the lead is further diminished to one-fourth of a grain, the specific gravity is equal to 17.039, and a similar ratio is observed with regard to bismuth.

Having shown that numerous irregu-

larities in the specific gravity of alloys of gold take place, from the chemical action of their ingredients, Mr. Hatchett proceeds to notice another cause of anomaly, arising from the unequal mixture of the heterogeneous particles; in consequence of which the lower part of a bar, when cast in a vertical direction, will be of greater specific gravity than the upper one, from the particles of gold having principally settled to the bottom; hence there will be a considerable difference in the results of an assay, as the specimen is taken from one or the other end of a bar. The circumstance, too, of casting in iron or sand will generally make a difference; the bar which is formed in an iron mould being *ceteris paribus* of greater specific gravity than if it had been cast in sand. Mr. Hatchett also discovered that even where the parts of an alloy were so perfectly mixed as not to separate at all on being cast, yet the bar is by no means of the same specific gravity throughout; for the lower part being pressed upon, while congealing, by the superincumbent metal, is of the greatest specific gravity; and the opposite end having to sustain only the atmospheric pressure is, of course, of the smallest specific gravity. Thus, a bar which proved to be throughout ten grains better than standard, was found to have the specific gravity of the top = 17.203, and that of the bottom = 17.387. Friction also was found to have a very sensible effect in lowering the specific gravity of metallic alloys.

The third section treats of the effects of friction on the comparative wear of gold and its alloys, which was ascertained in three circumstances: 1st, the friction between gold coin of the same or different qualities; 2dly, the friction of gold coin against silver and copper coin; and, 3dly, the friction of gold against gritty powders, metallic filings, &c. these being the different circumstances under which gold, in the course of circulation, is subject to wear. Instruments for friction were invented by Mr. Cavendish; and, from a vast multitude of experiments, it was concluded,

"1st. That when equal friction, assisted by a moderate pressure, takes place between pieces of coin which are in each series of a similar quality, then, abrasion is most commonly produced in an inverse ratio to the degree of ductility.

"2dly. That the contrary effect happens, when pieces of different quality rub against each other; for then, the more ductile metal is worn by that which is harder.

"3dly. That earthy powders and metallic filings produce similar effects, and tend to wear the different kinds of gold in proportion to their respective degrees of ductility. Fine gold, being extremely soft and ductile, sustains a considerable loss, under many of the general circumstances of friction; and as at all times it appears certain, that the impressions which have been stamped upon it are most easily obliterated, even when actual abrasion does not take place, there is much reason to conclude, that gold of such extreme ductility is not that which is most proper to be formed into coin.

"But gold of the opposite quality, or at least so hard as to be just capable of being rolled and stamped, seems to be equally improper for the purpose of coin. For, even supposing that hard gold suffered, in every case, less by friction than that which is moderately ductile, (which is not however the fact) and allowing that standard gold may, by a fixed alloy, be rendered as hard as gold reduced by copper to 18 carats; without changing the standard proportion of gold, yet it would be very difficult always to make such standard gold of an uniform degree of hardness. Moreover, by some experiments which I purposely made at the mint, upon the rolling and stamping of gold of different qualities, it evidently appeared, that gold equal in hardness to that of 18 carats could not be employed with advantage; for, the additional labour which was required for the rolling and stamping of this hard gold, the frequent failure in making the impression, and the battering and breaking of the dies, fully proved, that the expence and difficulty attending the working of such gold, would by no means be compensated by any small degree of durability which it might possess over any other.

"The extremes of ductility and of hardness being therefore equally objectionable, it follows of course, that gold of moderate ductility must be that which is the best adapted for coin; and as nothing but silver or copper can be employed to alloy gold which is intended to be coined, it may be here observed, that whatever might have been the original motive for introducing the present standard of twenty-two carats, yet it appears, from the experiments lately described, that this proportion of 1-12th of the above-mentioned metals is (every circumstance being considered) the best, or, at least, as good as any which could have been chosen.

* * * *

"—there is every reason to believe, that our gold coin suffers but little by *friction* against itself; and the chief cause of natural and fair wear probably arises from extraneous and gritty particles, to the action of which the pieces may occasionally be exposed in the course of circulation. But still it must be repeated, that the united effects of every spe-

cies of friction to which they may be subjected, fairly and unavoidably, during circulation, cannot produce any other wear than that which is extremely gradual and slow, and such as will by no means account for the great and rapid diminution which has been observed in the gold coin of this country."

5. *Observations on the Chemical Nature of the Humours of the Eye.* By RICHARD CHENEVIX, *Esq. F.R.S. M.R.I.A.*

In the eye of the sheep the aqueous humour is of the specific gravity of 1.0009; when evaporated to dryness it yields a residuum in the proportion of 8 per cent. of the whole, which consists of albumen, gelatin and muriat of soda. The crystalline humour has a specific gravity =1.10, contains no muriat of soda, and consists of albumen and gelatin in a much larger proportion to the water than is found in the aqueous humour. The vitreous humour agrees in every respect with the aqueous.

In the human eye the different parts exhibited the same chemical composition as those of the sheep, but the specific gravity of the aqueous and vitreous humours was =1.0053, while that of the crystalline was =1.0790.

The eyes of oxen contain the same substances as the respective humours of other eyes. The specific gravity of the aqueous and vitreous humours is =1.0088, and of the crystalline =1.0765; the density of this humour is not, however, uniform, being considerably greater in the centre, and diminishing gradually to the circumference.

6. *An Account of some Stones said to have fallen on the Earth in France, and of a Lump of native Iron said to have fallen in India. By the Right Hon.* CHARLES GREVILLE, *F.R.S.*

In our former volume, p. 878, we have given an account of Mr. Howard's very interesting paper on the analysis of stones said to have fallen upon the earth. Mr. Greville, in the present paper, mentions the receipt of three additional specimens since the publication of Mr. Howard's memoir. The first of these is a fragment of a stone in the museum of Bourdeaux, which fell near Roquefort, during the explosion of a meteor, on the 20th of August, 1789. The second fell, along with several others, in Armagnac, in the year 1790. The third is part of a stone, twenty-two pounds in weight, which fell not far from Ville Franche, in Burgundy, on the 12th March, 1798, also accompanied by a meteor. The lump of native iron, mentioned in the title of this paper, fell, in the year 1620, in the purgunnah of Jalindhar, in the Panjab, during the explosion of a meteor. It was picked up while yet hot by the magistrate of the district, and sent in a sealed bag to the Emperor Shah Jehangire. Being weighed in the Emperor's presence, it was found equal to sixty ounces, and a sabre, knife, and dagger, were ordered to be made of it. The workmen reported that it broke to pieces under the hammer, upon which it was mixed with other iron, in the proportion of three parts *iron of lightning* to one of common iron; and from the mass were fabricated two sabres, one knife, and one dagger. This account was translated by Col. Kirkpatrick from an ancient manuscript that has been for many years in his possession.

7. *Observations on the Structure of the Tongue; illustrated by Cases in which a Portion of that Organ has been removed by Ligature. By* EVERARD HOME, *Esq. F.R.S.*

From the results of three or four cases, in which considerable portions of the tongue were removed by ligature without any bad consequences, Mr. Home is induced to conclude, that the internal structure of the tongue is less irritable than almost any other organized part of the body; that the substance interposed between the fasciculi of its muscular fibres is not connected with the nerves that pass through it; that the nerves of the tongue are more readily compressed and deprived of their power of communicating sensation than nerves in general, any injury done to them not being productive of diseased action in the trunk of the injured nerve; and that the tongue appears to have a power of throwing off its sloughs in a shorter time than any other part. Hence, the removal of any part of the tongue that has a tendency to become cancerous may be safely attempted.

8. *Observations of the Transit of Mercury over the Disk of the Sun; to which is added an Investigation of the Causes which often prevent the proper Action of Mirrors. By* WILLIAM HERSCHEL, *LL.D. F.R.S.*

The latter part of this paper is particularly valuable for the detailed observations of circumstances by which the action of telescopes is increased or diminished. The particular observations are incapable of abridgment; we shall there-

Digitized by Google

fore present our readers with the general results in Dr. Herschel's own words.

"——In order to see well with telescopes, it is required that the temperature of the atmosphere and mirror should be uniform, and the air fraught with moisture."

"This being admitted, we shall find no difficulty in accounting for every one of the foregoing observations.

"If an uniform temperature be necessary, a frost after mild weather, or a thaw after frost, will derange the performance of our mirrors, till either the frost or the mild weather are sufficiently settled, that the temperature of the mirror may accommodate itself to that of the air. For, till such an uniformity with the open air, in the temperature of the mirror, the tube, the eye-glasses, and I would almost add the observer, be obtained, we cannot expect to see well.

"But, when a frost, though very severe, becomes settled, the mirror will soon accommodate itself to the temperature; and we shall find our telescopes to act well.

"This explains, with equal facility, why no telescope just brought out of a warm room can act properly.

"Nor can we ever expect to make a delicate observation with high magnifying powers, when looking through a door, window, or slit in the roof of an observatory; even a confined place, though in the open air, will be detrimental.

"It equally shows, that windy weather in general, which must occasion a mixture of airs of different temperatures, cannot be favourable to distinct vision.

"The same remark will apply to auroræ boreales, when they induce, as they often do, a considerable change in the temperature of the different regions of the air.

"But should they not be accompanied by such a change, there seems to be no reason why they should injure vision.

"The warm exhalations from the roof of a house in a cold night must disturb the uniformity of the temperature of a small portion of air; so that stars which are over the house, and at no considerable distance, may be affected by it.

"Sometimes the weather appears to be fine, and yet our telescopes will not act well. This may be owing to dryness occasioned by an easterly wind; or to a change of temperature, arising from an agitation of the upper regions of the atmosphere.

"Or, possibly, to both these causes combined together. If moisture in the atmosphere be necessary, dry air cannot be proper for vision.

"And therefore, on the contrary, dampness and haziness of the atmosphere must be favourable to vision. Fogs also, which certainly denote abundance of moisture, must be very favourable to distinct vision. Nay, if the observatory should be surrounded by water, we need be under no apprehension on that account. Perhaps, were we to erect a building for astronomical purposes only, we ought not to object to grounds which are occasionally flooded; the neighbourhood of a river, a lake, or other generally called damp situations."

9. *An Account of some Experiments and Observations on the Constituent Parts of certain astringent Vegetables, and on their Operation in Tanning. By* H. Davy, *Esq. Professor of Chemistry in the Royal Institution.*

Mr. Davy is well known to the philosophical world as an able and acute investigator of chemical phænomena, and we will venture to assure our readers that they will find the present memoir to be worthy of the high reputation of its author. The first part contains some preliminary observations on the analysis of astringent vegetable infusions. For ascertaining the presence and quantity of tannin, Mr. Davy makes use of a solution of isinglass in distilled water; the application, however, of this reagent, he justly observes, requires some caution, since a concentrated solution of gelatin affords a considerably larger precipitate with a given quantity of tannin than when it is diluted. It is highly requisite also, that the gelatin should be quite fresh, as a very slight chemical change in it will, for the most part, destroy its power of precipitating with tannin.

After the separation of tannin from an astringent infusion, the next process is to disengage the gallic acid from the extractive matter; this, however, cannot be done with perfect accuracy: Mr. Davy appears to prefer the muriat of alumine, which throws down the greater part of the extractive matter, without materially acting on the gallic acid.

The infusion of galls is the first astringent liquor treated of.

The greatest sp. gravity of this, when prepared with the best Aleppo galls, at 55° Fahrenheit is = 1.068. . 400 grains yield by evaporation 53 grains of solid matter, consisting of 9-10ths tannin, and 1-10th gallic acid, with a little extractive matter. Sulphuric and muriatic acids occasion a white precipitate of tannin, with some gallic acid and extract, which is resoluble in warm water. Nitric acid, except very weak, destroys both the tannin and gallic acid. Potash suspends the action of gelatin on the infusion, but its effect may be counteracted by the addition of an acid. The alka-

Digitized by Google

line earths produce copious precipitates, carrying down almost the whole of the tannin, gallic acid, and extract. Alumine and the oxyds of tin and zinc have a similar effect. The soluble matter of 500 grains of galls, when the water was gently evaporated, amounted to 185 grains, of which 130 were tannin, 22 mucilage, 31 gallic acid and extract, 12 calcareous earth and saline matter.

Catechu, or terra japonica, is the next substance treated of. The discovery of its tanning powers is owing to Sir Joseph Banks, who, from the taste, suspected in it the presence of tannin. Its habits with acids, earths, and alkalis, are extremely similar to those of the infusion of galls. 200 grains of the purest Bombay catechu appear to contain 109 of tannin; 68 of peculiar extractive matter; 13 of mucilage, and 10 of insoluble residue, chiefly sand and calcareous earth. 200 grains of Bengal catechu afforded 97 of tannin; 73 of extract; 10 of mucilage; and 14 of residue.

In the astringent barks, the interior white bark contains the greatest quantity of tannin, the middle or coloured part chiefly abounds in extractive matter, and the epidermis seldom contains either one or the other.

An ounce of the entire bark of the chesnut yielded 53 grains of soluble matter, 21 of which were tannin. The same quantity of oak-bark yielded 61 grains, of which 29 were tannin; and the Leicester willow furnished 71 grains, 33 of which were tannin.

An ounce of elm-bark gave 13 grains of tannin.

——————— common willow 11 grs.
——————— Sicilian sumach 78 grs
——————— Malaga sumach 79 grs.
——————— souchong tea 48 grs.
——————— green tea 41 grs.

Of all substances catechu contains the greatest proportion of tannin, and for the common uses of the tanner, one pound of catechu is equal in value to two and a half of galls, to seven and a half of Leicester willow bark, to eleven of Spanish chesnut, to eighteen of elm bark, twenty-one of common willow bark, and three of sumach.

11. *Account of some Experiments on the Descent of the Sap in Trees. By* T. A. KNIGHT, *Esq.*

Mr. Knight showed in a former paper that the sap of vegetables, after having been first absorbed by the bark of the root, passes into the alburnum of the root, trunk and branches; whence, by means of the central vessels, it arrives at the succulent part of the annual shoot, the leaf-stalk and leaf, from which, through the returning vessels of the leaf-stalk, it returns into the bark. In the present memoir he resumes this interesting subject, and points out the principal causes which influence the formation of wood by the descent of the sap through the bark.

Motion, according to Mr. Knight, has a very striking effect on the circulation of the sap and consequent formation of wood. Of two young healthy trees similar in every other respect, if one is bound to a stake so as to prevent the motion of the trunk, without compressing the bark, and the other is left at full liberty to be blown about by the wind, it will be found that the trunk of the former will enlarge very slowly in diameter, in proportion to that of the former. If the tree, instead of being bound tight, is allowed to have motion in one direction only, the enlarged diameter of the wood will be principally in that direction; a horizontal section of the trunk presenting an oval instead of a circle: hence trees in exposed situations have the greatest part of the wood deposited in the trunk and large branches, while those in thick woods being in part deprived of motion in the trunk, and also excluded from the light, the principal nourishment will be distributed to the branches and leading shoots: hence old trees whose bark is become rigid generate little wood; but when the outer bark is removed, the motion and free communication being restored, a very rapid enlargement of bulk takes place. If Mr. Knight's theory of the formation of wood be true, tuberous roots must also be formed of matter that has descended from the leaves through the bark. In order to ascertain this, he took a potatoe-plant, and carefully dividing the runners, which connect the tuber with the parent plant, he immersed both the divided ends in a decoction of logwood; at the end of twenty-four hours he found, that the coloured infusion had passed along the runners in both directions, but that it had not entered the vessels of the parent plant, whereas the vessels of the tuber were almost completely penetrated by this coloured injection.

Digitized by Google

12. *Enquiries concerning the Nature of a metallic Substance, lately sold in London as a new Metal, under the Title of Palladium.* By RICHARD CHENEVIX, *Esq. F. R. S. M. R. I. A.*

This is by far the most important chemical paper that has appeared during the last twelvemonth, and confers new distinction on the already illustrious name of its author.

The substance advertized by the name of Palladium, as a new metal, was possessed of the following properties. It was in the form of thin, flexible, not very elastic laminæ, which had evidently been rolled out in a flatting mill; its sp. grav. was from 10.972 to 11.482.: its galvanic properties were the same as those of gold and silver. Upon exposure to the blow-pipe, the surface not exposed to the flame became blue. When placed in an open vessel, in a temperature greater than required for the fusion of gold, no oxidizement, or appearance of fusion, was observable. At a considerably higher heat it run into a button, of a greyish white colour, harder than wrought iron, and the sp. grav. of which was = 11.871. If sulphur is added to Palladium, when strongly heated, a combination immediately takes place, and the mass remains fluid, even at a very low red heat. It unites with gold, platina, silver, copper, lead, tin, bismuth, iron, and arsenic, and the sp. grav. of the alloy is in most of the cases remarkably different from the result obtained by calculation. Thus the sp. grav. of equal parts of Palladium and platina ought, by calculation, to be = 17.241., but by experiment it amounts only to 15.141, being a deficiency of 2.1.: on the other hand, equal parts of Palladium and bismuth, which, by calculation, should give a sp. grav. = 10.652 amounts, by experiment, to 12.587, being an excess of 1.935. The fixed alkalis diminish the brilliancy, and effect a partial solution of Palladium when fused with it. Ammonia, by long digestion, acquires a slight bluish tinge, and dissolves a minute portion of this metal. The three mineral acids, and the nitro-muriatic, act with more or less violence, and form beautiful red solutions; whence precipitates may be obtained by the usual reagents.

From some of the properties of Palladium, Mr Chenevix was induced to believe that platina was one of its ingredients; and, after some previous experiments, he poured some green sulphate of iron into a salt of platina, and also into a salt of mercury, without occasioning any precipitation in either; but, upon mixing the two liquors, a copious deposit took place, exactly similar to the precipitate from nitro-muriat of Palladium, by the same re-agent. The precipitate being exposed to a strong heat, entered into fusion, and produced a metallic button, not to be distinguished from Palladium.

In the course of his experiments on the combination of mercury with platina, Mr. Chenevix obtained various mixtures, which, though differing materially from platina, were yet by no means possessed of exactly the same properties as Palladium. The most successful method of preparing this alloy, he found to be the following.

Dissolve 100 grains of platina in nitro-muriatic acid, and add to the solution red nitrous oxyd of mercury, till the liquor is completely saturated, then pour in a solution of green sulphat of iron, and heat the mixture on a sand-bath; in less than half an hour a copious precipitate will fall down, which, when well washed and dried, is to be strongly heated in a charcoal crucible, and will afford a button, weighing 135 grains, consisting of about two parts platina to one of mercury.

All attempts made by Mr. Chenevix to decompose either the advertized Palladium or his own imitation of it were wholly without success, but in the various experiments to which they were subjected they comported themselves exactly in the same manner, so that no reasonable doubt can be entertained of their identity. The consequences that are drawn from these facts, by the author, are of the utmost importance. We learn that mercury, the most fusible and one of the most volatile of the metals, may be combined with another so as wholly to lose its characteristic properties; that no sort of dependence is to be placed on the calculated specific gravity of an alloy from the known gravity of its component parts, and that the obstinacy with which the metals have hitherto opposed all attempts at their decomposition, is far from being a reason for chemical philosophers, to give up in despair all further endeavours.

13. *An Account of the Sinking of the Dutch Frigate Ambuscade, of 32 Guns, near the*

Digitized by Google

Great Nore, with the Mode used in recovering her. By Mr. JOSEPH WHIDBEY, *Master Attendant in Sheerness Dock-yard.*

At eight o'clock in the morning of the 9th of July, 1801, the Dutch frigate Ambuscade left the moorings in Sheerness harbour, her fore-sail, top-sails, and top-gallant sails being set, with the wind aft blowing strong. In about thirty minutes she went down by the head, near the Great Nore; not giving the crew time to take in the sails, nor the pilot or officers more than four minutes notice before she sunk, by which unfortunate event twenty-two of the crew were drowned.

This extraordinary accident was owing to the hawse-holes being extremely large and low, the hawse-plugs not being in, and the holes being pressed under water by a crowd of sail on the ship, through which a sufficient quantity of water got in, unperceived, to carry her to the bottom.

The vessel, though sunk, having sustained no external injury, it became an object of importance to weigh her up; this was successfully effected by Mr. Whibbey, by means of lighters, in an ingenious manner, but incapable of being understood without a reference to the plate.

14. *Observations on a new Species of hard Carbonate of Lime; also on a new Species of Oxide of Iron. By the Count* DE BOURNON, *F. R. S.*

The carbonate of lime here described is in the form of hexahedral pyramids, is so hard as to scratch with great ease fluor-spar, and even to take off the polish of glass; it possesses a vitreous fracture, and cannot be reduced to the primitive rhomboid; Mr. Chenevix analyzed it, but found its composition to differ in no respect from the softer carbonate. The iron ore crystallizes in perfect cubes, is not affected by the magnet, and holds a middle station between the attractable octahedral iron ore and the hæmatites.

15. *Account of the Changes that have happened during the last Twenty-five Years in the relative Situation of Double Stars, with an Investigation of the Cause to which they are owing. By* WILLIAM HERSCHEL, *LL.D. F.R.S.*

The object of this interesting paper, which, from the minuteness of its details, is incapable of being abstracted, is to shew the probability, that many of the apparently double stars are real binary combinations, held together by their mutual attraction.

16. *An Account of the Measurement of an Arc of the Meridian, extending to Dunnose in the Isle of Wight, latitude fifty degrees, thirty-seven minutes, eight seconds, to Clifton in Yorkshire, latitude fifty-three degrees, twenty-seven minutes, thirty-one seconds, in Course of the Operations carried on for the Trigonometrical Survey of England in the Years* 1800, 1801, *and* 1802. *By Major* W. MUDGE, *of the Royal Artillery, F.R.S.*

Major Mudge is well known as the able successor to General Roy in the important work of carrying on the trigonometrical survey of England. The memoir before us, though of vast consequence, is from its very nature incapable of abridgment. The first part is occupied by a very minute description of the zenith sector employed by Major Mudge, and the last specimen of the accuracy and ingenuity of the late Mr. Ramsden. To this succeeds an account of the operations in the year 1802, consisting of observations at Dunnose, the southern extremity of the meridian line at Clifton, near Doncaster, its northern extremity; and at Arbury Hill and the intermediate stations. In 1801 a base 26342.7 feet long was measured on Misterton-carr, in the north-west corner of Lincolnshire, being the fourth that has been ascertained in the progress of the survey (the three others were on Hounslow Heath, Salisbury Plain, and Sedgemoor.)

The ascertained distance between Dunnose and Clifton amounts to 1036334 feet or 196.27 miles; between Dunnose and Greenwich 59.41 miles, and between Clifton and Greenwich 136.86 miles. The length of a degree on the meridian, latitude fifty-two degrees, two minutes, twenty seconds, is = 60820 fathoms, and of a degree, in latitude fifty-one degrees, thirty-five minutes, eighteen seconds, is = 60864 fathoms. By combining the observations of the English and French astronomers we have a series of triangles from Clifton to Barcelona in Spain, and the distance between the two places amounts to 4411968 feet or 835.6 miles.

As an appendix to the memoir are subjoined the latitudes and longitudes of the places intersected in the survey of Essex, Suffolk, Surry, Middlesex and Kent.

Digitized by Google

ART. II. *The Philosophical Transactions, abridged.* 4to. Vol. I. pp. 744.

THE transactions of the Royal Society of London form the largest and most valuable collection extant of memoirs on mathematical and experimental philosophy. The early volumes, however, are extremely difficult to procure, and the price of the whole is greater than many persons can conveniently appropriate to this purpose. There are two ways of obviating these inconveniences, either by publishing a new edition of the entire work in a more economical form, or by means of judicious abridgment to bring it into still smaller compass. For our own parts we should have preferred the former plan, yet this preference by no means renders us unwilling to bestow all merited commendation on the present work. The mathematical papers are entrusted to Dr. Hutton, those on natural history to Dr. Shaw, and the medical and chemical ones to Dr. R. Pearson. The memoirs of every class, as far as we have examined them, are very skilfully abridged, nothing useful is sacrified to mere brevity, and the publication richly deserves, and we doubt not will obtain, the patronage of the philosophical world.

ART. III. *Asiatic Researches; or Transactions of the Society instituted in Bengal for enquiring into the History and Antiquities, the Arts, Sciences, and Literature of Asia.* Vol. VII. 8vo.

THE man of letters might well feel proud in contemplating the permanence and pre-eminence of literature, if that recollection were not accompanied by the melancholy knowledge, that all other things are perpetually changing and passing away. Arrian, and Joinville, and Froissart, continue to act upon mankind, when all the kingdoms of Alexander have lost their religion, their language, and their very names, when Louis is neither respected in his own country as one of her kings, nor revered as one of her saints; and when the Guelphs are seated upon the throne of the Plantagenets. The east, by its more rapid revolutions, more strikingly exemplifies this triumph of intellect over power.—Ferishta, and Castanheda, and Valentyn, are still consulted with interest, when the conquests of the Moguls, and the Portugueze, and the Dutch, have yielded to other invaders; and there may come a time, when Orme will be regarded like Barros as the historian of victories, of which no other effect shall be remaining.

With this feeling we have taken up this book, recollecting, in that kind of melancholy which will mingle itself with a smile, what mighty events have been necessary to its production! the voyage of Gama, the victories of Albuquerque, the loss of Sebastain, and the triumphs of Clive! If a link in the chain had been broken, we should neither have supped our cheerful cup of hyson this evening, nor have sate down after it to review the seventh volume of the Asiatic Researches.

The first article is on the course of the Ganges, through Bengal, by Major R. H. Colebrooke.

The Ganges, and the other rivers of Bengal, are frequently changing their course, sweeping away their banks, and forming other shores or islands with their spoils.

"It is chiefly during the periodical floods, or while the waters are draining off, that the greatest mischief is done; and if it be considered, that at the distance of two hundred miles from the sea, there is a difference of more than twenty-five feet in the perpendicular height of the waters, at this season, while at the outlets of the rivers (excepting the effect of the tides) they preserve nearly the same level at all seasons, some idea may be formed of the increased velocity with which the water will run off, and of the havoc which it will make on the banks. Accordingly it is not unusual to find, when the rainy season is over, large portions of the bank sunk into the channel; nay, even whole fields and plantations have been sometimes destroyed; and trees which, with the growth of a century, had acquired strength to resist the most violent storms, have been suddenly undermined, and hurled into the stream.

"The encroachments, however, are not often carried on gradually, and that partly in the dry season; at which time the natives have leisure to remove their effects, and change the sites of their dwellings, if too near the steep and crumbling banks. I have seen whole villages thus deserted, the inhabitants of which had rebuilt their huts on safer spots inland, or had removed entirely to some neighbouring village or town. Along the banks of the Ganges, where the depredations of the stream are greatest, the people are so accustomed to such removals, that they build their

huts with such slight materials only, as they can, upon emergency, carry off with ease; and a brick or mud wall is scarcely ever to be met with in such situations."

The islands which are formed with these ruins are taken possession of by the natives, as soon as they appear to be sufficiently firm. It generally happens, that in a few years they are united with the main land, the intervening channel being closed up; they are then distinguished from it by their having few or no trees. The largest at present existing contains about twenty square miles of land; but the same process by which they were formed, acts to their removal; and the system of creation and destruction, or rather of perpetual change and renovation, is for ever exhibited to the worshippers of the Trimourtee.

Upon the shallows of these rivers, Major Colebrooke offers a suggestion which deserves to be attended to.

"As the shallows which are produced from the causes above-mentioned are only partial, affecting only in a small degree, comparatively with their lengths, the channels of these rivers, it might be possible to counteract them in such a manner, as to produce a more equal distribution of water; and as the depth which would be requisite for boats of a modern burthen is inconsiderable, perhaps it might be effected with much less labour and expence than might at first be imagined.

"I was led to this supposition, from frequently seeing that the mere operation of dragging by force a boat, or budgerow, through any of the shallows, tended, by stirring up the sands, to deepen the channel. If, therefore, round or flat-bottomed boats can produce such an effect, in how much greater a degree might it not be done by means of a machine constructed for the purpose, which might be dragged to and fro through the shallow place, until a sufficient depth of water should be obtained for the passage of boats. If such machines, which might be contrived somewhat in the form of a large iron rake, and occasionally to go on wheels, were to be stationed at the several villages or towns in the vicinity of the shallows, it is possible that the Zemeendars might be induced, for a moderate consideration, to furnish people or cattle to put them in motion, whensoever it might be necessary."

This paper is elucidated by charts and sections.

2. On Singhala or Ceylon, and the Doctrines of Bhoodha, from the Books of the Singhalais, by Captain Mahony.

The fundamental article of the Ceylonese mythology is singularly whimsical; they hold the universe to be under the government of a bhooddha, for bhooddha is an official title. The present universe has been successively administered by four. The place is now vacant; but Sahampatta Maha Brachma, the supreme of all the gods, holds it *in commendam*, till Maitree Bhooddha, the fifth, who is to come, shall make his appearance. He is to be the last of this universe; and when this shall have past away, Maha Brachma will pass in ascent through the seventeen heavens above his own, till he attains at length the necessary qualifications to become a bhooddha himself.

The religion of Gautemeh, the last bhoodda, is that which now prevails in Ceylon.

Before his appearance on earth, he "was a god, and the supreme of all the gods. At the solicitations of many of the gods he descended on earth, and was frequently born as a man, in which character he exercised every possible virtue, by extraordinary instances of self-denial and piety. He was at length born of Mahamaya Devee, after a pregnancy of ten months, and had for father Soodoneneh Raja. He lived happily with his queen Yassodera, and forty thousand concubines, for thirty-one years; the six next he passed in the midst of wildernesses, qualifying himself to be a bhooddha. At the close of this period his calling became manifest to the world, and he exercised his functions as bhooddha for forty-five years. He died in Cooseemarapoodree, at the court of Mallelch Raja, Tuesday, the 15th of May; from which period the bhooddha waroosch, or era of bhooddha, is dated, which now (A.C. 1797) amounts to 2339 years.

"Bhooddha is not, properly speaking, considered as a god, but as having been born man, and in the end of time arrived at the dignity of bhooddha, on account of his great virtues and extraordinary good qualities. The title of bhooddha was not conferred on him by any superior power, he adopted it by his own sovereign will, in the same manner as he became man; both of which events were predicted ages before. Bhooddha, after his death ascended to the hall of glory, called mookze, otherwise nirgoowage, which is a place above, and exceeding in magnificence the twenty-sixth heaven; there he will live for ever, in happiness and incorruptibility, never to be born again in the world; where his doctrine is at present extant, and will continue in all its splendour for five thousand years, according to his own prophecy."

Maha Brachma, and the whole host of deities, have neither flesh, bones, nor material bodies, yet they seem to have hair on their heads and teeth, and their skins are luminous. The breath of life in man

is compared to a leech, that must attach itself to one thing with its mouth, before it will loosen its hold on another with the tail. The body, therefore, does not die till this living spirit has found another resting place, which it chuses by a fatal instinct, according to its deserts.

That this religion has been conquered by the Bramins in Hindostan is certain; their bhooddha is like our doctrine of consubstantiation, the relic of a faith which once struggled for superiority, but is now obsolete and neglected. It is not, however, so easy to explain the traces of the Hindoo system which appear among the Ceylonese. A far more minute and methodical account of this mythology, as it exists in Ava, may be found in the last volume of the Asiatic Researches, by Dr. Buchanan.

3. Narrative of a route from Chunarghur to Yertnagoodum, in the Ellore Circar, by Captain J. T. Blunt.

Captain Blunt was employed by government to explore a route through that part of India, which lies between Berar, Orissa, and the northern Circars; he had with him a party of a Jamadar, and thirty Sepoys. The people among whom he travelled seem to have been desperate savages.

"I never indeed met with a people who shewed less inclination to hold converse of any kind with strangers, than these mountaineers in general. This disposition in a great measure frustrated every attempt I made to acquire information of their manners and customs; among which the sacrifice of birds, by suspending them by the tips of their wings to the trees and bushes, on each side of the road, and leaving them to perish by degrees, was almost the only peculiar one I could discover. The cause of this cruel practice I never could learn; yet I frequently observed, that although the birds were suspended at a convenient height for travellers to pass under them, the Goands would never do so, but always took a circuit to avoid them. I once observed a ram extended by the feet in the same manner. Their food appeared to be the most simple imaginable, consisting chiefly of the roots and produce of their woods.—They go for the most part naked; when cold they alleviate it by making fires, for which their forests supply them with abundance of fuel; and when the heat of the sun becomes oppressive, they seek shelter, and recline under the shade of large trees.

"They always endeavour to surprize their enemy, in preference to engaging him in open combat, however confident of superiority they may be. With that view, when on any hostile excursion, they never kindle a fire, but carry with them a sufficiency of ready-dressed provisions, to serve during the probable term of their absence; they march in the night, proceeding with the greatest expedition, and observing the most profound silence. When day overtakes them they halt, and lie concealed in a kind of hammock, which they fasten among the branches of the loftiest trees, so that they cannot be perceived by any person passing underneath. From this circumstance of ambuscade, the idea has originated of their living in trees instead of houses.—When they have, in this manner, approached their enemy unperceived, they generally make their attack about the dawn, and commence it with a great shout, and striking of their spears against their shields. If they are successful in their onset, they seldom spare either age or sex; at times, however, they make captives of the children, and often adopt them into their families when they have none of their own; and the only slaves among them are captives thus taken."

There should have been a map to elucidate this journal.

4. An Account of a new Species of Delphinus, an Inhabitant of the Ganges, by Dr. Roxburgh.

5. Translation of one of the Inscriptions on the Pillar at Delee, called the Lat of Feeroz Shah, by Henry Colebrooke, esq.

There are six inscriptions upon this pillar; of five no translation has been yet favourable, they are therefore here engraved. The other was translated in the first volume of these Researches, by Sir William Jones, but from an imperfect copy; and it is worthy of remark, that the date which Sir William suspected to be 123 of the era of Vicramaditya, or A.D. 67, proves to be 1220 of that era, or A.D. 1164. If similar means of detection should ever be found, we have little doubt that all Hindoo chronology would shrink in at least an equal proportion.

6. An Account of the Kookies or Lunctas, by John Macrae, esq.

The Kookies are a race of mountaineers, living to the north-east of the Chittangong province, the least civilized of any of these mountain tribes that are as yet known to the Europeans; they have the flat nose, small eyes, and broad round face, which characterise all the natives of eastern Asia. They are divided into a number of distinct tribes, who may be said to be independent of each other, though all acknowledge the authority of one or other of their hereditary rajahs. The chieftainship in the tribes is elective.

They ornament the inside of their

Digitized by Google

shields with small pendulous plates of brass, which clatter as they toss about their arms, either in the fight or in the dance. The hunter, when in the forests, broils his food in a species of hollow bamboo. From the ashes of a different species of the same plant he extracts a kind of salt to season his meat; and with two pieces of dried bamboo he kindles his fire.

"The Kookies, like all savage people, are of a most vindictive disposition, blood must always be shed for blood. If a tiger even kills any of them, near a parah, the whole tribe is up in arms, and goes in pursuit of the animal; when, if he is killed, the family of the deceased gives a feast of his flesh, in revenge of his having killed their relation. And should the tribe fail to destroy the tiger in this first general pursuit of him, the family of the deceased must still continue the chase; for until they have killed either this, or some other tyger, and have given a feast of his flesh, they are in disgrace in the parah, and not associated with by the rest of the inhabitants. In like manner, if a tiger destroys one of a hunting party, or of a party of warriors on an hostile excursion, neither the one nor the other (whatever their success may have been) can return to the parah without being disgraced, unless they kill the tiger. A more striking instance still of this revengeful spirit of retaliation is, that if a man should happen to be killed by an accidental fall from a tree, all his relations assemble and cut it down; and however large it may be, they reduce it to chips, which they scatter in the winds for having, as they say, been the cause of the death of their brother.

In some of their customs they strikingly resemble certain North American tribes.

"When any person dies in a parah, the corpse is conveyed by the relations of the deceased, and deposited upon a stage raised under a shed erected for the purpose, at some distance from the dwelling-house. While it remains there, it is carefully guarded, day and night, from the depredations of beasts and birds, by some one of the family, and a regular supply of food and drink is daily brought and laid before it. Should more than one casually occur in a family, the same ceremony is observed with respect to each corpse; and at whatever time of the year persons may happen to die in the parah, all the bodies must be kept in this manner until the 11th of April, called by the Bengalees Beessoo. On that day all the relations of the deceased assemble, and convey their remains from the sheds to different funeral piles, prepared for them on a particular spot without the parah, where they are burnt; as are also the several sheds under which the bodies had lain from the period of their decease. After this melancholy ceremony is over, the whole party repairs to the house of him in whose family the first casualty occurred in that year, and partakes of an entertainment given by him in honour of the dead. On the following day, a similar feast is given by him in whose family the next casualty of the season had happened; and thus the feast goes round in succession, until one is given for each of the dead.

"In this pious preservation of the dead till a certain day in the year, when only the last solemn funeral rites can be performed to their remains, there is a singular coincidence in the practice of the Kookies with that of some of the tribes of the North American Indians, as related in Bartram's Travels; and it must appear a curious fact, that in so very particular an instance, there should be this similitude in the customs of two savage people, placed in such opposite parts of the world; where the climate, and other peculiar local circumstances, are so totally different."

They believe a future state of rewards and punishments, conceiting that they can by no means so certainly ensure future happiness, as by destroying a number of their enemies. Acknowledging one omnipotent Creator, whom they call Khogein Pootteeang, they offer to him no prayer, but address them to Sheem Sank, an inferior deity, as a mediator with the Supreme Being, and as more immediately interesting himself in the concerns of individuals. Of Sheem Sank they have an idol, none of the Deity; they have no priests, each worshipping as he thinks best. To the Deity they sacrifice the gyal, as being their most valued animal; Sheem Sank must be contented with a goat; yet they pile up before his image the heads of all their game, and of all the enemies whom they slay, each having his own pile, and according to its size is his fame as a hunter or a warrior. In consequence, when they surprise and slay the Bengalee wood-cutters, whom they sorely annoy, it is remarked that they carry away nothing but the heads of their victims, and such salt as they may have had with them.

A very few words of their language are given, but these few indicate a scanty vocabulary, and a regular system of compounding words. Father, grandfather, and grandmother, are called p'ha, p'hoo, p'hee: meepa is a man, noo a woman, naoo a child, meepanaoot'he, a boy or man child, noonaoot'he, a girl or woman child, noonaoo, or mother of children, the word for woman. The only other words given, except the

numerals, are chopooe and charnoo, brother and sister, and these are evidently derivative also, though the means of fully analyzing them are not to be found in this short list. This regularity is very curious, and should seem to indicate an unmixed race.

This whole paper is exceedingly interesting. The information was supplied by a native of the Runganeeah district, whom the Kookies carried away prisoner when a boy, and who, after a captivity of twenty years, found means to return to his family. If Mr. Maçrae could procure from this man, or by any other means, a farther specimen of their language, it may lead to some important speculations and results.

7. On the Sanscrit and Pracrit languages, by H. T. Colebrooke, Esq.

From this very learned paper, we can only make such extracts as will be curious to persons not engaged in the study of the Indian languages.

" In a treatise on rhetoric, compiled for the use of Maniey a Chandra, Raja of Tirabhucti or Tirkut, a brief enumeration of languages, used by Hindu poets, is quoted from two writers on the art of poetry. The following is a literal translation of both passages:

" Sanscrita Pracrita, Pais'achi and Magad'hi, are in short the four paths of poetry. The gods, &c. speak Sanscrita; benevolent genii, Pracrita; wicked demons Pais'achi; and men of low tribes and the rest Magad'hi. But sages deem Sanscrita the chief of these four languages. It is used three ways; in prose, in verse, and in a mixture of both."

" Language, again, the virtuous have declared to be four-fold: Sanscrita, or the polished dialect; Pracrita, or the vulgar dialect; Apabhranja, or jargon, or mixed. Sanscrita is the speech of the celestials, framed in grammatical institutes; Pracrita is similar to it, but manifold as a provincial dialect, and otherwise; and those languages which are ungrammatical, are spoken in their respective districts.

" The Pais'achi seems to be gibberish, which dramatic poets make the demons speak, when they bring these fantastic beings on the stage. The mixture of languages, noticed in the second quotation, is that which is employed in dramas, as is expressly said by the same author in a subsequent verse. It is not then a compound language, but a mixt dialogue, in which different persons of the drama employ different idioms. Both the passages above quoted are therefore easily reconciled. They, in fact, notice only three tongues. 1. Sanscrit, a polished dialect, the inflections of which, with all its numerous anomalies, are taught in grammatical institutes. This the dramatic poets put into the mouths of gods, and of holy personages. 2. Pracrit, consisting of provincial dialects, which are less refined, and have a more imperfect grammar. In dramas it is spoken by women, benevolent genii, &c. 3. Magad'hi, or Apabhranj'a, a jargon destitute of regular grammar. It is used by the vulgar, and varies in different districts: the poets accordingly introduce into the dialogue of plays a provincial jargon, spoken by the lowest persons of the drama.

* * * *

" There is one peculiarity of Sanscrit compositions which may also have suggested the opinion that it could never be a spoken language. I allude to what might be termed the euphonical orthography of Sanscrit. It consists in extending to syntax the rules for the permutation of letters in etymology. Similar rules for avoiding incompatible sounds in compound terms exist in all languages; this is sometimes effected by a deviation from orthography in the pronunciation of words, sometimes by altering one or more letters to make the spelling correspond with the pronunciation. These rules have been more profoundly investigated by Hindu grammarians than by those of any other nation, and they have completed a system of orthography which may be justly termed euphonical."

The same peculiarity exists in the Welsh. We will add also one specimen of Sanscrit etymology, the most striking that we have yet seen.

" Yuvan signifies young, and yauvana youth; the first makes yuva in the nominative case: this is adopted into Hindustani with the usual permutation of consonants, and becomes juba, as yauvana is transformed into joban. The same word has been also corrupted in Persian and Latin, where it stands juvan and juvenis. In many inflections the root of yuvan is contracted into yun, the possessive case, for example, forms in the three numbers, yunas, yunos, yunam: here then we trace the origin of the Latin comparative junior; and I cannot hesitate in referring to these Sanscrit roots the Welsh jevangk, and Armorican jovank, as well as the Saxon yeong, and finally the English young. This analogy, which seems evident through the medium of the Sanscrit language, is wholly obscured in Hindustani."

We perceive, at the conclusion of this paper, that Mr. Colebrooke has made some progress in collecting lists of the most common terms in the various dialects of India, compared with words of similar sound and import in the ancient languages of Europe. We rejoice that a labour of such exceeding importance has been undertaken by so able a man, whose good sense seems to be equal to his great learning. It is only by the

story of language that the early history of the world can be in any degree ucidated. Shame upon this country, at we have no public institutions for is great purpose! that all that has been one, and is doing, should be the labour f unpatronized and unrewarded indiiduals!

8, 9. On the religious Ceremonies of he Hindus, and of the Bramens espeially, by H. T. Colebrooke, Esq. Essays two and three.

The first of these essays appeared in he fifth volume of the Researches. Minute descriptions of ceremonies are not susceptible of abridgment, we can therefore only express in general terms our sense of this very diligent observer's merits, and our hope that his communications may occupy as large a portion of the subsequent volumes as they do of this.

The funeral prayer merits transcription.

"1. Foolish is he who seeks permanence in the human state, unsolid like the stem of the plantain tree, transient like the foam of the sea.

"2. When a body, formed of five elements to receive the reward of deeds done in its own former person, reverts to its five original principles, what room is there for regret?

"3. The earth is perishable, the ocean, the gods themselves pass away: how should not that bubble, mortal man, meet destruction?

"4. All that is low must finally perish; all that is elevated must ultimately fall; all compound bodies must end in dissolution, and life is concluded with death.

"5. Unwillingly do the manes of the deceased taste the tears and rheum shed by their kinsmen; then do not wail, but diligently perform the obsequies of the dead."

10. An Account of a Method for extending a Geographical Survey across the Peninsula of India. By Brigade Major Lambton. Communicated by permission of the Right Hon. the Governor of Fort St. George in Council.

11. On the Origin and peculiar Tenets of certain Mahammedan Sects. By H. T. Colebrooke, Esq.

12. A summary Account of the Life and Writings of Aoyar, a Tamul Female Philosopher. By the Rev. Dr. John.

Aoyar is one of the seven wise—we were about to say wise men of the Tamul, but that the license of the Hibernian dialect would have been somewhat violent, as four of the seven were women, Aoyar, Uppay, Vallie, and Urnway; Tiruvalluwer, Adigaman, and *Kavoiler*, of which last appellation we have wise men enough in Europe. The Hibernian dialect has, however, been used in the title of this paper, which, instead of the life of Aoyar, relates a not uninteresting fairy tale of the life of her mother. Three books, or rather chapters, of the moral sentences of this female philosopher are annexed; of all proverbs, ancient or modern, Jew or Gentile, which we have ever seen, they are beyond comparison the most inane and worthless. We design no censure on the translator. On the contrary, we think his labour has been well and usefully employed. He has enabled us to estimate the moral and intellectual state of a people, among whom Aoyar could rank as one of the seven philosophers. The first score will be a sample sufficiently large, and will justify our judgment.

"Charity be thy pleasure.
Be not passionate.
Be not a miser in giving.
Hinder none in charity.
Do not manifest thy secrets.
Lose not thy courage.
Exercise thyself in cyphering and writing.
To live on alms is shameful.
Give, and then eat.
Converse only with the peaceful.
Never cease to improve in learning.
Do not speak what is dishonest.
Do not raise the price of victuals.
Do not say more than thou hast seen.
Take care of what is most dear.
Bathe on each Saturday.
Speak what is agreeable.
Build not too large a house.
Know first one's character before thou art confident.
Honour thy father and mother."

13. Account of the St. Thome Christians on the Coast of Malabar. By F. Wrede, Esq.

Mr. Wrede is mistaken in saying that the discovery of christians on the Malabar coast was a matter of surprise to the first Portugueze adventurers. On the contrary, they went in the full expectation of finding them, and actually worshipped in the first pagoda which they entered, mistaking it for a christian church.

Much curious information is contained in this paper: The name of Christians of St. Thomas is here said to have originated with the chief who led them from Syria (for they were a Syrian colony, and are by the Hindoos most com-

Digitized by Google

monly called Surianee Mapila). Mar Thomé was the name of this bishop, the founder of their religion in Malabar, and in honour of him they always call their primate Mar Thomé, though his real name be Joseph or Abraham.

"In the Malabar histories (Keral Oudputtee), the first mention of a Syrian colony of christians is made in the reign of Cocoorangon Pesumal, who probably lived in the sixth century; a wealthy Syrian merchant, of the name of Thome Cannaneo, is said to have landed at Cranganore, where he was well received, and induced to settle by great privileges granted to him by Perumal. He afterwards married two wives; one of the Nair, and one of some low cast, by whom he had a very numerous progeny, who, after his death, had great disputes about his inheritance. They were carried to such a degree, that at last they were obliged to separate themselves: the sons by the Nair woman settling in the southern parts, and the others in the northern parts of Malabar—where their descendants for a long time preserved their mutual enmity, and would on no account intermarry: there is also a still common tradition amongst them, that they descend (at least those that are from Syrian origin) from four principal Syrian families, who had successively settled on the coast.

"We find again mention made of two Syrian or Chaldean bishops, of the name of Mar Sabro and Mar Brodt (or rather Mar Sapor and Mar Peroses) at Coilan, about one hundred years after its foundation, where they were extremely well received by the Raja, and permitted to build a church, which was still extant when Cabral first visited Coilan. The grants and privileges which they received from the Raja, were engraved upon copper-plates, which many centuries after were shewn to Archbishop De Menezes at Sevalcare (perhaps Mavileare), which are, in all probability, the very same that are now in possession of the Jews at Cochin.

"If one adds to these historical dates the name of Syrians retained by the St. Thomé Christians, their distinct features and complexion somewhat fairer than the rest of the Malabars, the style of their building, especially their churches, but above all the general use of the Syrian, or rather Chaldæan languages, which is preserved to this day in all their religious functions, even in those churches which have since embraced the Roman rite, and that to this day they take their christian and family names from the Syrian or Chaldæan idiom, no doubt can remain but that the St. Thomé Christians are originally a colony of Nestorians, who fled from the dominions of the Greek emperors, after Theodosius the Second had commenced to persecute the followers of the sect *."

Their first proselytes were made among the Bramins and Nairs, so that even at present they consider themselves equal in rank to those two casts, and are held by the Hindoos in higher estimation than the Portugueze Christians.

"As to their religious tenets, they followed generally the doctrine of Nestorius.

"They rejected the divine nature of Christ, and called the Virgin Mary only the mother of Christ, not of God. They also maintained that the Holy Ghost proceeded only from the Father, and not from the Father and Son.

"They admitted no images of saints in their churches, where the holy cross alone was to be seen.

"They had only three sacraments, baptism, eucharist, and the orders, and would not admit transubstantiation in the manner the Roman Catholics do. They knew nothing of purgatory; and the saints, they said, were not admitted to the presence of God, but were kept in a third place till the day of judgment.

"Their priests were permitted to marry, at least once in their life. Their rite was the Chaldæan or Syrian.

"They were married in the presence of their priests, who are called cassanas, and the whole ceremony consisted of tying a string round the girl's neck, as is the common practice of all the different casts on the Malabar coast.

"The cassanas were not permitted to use the Malabar language in their churches, and in intructing the youth, but taught them in the Chaldæan tongue.

"They reckoned their Sunday from Saturday evening at vespers, till the first matin on Sunday; so that after sun-rise they might work again.

"This was the happy situation of the Nestorians, or St. Thomé Christians, before the arrival of the Portuguese in India."

Yet the following tradition, which was found by the Portugueze in India, and which is not noticed by Mr. Wredé,

* "Nestorius was patriarch of Constantinople, A. D. 428, under the reign of Theodosius the Second. His heretical opinions were first declared in 429, and condemned by the first council of Ephesus in 431. But the Emperor was not prevailed on to banish Nestorius till 435; and four more years had elapsed before sentence of proscription passed against his followers. GIBBON, vol. viii. pag. 297.

"Gibbon, however (b. 346), asserts on the authority of St. Jerome himself (ad Marcellam Epist.), that the Indian missionary, St. Thomas, was famous as early as his time.—Now Jerome died in 420, consequently the sect originally established in Malabar by Thomas could not have been that of Nestorius; yet Gibbon himself appears to have overlooked this inconsistency. *Note by the Secretary.*

will show that their faith had in some degree assimilated itself to the superstitions of the country.

The Apostle Thomas had been driven from Coilan to Maliapur, and from thence, being still persecuted by the Gentiles, retired into the woods. A Gentile of Maliapur, who was hunting in the woods, saw one day a flock of peacocks on the ground, and one larger than the rest, standing on a stone in the midst of them. He let fly his arrow, the flock rose into the air, but the large peacock was slain, and immediately transformed into a man. Upon this the archer went into the city to say what he had seen. The governor accompanied him back to the woods to see this wonder, and there he found the body of St. Thomas, and the print of his feet in the stone. He built a church there, his disciples buried him, and placed the stone by his grave. The church was built like a christian church, with crosses on the altar, and one larger one in the centre, with a peacock carved upon it. It is now, says Castanheda, in a ruinous state, and surrounded with thickets, for the place is much dispeopled. A poor Moor takes care of it, there being no Christians near, and he asks alms of all who come there in pilgrimage, Christians or Gentiles, the Moors also giving to him.

It is remarkable that the legend, which is related by the oldest and most honest of the Portugueze historians of India, is omitted by their later writers, though they retain all the other tales of St. Thomas. They were evidently displeased at the heathenish character of the fiction, at the peacock on the cross, and the Gentiles' pilgrimage to a Christian church. Mr. Wredé also mentions a conformity to Hindoo manners in these Christians of St. Thomas. An Ex-Jesuit, who had laboured a long time as missionary among them, informed him that many of them preserve till now the manners and mode of life of the Bramins, as to cleanliness and abstaining from animal food, and that even he himself had been obliged to adopt the same regimen in order to gain credit.

When India was discovered by the Portugueze, these native Christians were rich, numerous, and respected. Frey Aleixo de Menezes, the archbishop of Goa, united them to the Romish church, at the famous synod of Odiapmer. After this event, thirty-two churches returned to the Maronite or Nestorian communion; about eighty-four remain catholic, under the archbishop of Cranganor. These events no way affected the estimation in which they were held by the Malbar people and princes.

"The S. Thomé, or Syrian Christians, of both descriptions, never claimed the particular protection of either the Portuguese or Dutch, as the new Christians do, but considered themselves as subjects of the different rajahs, in whose districts they lived; and, as long as the old Hindoo system, and the former division of the country, under a variety of petty rajahs, was preserved, they appear to have enjoyed the same degree of freedom ease, and consideration, as the Nairs. But when the rajahs and chiefs of Travenore and Cochin had subjected to themselves all the petty rajahs and chiefs, whose respective territories were situated within the lines of Travancore, they also overturned the whole political system established by Cherumah Perumal; and, by setting aside the immunities and privileges of the higher casts, they established a most oppressive despotism, in the room of the former mild, limited oligarchy: and we ought not to be much surprised to behold the present wretched situation of those formerly so flourishing Syrian villages, since we see the Bramins and Nairs stript of most of their old prerogatives, and subject to almost the same oppressions and extortions."

At this present time, after the manifold persecutions, oppressions, and successive revolutions, that have almost depopulated the whole coast, says the author, they are computed to amount to no less than 150,000 souls. Yet every circumstance has taken place that could distress and diminish them.

"The great number of such sumptuous buildings as the St. Thomé Christians possessed in the inland parts of the Travencore and Cochin dominions is really surprising; since some of them, upon a moderate calculation, must have cost upwards of one lack of rupees, and few less than half that sum. How different must have been the situation of this people in former times, in comparison with the wretched condition in which we behold them at present! scarcely able to erect a cadjan shed for their religious meetings over those splendid ruins, that attest at the same time their former wealth and present poverty. In the same proportion that their opulence decreased, their population also appears to have diminished. Alangada contained, before the year 1750, more than a thousand Christian families, who lived in substantial houses, of which the ruins are still extant, and bear evidence to the fact. Of those families, not full one hundred are now remaining, and them I found in the most abject state of misery. The same me-

lancholy contrast is observable at Angamalee, and many other formerly opulent christian towns and villages."

The new or Portuguezé christians have suffered the same lamentable reverse of fortune. When their own empire fell the Dutch protected them; the rajah of Cochin has now turned a great part of them out of his dominions, by compelling them to accept some trifling consideration for their landed estates, and the rest he treats, if possible, more severely than his own Hindoo subjects.

We are glad to find that Mr. Wredé designs to publish a translation of the Annals of Malabar, known by the name of Kerol Oodputtee.

14. Account of an Hereditary living Deity, to whom devotion is paid by the Bramins of Poona and its neighbourhood. By Captain Edward Moor.

"Moomba Gosseyn was a Bramin of Poona, who, by abstinence, mortification, and prayer, merited above others the favourable regards of the Almighty. Gunputy, the most common name in this country, among the many hundreds of Sree Ganesa, accordingly vouchsafed to appear to him, at Chinchoor, in a vision by night; desired him to arise and bathe; and, while in the act of ablution, to seize, and hold sacred to the godhead, the first tangible substance that his hand encountered. The god covenanted that a portion of his holy spirit should pervade the person thus favoured, and be continued as far as the seventh generation, to his seed, who were to become successively hereditary guardians of this sacred substance, which proved to be a stone, in which the god was to be understood as mystically typified. This type is duly reverenced, is carefully preserved, and hath ever been the constant companion of the sanctified person inheriting with it the divine patrimony.

"This annunciation happened about the year A. D. 1640, and six generations have since passed away.

"It doth not now appear what was the precise extent of the divine energy originally conceded; but it is inferred to have been a limited power of working miracles:—such as healing sickly uncleanliness, granting to a certain degree the desires of pious supplicants, and the faculty of foretelling, under some restrictions, the events of futurity.

These gifts appear, indeed, avowedly to have been enjoyed in a more extensive degree by the first possessors, than by the latter. The Bramins admit that the farther the remove from the favoured man, in whom the god became incarnate, the greater is the chance of degeneracy; although such degeneracy might not have been inevitable. It is therefore presumable that the early inheritors worked more conspicuous miracles than have of late been manifested.

* * * *

"The Deo is, *ex officio*, what is called a lewanna—but the term 'fool' may not, in this instance, as in most others, give the best translation of the word. He is totally unmindful and ignorant of worldly affairs—unable, they say, to hold conversation beyond the proposition, reply, and rejoinder, and then in a childish, blubbering manner. To some questions, on points of futurity, he replies, accordingly as he is inspired, in pointed negatives or affirmatives; to others enigmatically, or by benignant and indignant gesture; sometimes he is totally silent, and apparently absorbed in abstract cogitation, doth not recognize the suppliant. From such *data* is deduced how propitious or otherwise is the Almighty will on the pursuits of the petitioner.

"The ordinary occupations of the Deo do not differ materially from those of other holy men—he eats, takes wives to himself, &c. &c. like other Bramins, but by some is said to be exempt from illness; others say he is subject to bodily infirmities. So regular a life, however, in point of regimen, unruffled by worldly cares, may well ensure a continuance of health, and, in general, prolongation of existence.

"As the elder son inherits the spark of divinity, it is necessary that he also be a fool, as he hath ever proved. To the question 'Whether the second son being sane, and the other dying without male issue, the second, to whom the patrimony then descends, would become *dewanna* on his accession?' the Bramins demur: it hath never, they say, happened. God made the covenant, and the means of fulfilling it are not for man to point out."

Captain Moor visited the Deo. He asked him, what would the result of the war be between England and France, and when it would terminate. This was in January 1801. The Deo prophesied that it would end triumphantly and advantageously for the English within six moons; and he gave the Englishman to understand, that his favours and prayers had not been without their effect in raising England to its present power and prosperity. The Deo has not so much the appearance of an idiot as he ought to have; his eyes are keen, and his countenance expressive and not unpleasant; his son, however, is as stupid as beseems the heir-apparent to be.

15. Upon the Religion and Manners of the People of Ceylon. By Mr. Joinville.

This is a well-written and curious paper. We will extract from it an amus-

ing specimen of Asiatic computation, which will also explain the length of time required to ripen a deity into a boudhou.

" According to the old Singalese authors, particularly Nimi Giateke, and the Boudhou Gunukatave, Boudhou transmigrated during four asanks, and one hundred thousand mahakalpes of years, from the time he took the resolution to become Boudhou, till that when he was born for the last time according to some, or, as others will have it, till he became Nivani. To form an idea of this period, the meaning of the words asanke and mahakalpe must be explained. There are two ways of explaining mahakalpe: the first supposes a cubic stone of nine cubits on each side; a goddess of great beauty dressed in robes of the finest muslin, passes once in every thousand years near the stone, at each time the zephyr gently blowing the muslin on it, till in this way it is worn down to the size of a grain of mustard: the space of time necessary for this is called antakalpe; eighty antakalpes make one mahakalpe. According to the second way of explaining the term, it is said, that the earth increases seven yoduns in one antakalpe; but a thousand years only increase it the thickness of one finger, in the opinion of the boudhists. It then remains to be seen how many fingers there are in one yodun. The calcution is as follows:

12 fingers	make	1 vieit
2 vieits	—	1 rieene or cubit
7 rienés	—	1 jaté
20 jates	—	1 isbe
80 isbes	—	1 gaoué
4 gaoues	—	1 yodun.—About 14

English miles. One yodun is, consequently 1075200 fingers—7 yoduns 7526400 fingers, which, multiplied by 1000, the number of years, makes 7526400000, the amount of an antakalpe, which, multiplied by 80, produces 602112000000 years, or one mahakalpe. The first computation, involving in it a calculation beyond the power of the human imagination to reach, leaves us nothing to say on the subject, except to express our total disbelief of it. The second is at least intelligible, and, it will be seen, bears a smaller proportion to an asanke, than a second does to a thousand centuries."

One *asanké* is a number of years amounting to an unit with sixty-three *zeros* after it!

The system of casts which prevails in Ceylon is different from that upon the continent. The vellales, goi-vanses or lord labourers, are the first, for here the cultivators have triumphed. No rajia or royal cast exists, for no Singalese, that is, no person born of a Singalese father or mother can succeed to the throne, because no Singalese can prostrate himself before one of his own nation. If the king therefore dies, leaving no issue male or male relation, the crown is offered to some prince on the continent who professes the boudhou religion.

Neither have they a military cast, for all are obliged to fight on receiving the king's order. This is a great and manifest improvement. There exists one instance in Hindoo history of an army in the moment of success taking flight, because a few poor wretches of an impure cast attacked them in despair. Nothing can be more false and groundless than the opinions of those reasoners, who represent the system of casts as indestructible. No human institution would so soon crumble if it were wisely attacked.

" The Rodi, or Rodias, are the last and vilest of all the casts. If one should touch a Rodias even unintentionally, one is rendered impure. These wretches are obliged to throw themselves on the ground, on their bellies, whenever they see a vellala passing, who gravely walks over them. But nature seems to have come to the relief of these unfortunate beings, by giving to them more beautiful women than to any of the other casts. But many of them are forced into the harams of the great, who have laid it down as a rule, that a Rodias woman is not impure for the men of superior casts, but only for their wives."

When will the East India company be convinced that it is their ultimate interest, as well as their immediate duty, to convert their subjects?

16. A Chronological Table of the Moghul Emperors, from Umeer Tymoor to Alumgeer II. the father of the present Emperor Shah Alum, being from A. H. 736 to 1173, or A. D. 1335 to 1760. By Lewis Ferdinand Smith, Esq.

17. Demonstration of the Twelfth Axion of the First Book of Euclid. By the Rev. Paul Limrick.

18. Dagoberti Caroli de Daldorff Scarabæorum (i. e. Insectorum quæ sub nomine generis superioris Scarabæus militaverunt in Fabricii Entomologia Systematica emend. & auct:) distributio in genera proxima (id est naturalia) divisiones, subdivisionesque, instrumentis cibariis, larvorum imaginumque victu & oeconomia, aliisque insecti perfecti partibus consultis. No. I.

19. An Account of the Bazeegurs, a Sect commonly denominated Nuts. By Captain David Richardson.

These vagabonds Captain Richardson, by cogent proofs, identifies with the gip-

sies. The name Basee-gur may be literally rendered a juggler; and juggling, singing, dancing, and tumbling, form their trade, to which the women add palmistry and the practice of physic, or rather quackery among their own sex. They call themselves Mohammedans, but they have blended Hindoo superstitions with the religion of Mohammed, and also added others peculiar to themselves; for they consider Tansyn, a famous musician, who flourished under Akbar, as their tutelary deity. The writer suspects that they occasionally eat human flesh, and one of their tribes, if we may credit very respectable testimonies of the fact, are frequently guilty of sacrificing human victims to Kalee, under circumstances of horror and atrocity scarcely credible. Among such a people it is remarkable that the pantheistic faith should be found, that one spirit pervades all nature, and that their souls being each a particle of that universal spirit, will of course rejoin it when released from its corporeal shackles.

We shall copy one of the notes to this paper, containing a singular account of the poet Kubeer.

"He was a weaver by trade, and flourished in the reign of Sher Shah, the Cromwell of Indian history. There are, however, various and contradictory traditions relative to our humble philosopher, as some accounts bring him down to the time of Ukbur. All, however, agree as to his being a soofee or deist, of the most exalted sentiments, and of the most unbounded benevolence. He reprobated with severity the religious intolerance and worship of both Hindoos and Moosulmans, in such a pleasing poetic strain of rustic wit, humour, and sound reasoning, that to this day both nations contend for the honour of his birth, in their respective sects or tribes. He published a book of poems that are still universally esteemed, as they inculcate the purest morality, and the greatest good-will and hospitality to all the children of man. From the disinterested, yet alluring doctrines they contain, a sect has sprung up in Hindoostan under the name of Kubeer-punt-hee, who are so universally esteemed for veracity and other virtues, among both Hindoos and Moosulmans, that they may be with propriety considered the Quakers of this hemisphere. They resemble that respectable body in the neatness of their dress and simplicity of their manners, which are neither strictly Moohummudan nor Hinduwee; being rather a mixture of the best parts of both. A translation of Kubeer's works, with the life of that sage, and an account of his followers, relative to their tenets and societies, remain still as desiderata in the history of India. The time of Kubeer's death seems involved in equal obscurity with the manner of his decease and burial. They relate that he lived a long time at Kasee, near Gya, and sojourned also at Jugurnath: he gave great offence to the Buckmuns, by his conduct and tolerant doctrines. When stricken in years, he departed this life among a concourse of his disciples, both Moosulmans and Hindoos. They quarrelled about the mode of disposing of his remains, which were placed in another apartment during the dispute. The Moosulmans were, it is alledged, victors, and buried him accordingly. The Hindoos affirm, however, that his body, during the altercation, disappeared, and a lotos flower was found in its stead, which they have carefully preserved. Be this as it may, it is certain that his name is held in great veneration by those two very different people; those called Kubeer-punt-hee seem, nevertheless, to have rather more of the Hindoo than Moosulman in their composition, which so far decides the contest in their favour."

20. On the Burmha Game of Chess compared with the Indian, Chinese, and Persian Game of the same Denomination. By the late Captain Hiram Cox.

These comparative descriptions cannot be understood without referring to the annexed tables or plans of the game.

These are the contents of this seventh volume. As in the collections of every society, there is the chaff and the wheat together, but we have reason to be thankful for the labours of the Asiatic society.

ART. IV. *Cyclopædia; or, a new Universal Dictionary of Arts, Sciences, &c. By* ABRAHAM REES, *D. D. F. R. S. with the Assistance of eminent professional Gentlemen.* 4to. Vol. II. *from Ama to Art.*

THE first volume of this important undertaking has been already noticed by us (Ann. Rev. v. I. p. 859), and it gives us pleasure to be able to announce that the present volume is equal in merit to its predecessor. On account of the magnitude of the work, and the abundance of excellent matter which it contains, we feel peculiarly anxious that it should be rendered as perfect as the plan of a general dictionary can admit of: we shall, therefore, in the rapid enumeration of its contents, to which we are restrained by the limits of our own work, insist princi-

ually on the errors and deficiencies which have suggested themselves to us in the perusal, in order that they may be corrected and supplied in the succeeding volumes.

Among the *mathematical* articles, the first of importance that occurs is *Analysis*, in which we approve highly of the discrimination made between the ancient and modern analysis, and the recommendation to adopt "the method of the ancients in the commencement of our studies, as it serves to form the mind, and to fix proper habits, to which the method of the moderns should succeed, as it is best suited to extend our views beyond the present limits, and to assist us in making new discoveries and improvements." It is justly observed also in this article, that Newton himself investigated his theorems in a different manner from that in which he has delivered them; as they are commonly "analytical calculations, disguised by substituting the name of lines for their algebraical value." We may add, that the generally believed report at Cambridge is probably true, that the last proposition of the seventh section was one of the first discovered by him, and that he was led by it to expand his system in the manner in which it now appears. We need not add, that the investigation was made by the method of fluxions, and the fluents were afterwards converted into areas, to be visible to the eye.

In the account of the *Angle of contact*, we regretted that the demonstration was not given of the ratios of the evanescent subtenses in curves of different orders. It would not have occupied the space of more than four lines, and the article would have been complete. This defect may be remedied under the article Contact.

Anomaly is very well explained; but in this, as in several other articles, we do not find sufficient attention paid to the labours of the present generation. The problem of Kepler is of great importance, and has employed the talents of the first mathematicians. Their methods are mentioned, and Keill's is given at length; but no notice is taken of Mr. Ivory, whose very able paper upon this subject, pointed out in our first volume, deserved the consideration of, and ought not to have been unknown to the writer of this article.

A very good account is given of *Apollonius* of Perga and his work, which of course led to the notice of various writers on conic sections: and due praise is given to the very ingenious attempt of Mr. Walker to deduce all the properties of the curves, commonly called conic sections, from the 24th proposition of Sir Isaac Newton's universal arithmetic. It is rather singular, however, that the writer of this article should not have been acquainted with two other treatises of conic sections, upon a similar principle with Mr. Walker's. A gentleman of Cambridge, about sixteen years ago, brought with him from the continent the conic sections of Boscovich, with which he was so much pleased, that he drew up a course of lectures from them for the use of his pupils, which, with the work itself, he afterwards put into the hands of Mr. Newton, of Jesus College. Mr. Newton was equally pleased with the system, which he improved very much, by rejecting the musical proportion, and giving demonstrations of his own wherever they were requisite. His system was published by the university; and it is remarkable, that just as it was going to the press the manuscript of Mr. Walker was sent to Cambridge, and put into the hands of the gentleman who had brought the treatise of Boscovich from the continent, and who was struck with this remarkable coincidence in demonstrations between two writers who had no intercourse with each other. The merit of Mr. Walker is universally acknowledged, and it cannot be depreciated by this account; but it will afford to mathematicians some pleasure to compare together the different processes used by two eminent writers, from the same hypothesis, and the improvements made in these processes.

The article of *Approximation* is more defective than we could well have expected. Baron Maseres has treated this subject with his usual accuracy; but his name is not mentioned in the article; nor is the least notice taken of his tracts on the resolution of affected algebraic equations, in which the methods of approximation by Dr. Halley, Mr. Raphson, and Sir Isaac Newton are compared together, and the advantages and disadvantages of each balanced with the utmost degree of precision. Dr. Hutton is represented as being the discoverer of a peculiarly convenient method of approximating to the roots of pure powers; and thus De Lagny is deprived of the honour due to him.

Digitized by Google

For De Laguy gave first to the world the expression $n + \frac{N - n^r}{r+1 : n^r + r - 1 . N} \times 2n$ for a near value to the root of the number N, where r is the index of the root, and n a near approach to it. By bringing this term to a common denominator, we have it equal to

$$\frac{\overline{r+1}.n^{r+1} + \overline{r-1}.N n + 2N n - 2n^{r+1}}{\overline{r+1}.n^r + \overline{r-1}.N}$$

which is equal to $\frac{\overline{r-1}.n^{r+1} + \overline{r+1}.N n}{\overline{r-1}.N + \overline{r+1}.n^r}$,

or $\frac{\overline{r-1}.n^r + \overline{r+1}.N}{\overline{r-1}.N + \overline{r+1}.n^r} \times n$. This latter expression is that which Dr. Hutton has given in his tracts, but by no means supposing that he had made any great discovery, for it is merely the reduction of a fraction to a common denominator; and as, in many cases of this kind, an expression is supposed to be simplified by such an operation, this change is declared to be peculiarly recommended for practice. We appsehend that upon trial De Laguy's will be found to have the superiority. Several other methods of approximation might have been mentioned, which are to be found in the books of algebra, as that from Raphson, by which having found the small difference nearly between the root and the number assumed, this small number is used in the second power, and thus a new figure is gained with little or no trouble; and by applying the whole number found, instead of the unknown number, in the given equation, and dividing the known number by the unknown side, the powers of the unknown number being diminished by unity, a still nearer approach may be frequently made. An opportunity for introducing these improvements will occur under the article Equation.

Under the article *Apsides*, it is properly observed, that Sir Isaac Newton has shewn that when the force varies inversely as the square of the distance, the line of the apsides is stationary.; but as the equation to the apsides is easily deduced for any law of the force, we would rather have seen it introduced in this place, whence the truth of Newton's position might easily and satisfactorily have been derived. From the conjecture thrown out, that Sir I. Newton was led by Kepler's observation, that equal areas were described in equal times at the apsides, to discover that the same held in every part of the orbit; we trust that due justice will be done to Kepler in this work. His merits are not sufficiently known in this country; and from their little acquaintance with him, many lose the pleasure that is derived from tracing the progress in science in different ages.

The article *Arch* gives us the nature of circular arcs in geometry, and arches in architecture: for the former, some expressions are given without this theory; for the latter, the deficiency of this article is most deplorable. One would suppose that the writer of this article had never heard any thing of arches since Dr. Hutton had written his treatise upon bridges; that he had never been in company where the plan of a bridge with one arch over the Thames in London was mentioned; nor knew any thing of the various proposals delivered into the house of commons; or of the elegant experiments made by Mr. Atwood; or his scientific treatise, which has explained the whole of the difficulties once entertained on this subject in the clearest and most satisfactory manner. Mr. Atwood has published a treatise on the equilibration of arches, known to every mathematician probably in Europe, except the writer of this article. In this treatise he has shewn that the source of equilibration is to be found in the properties of the wedge, and has calculated the force of each wedge in the arch, as also the weight of any section of the arch. His theory also he has reduced to practice in the most elegant experiment that ever was made. A bridge of one arch is constructed of small polished brass wedges: the span is, we believe, less than a yard: the weight and form of each wedge is constructed according to the principles of his treatise, and thus an arch of equilibration is presented to the eye. To confirm the truth of it, a segment of the arch is removed, the remaining segment being supported by its abutment, and a hold fixed to a string which goes round a pulley, and at the other end of the string a weight is fixed, which keeps the segment of the arch in equilibrio. This weight agrees with, and confirms the truth of the principles derived from the properties of the wedge. But though the treatise has been published a considerable time, has been noticed in the Reviews and monthly publications, and the experiment has been seen and admired by numbers, both

natives of this country and foreigners, not the least notice of either is taken in this article; and for such silence, or strange want of information in a writer, evidently not deficient in talent, it is difficult to account. We trust that when we come to the article Bridge, the defect will be compensated by due notice of the labours and merits of Mr. Atwood.

The *biographical* articles being selected with judgment from the best dictionaries, are, of course, respectably executed; but they do not appear to contain much original information, or original remark: occasional instances, however, occur, which exhibit the hand of a master, of which the articles *Arnold* and *Arne* are pleasing examples; from the latter of which we shall select a specimen.

"The general melody of our countryman, if analized, would perhaps appear to be neither Italian nor English, but an agreeable mixture of Italian, English, and Scots. Many of his ballads, indeed, were professed imitations of the Scots style; but in his other songs he frequently dropped into it, perhaps without design.

"Arne never was a close imitator of Handel; and was almost the only English composer of the last century, who did not build his fame on imitations of his works, and who was not proud to hear his admirers say of his compositions—"'Tis all Handel!" On which account Arne was never thought, by the votaries of their great model, to be a sound contrapuntist. However, he had an inward and secret reverence for his abilities, and for those of Geminiani, as well as for the science of Pepusch; but except when he attempted oratorios, theirs was not the merit requisite for him, a popular composer, who had different performers and different hearers to write for. In the science of harmony, though he was chiefly self-taught, yet being a man of genius, quick parts, and great penetration in his art, he betrayed no ignorance or want of study in his scores.

"The oratorios he produced were so unfortunate, that he was always a loser whenever they were performed. And yet it would be unjust to say that they did not merit a better fate; for though the chorusses were much inferior in force to those of Handel, yet the airs were frequently admirable. But besides the great reputation of Handel with whom he had to contend, Arne never was able to have his music so well performed, as his competitor had always a more numerous and select band, a better organ, which he played himself, and better singers.

"None of this ingenious and pleasing composer's capital productions had full and unequivocal success but Comus and Artaxerxes, at the distance of twenty-four years from each other. Rosamond, his first musical drama, had new songs in it that were long in favour, and the Judgment of Paris many; but except when his sister, Miss Arne, afterwards Mrs. Cibber, sung in them, he never gained anything by either. Thomas and Sally, indeed, as a farce, with very little musical merit was often acted; and previous to that, Eliza was a little while in favour; but the number of his unfortunate pieces for the stage was prodigious. Yet none of them were condemned or neglected for want of merit in the music, but words, of which the Doctor was too frequently guilty of being the author. Upon the whole, though this composer, who died March 5th, 1778, had formed a new style of his own, there did not appear that fertility of ideas, original grandeur of thought, or those resources upon all occasions, which are discoverable in the works of his predecessor Purcell, both for the church and stage; yet, in secular music, he must be allowed to have surpassed him in ease, grace, and variety; which is no inconsiderable praise, when it is remembered, that from the death of Purcell to that of Arne, a period of more than fourscore years, no candidate for musical fame among our countrymen had appeared, who was equally admired by the nation at large.

The *historical* and *geographical* articles are, for the most part, satisfactory. We find a long and interesting account of *Amazons*; in which the discordant opinions of the ancient and modern writers, from Herodotus to Mr. Bryant, relative to the existence of savage tribes consisting wholly of females, are well detailed. The general account of *America* contains several errors; is diffuse on points of small importance; and most mortifyingly defective respecting the only people of any consequence, the Mexicans, Peruvians, and Hunter races between the Mississippi and Atlantic: these deficiencies may, however, be supplied hereafter. All that is known with certainty relative to the *Ales* is to be found in the travels of Don Ulloa, in Helms's Journal, and the Letters of Humboldt, in the Journal de Physique. Recourse has been had to all these authorities, and a very excellent article is the result. *Arabia* and *Arabs*, if we except a little diffuseness, are two articles of considerable merit. The *Argonautic* expedition furnished an opportunity of discussing some very curious, though obscure, points of ancient geography, of which, however, the writer of the article has not availed himself.

In the Natural History, we still observe the inconsistency which we men-

tioned in our last volum, of only a partial adherence to the Linnæan nomenclature. Thus the large genus *Anas* is converted merely into a reference, the species being described under their specific names. We turne therefore to *Anser* for the anas anser, where we found a meagre description, with a further reference to *Goose*; to *Antarctica* for anas antarctica, which is wolly omitted; to *Arborea* for anas arbœa, under which name the compleat escription of this species is placed; so that by this absurd confusion several specs will be omitted, and others referred a from article to article, to the great trouble and perplexity of the reaer. *Animalcule* is superficial, from the writer having recourse to none but Eglish authors. In the zoological article use has been properly made of Dr. Shw's work; and the botany is largely extracted from Martyn's Miller.

There is no mineralogical article of any importance; but the chemical part of the volume before us is very rich. *Ammonia*, *Animal matter*, *Antimony*, *Arama*, and *Arsenic*, are the most elaborate, and manifest in the writer extensive enquiry, and an intimate acquaintance with laboratory details.

In the department of *Arts* and *Manufactures* there are only a few articles, but these are excellent, and contain much new and accurate information: as a specimen, we shall quote the whole article *Aquatinta*.

"AQUATINTA, in the history of the arts, a method of producing engravings very much resembling drawings in Indian ink.

"The principle of this process consists in corroding the copper with aqua fortis, in such a manner, that an impression from it has the appearance of a tint laid on the paper. This is effected by covering the copper with a powder or some substance which takes a granulated form, so as to prevent the aqua fortis from acting where the particles adhere, and by this means cause it to corrode the copper partially and in the interstices only. When these particles are extremely minute and near to each other, the impression from the plate appears to the naked eye exactly like a wash of Indian ink; but when they are larger, the granulation is more distinct: and as this may be varied at pleasure, it is capable of being adapted with great success to a variety of purposes and subjects.

"This powder or granulation is called the aquatinta grain, and there are two general modes of producing it.

"We shall first describe what is called the powder grain, because it was the first that was used. Having etched the outline on a copper plate prepared in the usual way by the coppersmith (for which see the article Etching) some substance must be finely powdered and sifted which will melt with heat, and when cold adhere to the plate, and resist the action of aqua fortis. The substances which have been used for this purpose, either separately or mixed, are, asphaltum, Burgundy pitch, rosin, gum copal, and gum mastic; and in a degree all the resins and gum resins will answer the purpose. Common resin has been most generally used, and answers tolerably well; though gum copal makes a grain that resists the aqua fortis better. The substance intended to be used for the grain must now be distributed over the plate, as equally as possible; and different methods of performing this essential part of the operation have been used by different engravers, and at different times. The most usual way is to tie up some powder in a piece of muslin, and to strike it against a piece of stick held at a considerable height above the plate. By this, the powder that issues falls gently, and settles equally over the plate. Every one must have observed how uniformly hair powder settles upon the furniture after the operations of the hair dresser: this may afford a hint towards the best mode of performing this part of the process. The powder must fall upon it from a considerable height, and there must be a sufficiently large cloud of dust formed. The plate being covered equally over with the dust or powder, the operator is next to proceed to fix it upon the plate, by heating it gently, so as to melt the particles. This may be effected by holding under the plate lighted pieces of brown paper rolled up, and moving them about till every part of the powder is melted. This will be known by its change of colour, which will turn brownish. It must now be suffered to cool, when it may be examined with a magnifier; and if the grains or particles appear to be uniformly distributed, it is ready for the next part of the process. The design or drawing to be engraved must now be examined, and such parts of it as are perfectly white, are to be remarked. Those corresponding parts of the plate must be covered, or stopped out, as it is called, with turpentine, or what is better, mastic varnish, diluted with turpentine to a proper consistence, to work freely with the pencil, and mixed with lamp-black to give it colour; for, if transparent, the touches of the pencil would not be so distinctly seen. The margin of the plate must also be covered with varnish. When the stopping out is sufficiently dry, a border of wax must be raised round the plate in the same manner as in etching, and the aqua fortis properly diluted with water, poured on. This is called biting in; and it is that part of the process which is most uncertain, and which requires the greatest degree of experience. When the aqua fortis has been on so long that the plate, when printed, would produce the lightest tint in the drawing, it is

oured off, and the plate washed with water, nd dried. When it is quite dry, the lightest ints are stopped out, and the aqua fortis oured on as before; and this is repeated as ften as there are tints to be produced in the late.

" Although many plates are etched entirely by this method of stopping out and biting in alternately, yet it may be easily conceived that in general it would be very difficult to stop round and leave out all the finishing touches, as also the leaves of trees, and many other objects, which it would be impossible to execute with the necessary degree of freedom in this manner.

" To overcome this difficulty, another very ingenious process has been invented, by which the touches are laid on the plate with the same ease and expedition as they are in a drawing in Indian ink. Fine washed whiting is mixed with a little treacle or sugar, and diluted with water in the pencil, so as to work freely, and this is laid on the plate covered with the aquatint ground, in the same manner and on the same parts as ink on the drawing. When this is dry, the whole plate is varnished over with a weak and thin varnish of turpentine, asphaltum, or mastic, and when suffered to dry, when the aqua fortis is poured on. The varnish will immediately break up in the parts where the treacle mixture was laid, and expose all those places to the action of the acid, while the rest of the plate remains secure. The effect of this will be, that all the touches, or places where the treacle was used, will be bit in deeper than the rest, and will have all the precision of touches in Indian ink.

" After the plate is completely bit in, the bordering wax is taken off by heating the plate a little with a lighted piece of paper; and it is then cleared from the ground and varnish by oil of turpentine, and wiped clean with a rag and a little fine whiting, and then it is ready for the printer.

" The principal disadvantages of this method of aquatinting are, that it is extremely difficult to produce the required degree of coarseness or fineness in the grain, and that plates so engraved do not print many impressions without wearing out. It is therefore now very seldom used, though it is occasionally of service.

" We next proceed to describe the second method of producing the aquatint ground, which is generally adopted. Some resinous substance is dissolved in spirits of wine, as for instance common resin, Burgundy pitch, or mastic, and this solution is poured all over the plate, which is then held in a standing direction till all the superfluous fluid drains off, and it is then laid down to dry, which it does in a few minutes. If the plate be then examined with the magnifier, it will be found that the spirit in evaporating has left the resin in a granulated state, or rather that the latter has cracked in every possible direction, still adhering firmly to the copper. A grain is thus produced with the greatest ease, which is extremely regular and beautiful, and much superior for most purposes to that produced by the other method. After the grain is formed, every part of the process is conducted in the same manner as above described.

" Having thus given a general idea of the art, we shall mention some particulars necessary to be attended to, in order to ensure success in the operation. The spirits of wine must be rectified, and of the best quality; what is sold in the shops containing camphor, would entirely spoil the grain.

" Resin, Burgundy pitch, and gum mastic, when dissolved in spirits of wine, produce grains of a different appearance and figure, and are sometimes used separately, and sometimes mixed in different proportions, according to the taste of the artist, some using one substance and some another.

" In order to produce a coarse or fine grain, it is necessary to use a greater or smaller quantity of resin; and to ascertain the proper proportions, several spare pieces of copper must be provided, on which the liquid may be poured, and the grain examined before it is applied to the plate to be engraved.

" After the solution is made, it must stand still and undisturbed for a day or two, till all the impurities of the resin have settled to the bottom, and the fluid is perfectly pellucid. No other method of freeing it from those impurities has been found to answer. Straining it through linen or muslin fills it with hairs, which are ruinous to the grain.

" The room in which the liquid is poured on the plate must be perfectly still and free from dust, which, whenever it falls on the plate while wet, causes the grain to form a white spot, which it is impossible to remove without laying the grain afresh.

" The plate must be previously cleaned with the greatest possible care, with a rag and whiting, as the smallest stain or particle of grease produces a streak or blemish in the grain.

" All these attentions are absolutely necessary to produce a tolerably regular grain; and after every thing that can be done by the most experienced artists, still there is much uncertainty in the process. They are sometimes obliged to lay on the grain several times before they procure one sufficiently regular. The same proportions of materials do not always produce the same effect, as it depends in some degree upon their qualities, and it is even materially affected by the weather. These difficulties are not to be surmounted but by a great deal of experience: and those who are daily in the habit of practising the art, are frequently liable to the most unaccountable accidents. Indeed it is much to be lamented, that so elegant and useful a process should be so delicate and uncertain.

" It being necessary to hold the plate in a slanting direction, in order to drain off the

Digitized by Google

superfluous fluid, there will naturally be a greater body of the liquid at the bottom than at the top of the plate. On this account, a grain laid in this way is always coarser at that side of the plate that was held lowermost. The most usual way is, to keep the coarsest side for the foreground, being generally the part that has the deepest shadows. In large landscapes, sometimes various parts are laid with different grains, according to the nature of the subject.

"The finer the grain is, the more nearly does the impression resemble Indian ink, and the fitter it is for imitating drawings. But very fine grains have several disadvantages; for they are apt to come off before the aqua fortis has lain on long enough to produce the desired depth; and as the plate is not corroded so deep, it sooner wears out in printing. Whereas coarser grains are firmer, the acid goes deeper, and the plate will throw off a great many more impressions. The reason of all this is evident, when it is considered, that in the fine grains the particles are small and near to each other, and consequently the aqua fortis, which acts laterally as well as downwards, soon undermines the particles, and causes them to come off. If left too long on the plate, the acid would eat away the grain entirely.

"On these accounts, therefore, the moderately coarse grains are more sought after, and answer better the purpose of the publisher, than the fine grains which were formerly in use.

"Although there are considerable difficulties in laying properly the aquatint grain, yet the corroding the copper, or biting in, so as to produce exactly the tint required, is still more precarious and uncertain. All engravers allow, that no positive rules can be laid down, by which the success of the process can be secured: nothing but a great deal of experience and attentive observation can enable the artist to do it with any degree of certainty.

"There are some hints, however, which may be of considerable use to the person who wishes to attain the practice of this art.

"It is evident, that the longer the acid remains on the copper, the deeper it bites, and consequently the darker will be the shade in the impression. It may be of some use, therefore, to have several bits of copper laid with aquatint ground of the same kind that is to be used in the plate, and to let the aqua fortis remain for different lengths of time on each; and then to examine the tints produced in one, two, three, four minutes, or longer. Observations of this kind frequently repeated, and with different degrees of strength of the acid, will at length assist the judgment in guessing at the tint which is produced in the plate: a magnifier is also useful to examine the grain, and to observe the depth to which it is bit. It must be observed, that no proof of the plate can be obtained till the whole process is finished.

"If any part appears to have been bitten too dark, it must be burnished down with a steel burnisher; and this requires great delicacy and good management not to make the shade streaky: and the beauty and durability of the grain is always somewhat injured by it, so that it should be avoided as much as possible.

"Those parts which are not dark enough must have a fresh grain laid over them, and be stopped round with varnish, and subjected again to the aqua fortis. This is called Re-biting, and requires peculiar care and attention. The plate must be very well cleaned out with turpentine before the grain is laid on, which should be pretty coarse, otherwise it will not lie upon the heights only, as is necessary in order to produce the grain. If the new grain is different from the former, it will not be so clear nor so firm, but rotten.

"We have now given a general account of the process of engraving in aquatinta; and believe that no material circumstance has been omitted, that can be communicated without seeing the operation. But after all, it must be confessed that no printed directions whatever can enable a person to practise it. Its success depends upon so many niceties and attention to circumstances apparently trifling, that the person who attempts it must not be surprised if he does not succeed at first. It is a species of engraving simple and expeditious, if every thing goes on well; but it is very precarious, and the errors which are made are rectified with great difficulty.

"It seems to be adopted chiefly for imitations of sketches, washed drawings, and slight subjects: but does not appear to be at all calculated to produce prints from finished pictures, as it is not susceptible of that accuracy in the balance of tints necessary for this purpose. Nor does it appear to be suited for book plates, as it does not throw off a sufficient number of impressions. It is therefore not to be put into competition with the other modes of engraving. If confined to those subjects for which it is calculated, it must be allowed to be extremely useful, as it is expeditious, and may be attained with much less difficulty than any other mode of engraving. But even this circumstance is a source of mischief, as it occasions the production of a multitude of prints that have no other effect than that of vitiating the public taste.

"Engraving in aquatinta was invented by Le Prince, a French artist, who kept his process for a long time secret: and it is said he sold his prints at first as drawings. But he appears to be acquainted only with the powder grain, and the common method of stopping out. The prints which he produced are still some of the finest specimens of the art. Mr. Paul Sandby was the first who practised it in this country, and it was communicated by him to Mr. Jukes. It is now practised very generally throughout Europe, but no where more successfully than in this kingdom."

Digitized by Google

In medicine, surgery, and anatomy, a few articles of importance appear; but many which we should have looked for are referred to another part of the alphabet.

Amphibious stands, we believe, as in the former edition. It is given as belonging to natural history; but the observations are chiefly anatomical, and mostly antiquated. In some future part we have a claim to expect a much more valuable article, as many important additions have been made by anatomists since the date of the authorities here given. The whole article ought therefore to have been either entirely recomposed, or entirely referred to a future part.

Amputation is a long and important article, drawn up with much care. The historical sketch of the operation descends no lower than Ambrose Paré, the history of the subsequent improvements being included in the descriptions of the operation itself. The author (in contradiction to the assertions of Mr. John Bell) denies that Paré was the inventor of the ligature; but acknowledges the pre-eminent merit of this great man.

The first discovery of the flap operation is traced to a Mr. James Young, surgeon at Plymouth, in the year 1769, who appears to have often performed it: so that it is not the original invention of M. Verduin or Sabourin, who have both claimed it. All the varieties of the process are there described, from the best authorities. Many questions relating to the propriety of amputation in different cases are left untouched; but they will be introduced with equal propriety under Gun-shot wounds, Fracture, &c.

Anatomy is divided into five distinct articles, probably by different writers. First, the history of anatomy is sketched with elegance and perspicuity, but with a mortifying conciseness and rapidity. Comparative Anatomy is given with still more uninstructive brevity. Vegetable Anatomy is trifling, erroneous, and antiquated, but is chiefly referred to vegetable Physiology, from which we confidently expect better things. A full and elegant view of Picturesque Anatomy follows: it is addressed chiefly to the artist. Great and deserved praise is given to the muscular figure dissected for the Royal Academy by Dr. William Hunter, and the cast of it by Banks. Veterinary anatomy is the most complete, and is described with reference to the beautiful plates on this subject at the end of the volume.

In the opinion of the author of this article, the turf seems to have been a better school for the breed than the care of horses. There seems to be much justice in his observations.

"Indeed, on pursuing an historical retrospect of the state of this science in England, it has seemed to us, for the last hundred years and upwards, to have been taking a retrograde course, which we feel rather disposed to attribute to the unbounded rage for horse-racing, which, while it was of great service to the British nation, by encouraging the best breeds of strong and fleet horses, was of disservice, by promoting an artificial, vitiated taste with regard to these animals, which overawed all attempts at modest enquiry respecting their diseases. The knowledge of horses was supposed to consist in a sort of intuition, which was not to be defined or taught to others. Jockeys, sharpers, and gamblers, were supposed principally to possess this knowledge, which was all that was thought necessary respecting them, and all farther information could be of no use. Jockeys before this period were of small note, but from being entrusted with the secrets of the course, soon became engines of great importance in pursuing this species of traffic, and men at length were brought to resign their understandings to them, imagining it a subject too mysterious and difficult for them to comprehend: hence also appears to have arisen the great difficulty of founding a seminary for the veterinary medicine and surgery in this kingdom, which was almost the last country in Europe that adopted this salutary step for the improvement of the art. A more fair and candid mode of considering the subject has now arisen; and a style of writing and enquiry, which must (however it may labour under difficulties for a time) bring forth light, and, with the great improvements in chemistry, and all the arts and sciences which can promote it, will soon place it on a footing far beyond what was known in ancient and modern times."

Some very judicious observations are given on the nomenclature of veterinary anatomy; and the errors that have arisen from too servile an imitation of the human.

Aneurism is a full and very important article, containing much valuable matter in a moderate compass, and brought down to the present time.

Aphthæ is classed under surgery: it belongs, however, more to physic, and is a complete practical article.

Digitized by Google

Apoplexy, we believe, is little altered from the former edition; so that we look for more information on this important subject in the future articles referred to.

A few *antiquarian* articles occur, which have afforded us much pleasure. *Archery* and *Armour* are so excellent, that we wish they had been longer; they appear to have been drawn up by the late ingenious Mr. Strutt. A like praise and a like regret may be extended to *Arms* in heraldry.

The *ecclesiastical* and *theological* articles, *Apocalypse*, *Apocrypha*, and *Arians*, appear to be drawn up with perfect impartiality, and contain all the information to be required or expected on these topics.

Digitized by Google

CHAPTER XXIII.

EXPERIMENTAL PHILOSOPHY.

THE works included in this department of our present volume are not numerous, nor of first-rate importance; they bear, however, a considerable value, and we doubt not will be received by the public with complacence. Professor Aldini's volume on Galvanism exhibits a full detail of the wonderful effects produced by this newly-discovered agent on the nerves and muscles of animals recently killed. Mr. Johnson's laborious compilation of the scattered facts, illustrative of animal chemistry, merits great praise for its accuracy and minuteness, and will be acknowledged as a most useful body of facts and opinions by all those who are engaged in this interesting pursuit. Mr. Cavallo's Experimental Philosophy is well calculated to inspire young people with a desire of penetrating further into the majestic temple of Nature; and Mr. Accum's System of Chemistry will be welcomed by the amateur, and may be gleaned with profit by the more experienced chemist. Dr. Black's Lectures, which some years ago would have deserved the first rank among the popular systems of this science, from the delay in their public appearance, are likely to engage the attention of those principally who have enjoyed the pleasure and advantage of his personal instructions, and of those who are anxious to become acquainted with the style and manner of this eminent philosopher.

ART. I. *The Elements of Natural and Experimental Philosophy. By* TIBERIUS CAVALLO, *F.R.S. Illustrated with Copper Plates.* 4 vol. 8vo.

THE phænomena of nature cannot fail of making an impression in various degrees on every mind: some will acquiesce in the idlest surmises, whilst others, by a comparison of various effects, will be enabled to class them together, and thus arrive to some general property to which these appearances may be referred. In making this classification it will appear, that number and extension are two qualities which enter into the consideration of most of these effects; and hence, without the study of the mathematics, the knowledge of the cause of effects in nature must remain very imperfect. As many persons are unwilling to take the labour which is required to make the necessary progress in these studies, it becomes an object of some importance to devise means of rendering the science as popular as possible, and great praise is due to those who exert themselves in this manner. At the same time all readers should be informed, that not only their ideas must be very imperfect, but that they in the end take more trouble in investigating any subject in the popular way, than they would do by examining it on its true principles. Thus in explaining the motion of the heavenly bodies, the great principles are, that a body acted upon by two powers will describe the diagonal of a parallelogram, whose sides are the lines of directions of the powers; and that a body revolving round a center of force will describe equal areas in equal times about that centre. Now to him to whom parallelograms and triangles are familiar, the demonstration is simple and easy; to others the ideas must be always confused, and it will be very dif-

Digitized by Google

ficult to make them comprehend the nature of the curvilinear motion.

The author of this very valuable work has done, however, as much as could be expected from any one, for the general reader. He goes through every branch of natural philosophy, whether it can be referred or not to mixed mathematics, and in both parts shews himself eminently qualified for the work which he has undertaken. If in his text he consults the ease of the general reader, he gives information sufficient in his notes to exercise the talents of, at times, even the higher class of mathematicians.

The first volume is assigned to mechanicks; the second to hydrostatics, pneumatics, and the general principles of chemistry; the third to caloric, optics, electricity, and magnetism; the fourth to astronomy, aerostation, meteors, weights and measures. This arrangement does not appear to us to have any advantage over the common mode in which the phænomena to be explained on mathematical principles are kept by themselves, under the heads of mechanics, hydrostatics, optics, and astronomy.

The first volume begins with a general description of natural philosophy, and points out the true rules of philosophising, not omitting to hold out a necessary degree of scepticism, at the same time that the student is put on his guard "not to become a blind believer or a useless sceptick." The general properties of matter are then explained, with the nature of the laws of motion; and we were rather surprised at finding ourselves precipitated in the next chapter into the difficulties of centripetal and centrifugal forces, and the centre of gravity, which generally remain till the student has familiarised himself with the more simple effects of mechanical motion. The theory of percutient motion then follows, and we are brought next to the nature of compound curvilinear motion; in the latter of which the fourth proposition of the second section of Newton is explained. These, to us appearing very difficult chapters, are followed by the doctrine of motions on inclined planes and of pendulums; and then we are introduced to the mechanical powers, which in most books of this kind are the first things taught, and the deviation from the general method does not appear to be followed by any advantage to either teacher or learner. The chapter on compound engines and machines deserves commendation, both in itself and as pointing out fit objects for study; for many persons who pursue in theory the doctrine of motion, find themselves much at a loss when they are called upon to apply their knowledge to any practical purpose.

The very excellent work of Cotes on hydrostatics leaves little to be said on the theory; but many improvements have been made since his time, particularly in discovering the specific gravities of bodies, and the motion and properties of air, which are in this work dilated upon with great propriety. In treating the doctrine of optics, we were agreeably surprised at finding inserted the observations of, as he is called, a recent anonymous writer, concerning the inflections of light. They were published in the year 1799, and proceed, we understand, from the pen of a gentleman who studied the Newtonian theory with great diligence at Cambridge, and after an absence of several years returned about that time to this country. The observations have not been noticed so much as they deserved; the experiments are in a high degree ingenious, and the result is far from establishing the Newtonian theory. The author of the work before us makes the following remark upon the whole of this intricate subject.

"A close examination and application of this doctrine to a variety of phenomena, which have been observed by various ingenious persons, especially of the present age, render this theory of colours doubtful in almost all its parts. In the first place, it may be doubted whether there really are only seven distinct primitive colours, or an indefinite number of them, which are perhaps produced by some unknown modifications of white light. The breadths and the gradations of the supposed seven primitive colours, in the prismatic spectrum, are the greatest foundation for the above-mentioned doubt. With respect to the thin transparent plates of which all bodies are supposed to consist, we are greatly in want of experimental confirmation; and even if we were sure of their existence, it would be difficult thereby to explain, how are the fixed and unchangeable colours produced by them in all directions.—Such doubts may be seen in all the modern writers on optics, to whose works, which are principally to be found in Transactions of Societies, Journals, &c. I shall refer the inquisitive reader, who may wish to be informed on the subject, or to extend our knowledge of nature."

The passage of light through glasses, or reflected by mirrors, may fill volumes,

and cannot indeed be rendered very intelligible, without more attention to figures than will be bestowed by the general reader. This part of the subject is therefore very properly brought into a narrow compass, and the volume that might have been employed upon light alone, surrenders up one half to electricity, galvanism, and magnetism.

In the fourth volume, the system of the world is explained in the usual manner, and the latest discoveries are inserted. The addition of two new planets to the system and of the discoveries of Herschel and Schroeter, give an additional interest to this part of the work, and of them the author has very judiciously availed himself. Aerostation is well known; as to its general facts, as a science, it remains still in its infancy. The child sees its bubble rise with the same pleasure as the multitude the balloon; the direction of the progress of either still depends on the breath of the lad, or the caprice of the winds. It is, however, a curious subject; and with that of meteors, and the falling of stones in different parts of the world, will be perused with pleasure.

On the whole, the work is admirably well adapted to give a general idea of a number of interesting topics. From its size, it cannot be supposed to dilate sufficiently upon any article to satisfy the diligent enquirer; but as a book of reference, and an easy explanation of philosophical subjects, it merits the attention of the general reader, and does great credit to the author.

ART. II. *An Account of the late Improvements in Galvanism, with a Series of curious and interesting Experiments, performed before the Commissioners of the French National Institute, and repeated lately in the Anatomical Theatres of London. By* JOHN ALDINI, *Professor of experimental Philosophy in the University of Bologna, Member of the Medical and Galvanic Societies of Paris, of the Medical Society of London, &c. To which is added, an Appendix, containing the Author's Experiments on the Body of a Malefactor executed at Newgate, &c. &c. Illustrated with Engravings.*

THE impression made by the experiments of Professor Aldini will not easily be effaced from the memory of those who were fortunate enough to be witnesses of them. When this ingenious foreigner left England, he put his manuscripts into the hands of the editor of this work, (whose name does not appear) partly in French, partly in Latin. They are here all collected and published in English, and, together, form a series of most curious and interesting experiments, more surprising perhaps than were ever presented in one point of view, and affording abundant matter for present contemplation and future enquiry.

The subject being as yet but new, no more of theoretical reasoning accompanies the recital of matter of fact, than necessarily attends the researches of ingenious men; it is therefore to the facts and original discoveries that the reader's attention will be chiefly directed. A few of them we shall mention, not as an abstract of the whole, (which ought to be consulted in the work itself, and with the assistance of the plates) but as an inducement to those of our readers who pursue the fascinating science of physiology, to attend to a subject which promises so rich a harvest in an unexhausted field.

The first part of this volume treats of the nature and general properties of galvanism. The facts are reduced to a number of general propositions, each of which is proved by an appropriate experiment. In all, the ultimate object is to produce, by various methods, muscular motion in different parts of animals recently killed.

Thus the first proposition is, that muscular contractions are excited by the development of a fluid in the animal machine, which is conducted from the nerves to the muscles, without the action of metals. This is proved in the following experiment:

"Having provided the head of an ox which had been recently killed, I thrust a finger of one of my hands, moistened with salt water, into one of the ears, at the same time that I held a prepared frog in the other hand, in such a manner, that its spinal marrow touched the upper part of the tongue. When this arrangement was made, strong convulsions were observed in the frog; but on separating the arc, all the contractions ceased. This experiment will succeed still better, if the arc be conveyed from the tongue of the ox to the spinal marrow of the frog."

A real attraction, never before observed, between muscle and nerve, is proved by the following experiment:

Digitized by Google

"I held the muscles of a prepared frog in one of my hands, moistened by salt water, and brought a finger of the other hand, well moistened, near to the crural nerves. When the frog possessed a great deal of vitality, the crural nerves gradually approached my hand, and strong contractions took place at the point of contact. This experiment proves the existence of a very remarkable kind of attraction observed, not only by myself, but also by those whom I requested to repeat the experiment."

This, however, requires much delicacy and accuracy in the preparation to succeed.

Galvanism is excited by the simple contact of the nerve of an animal with its own muscle. It is thus proved:

"Having prepared a frog in the usual manner, I hold the spinal marrow in one hand, and with the other form an angle with the leg and foot, in such a manner, that the muscles of the leg touch the crural nerves. On this contact, strong contractions, forming a real electrico-animal alarum, (carillon) which continue longer or shorter, according to the degree of vitality, are produced in the extremity left to itself. In this experiment, as well as the following, it is necessary that the frogs should be strong and full of vitality, and that the muscles should not be overcharged with blood."

Many curious facts are given, to shew the general relation between galvanism and electricity; and the author inclines to the hypothesis of an animal pile existing within every animated body, and acting similarly to the voltaic pile.

In the second part, Professor Aldini treats of the influence which galvanism has on the vital powers, and under this head are contained those astonishing and celebrated experiments, of exciting commotions in the decapitated trunks, or the heads of large animals, by means of the voltaic pile conveyed to the nervous and muscular systems. The Professor has employed both the larger brutes and human subjects; the latter, criminals decapitated by the sentence of the law in Bologna, whom the alarmed and astonished spectators saw again rolling the eyes, gnashing the teeth, menacing with the arms, and for an instant resuming the actions of life.

——nova desuetis subrepens vita medullis
Miscetur morti, tunc omnis palpitat artus,
Tenduntur nervi, distento lumina rictu
Nudantur—remanet pallorque rigorque
Et stupet illatus mundo.

We must relate two of the experiments as examples of these astonishing phenomena:

"The first of these decapitated criminals, being conveyed to the apartment provided for my experiments, in the neighbourhood of the place of execution, the head was first subjected to the galvanic action. For this purpose I had constructed a pile, consisting of one hundred pieces of silver and zinc.—Having moistened the inside of the ears with salt water, I formed an arc with two metallic wires, which, proceeding from the two ears, were applied, one to the summit, and the other to the bottom of the pile. When the communication was established, I observed strong contractions in all the muscles of the face, which were contorted in so irregular a manner, that they exhibited the appearance of the most horrid grimaces. The action of the eye-lids was exceedingly striking, though less sensible in the human head than in that of the ox."

The larger animal shewed equally powerful commotions.

"Having provided an ox recently killed, the head of which was not cut off, I formed an arc from one ear to the other, interposing the pile. The immediate result was a convulsion, so violent in all the extremities of the animal, that several of the spectators were much alarmed, and thought it prudent to retire to some distance. I then cut off the head, and formed an arc from the spinal marrow, first to the diaphragm, and then to the sphincter ani. In the first case the diaphragm experienced violent contractions, in the other I obtained a very strong action on the rectum, which even produced an expulsion of the fæces."

It is remarkable that Professor Aldini could excite no contraction in the heart of any of the subjects by the galvanic pile. However, on carefully repeating the experiments, some other Italian philosophers have succeeded in this point; the heart therefore is susceptible of galvanic influence, but with difficulty.

The third chapter contains a short view of the medicinal powers to be expected from galvanism; they appear to be very similar to those of electricity. The following use of one or the other is new and singular:

"Before I conclude this article, I must suggest a hint respecting the application of galvanism to diseases of the teeth, founded on information communicated to me on this subject by Mr. Fowler, an eminent dentist in London, when the caries is concealed from the sight. Mr. Fowler employs the following method to discover the affected tooth: He first insulates the patient, and having put into his hand the electric chain, he applies a

small piece of wire to the *dens sapientiæ*, drawing it gradually over its surface; he then applies it to the next tooth, repeating the operation, and proceeds in like manner with the rest till he comes to the diseased tooth, which discovers itself by a violent pain, producing an involuntary commotion in the body. It is always remarked, that when this tooth is extracted, it exhibits a carious part not before visible. This method, therefore, is of great importance, as it frequently happens in such cases that the dentist, not being able to distinguish the diseased tooth from the rest, is obliged to draw some that are sound before he can discover it."

Several experiments on the action of the galvanic pile on the blood, bile, urine, and other animal secretions follow. They deserve to be recorded, but nothing conclusive can be deduced from them, nor is it at all certain whether the change is any more than purely chemical.

Two interesting dissertations follow, which were read by the author of the Institute of Bologna in the years 1793 and 1794. They are partly historical of the discoveries relating to galvanism, partly experimental, and partly controversial. The latter chiefly turns upon the opposite systems adopted by Galvani and Volta, the former supposing the galvanic action to originate in the living animal as a consequence of its organization, the latter ascribing the contractions only to external electricity, proceeding from the armatures, and not to any electric virtue in the animal.

Three other appendixes are added to this volume. The first contains a summary of the experiments performed on the body of a malefactor hanged at Newgate, whilst Professor Aldini was in London. They have already been published separately, but they well deserve a place in this collection.

The second appendix contains a report of similar experiments made by Vassali, Cardi, Giulio, and Rossi, on three criminals decapitated at Turin. The only circumstance enlarged on, is the much-questioned sensibility of the involuntary organs to galvanic action in warm-blooded animals. This sensibility is denied by Volta, and, as we have before mentioned, could not be detected by Aldini in the heart; however, the above experimenters fully ascertained it. They observe,

"We tried the influence of galvanism on the heart in three different ways.

"1st, In arming the spinal marrow by means of a cylinder of lead introduced into the canal of the cervical vertebræ, and thus conveying one extremity of a silver arc over the surface of the heart, and the other to the arming of the spinal marrow. The heart of the first individual subjected to our experiments exhibited very visible, and very strong contractions. The experiments were made without the intervention of any kind of pile, and without any armature applied to the heart. It is very remarkable, that when the former is touched first, and then the arming and spinal marrow, the contractions of the heart which follow are more instantaneous and stronger, than when the arming of the spinal marrow is first touched, and then the heart. In a memoir on galvanism, read in the last public sitting of the academy, I gave an account of a great number of experiments, made especially on frogs, which exhibited a similar phænomenon. In these animals I observed, a great number of times, that when the arming of the crural nerves was touched first, and then the muscles of the thigh, there were no contractions, or the contractions were exceedingly weak; and, on the other hand, that when the muscles of the thigh were first touched, and then the arming of the crural nerves, as long as the least vitality remained in the organs, the contractions of the muscles were constant and violent."

The second experiment was by arming the par vagum and the great sympathetic nerve. The third was by the pile itself, composed of fifty plates of silver and an hundred plates of zinc. Here,

"By making the negative extremity of the pile to communicate, by means of respective conductors, with the spinal marrow, or merely with the muscles of the back or breast, laid bare, and the positive extremity immediately with the heart, instantaneous and violent contractions were obtained; and the contractions were produced also when the heart was made to communicate with the negative extremity of the pile, and the spinal marrow with the positive extremity.

"We shall observe, in regard to contractions of the heart, that of all its parts the apex is the most susceptible of motion, and the most sensible to the galvanic influence: we must observe also, that the contractions produced by communication with the pile were not only strong, but that they continued a long time even after the communication was destroyed."

The last appendix relates an experiment on the transmission of galvanism through a considerable extent of water in Calais harbour.

The contents of this volume are somewhat desultory, but the experiments are so numerous, so wonderful, and so well contrived, and it contains so many curious conjectures and remarks on the theory of galvanism, that it must be

Digitized by Google

considered as a most important acquisition to physiology. Perhaps it is the corner-stone of some noble monument of human wisdom, in as grand and useful a research as can employ the intellect, and exercise the ingenuity of man.

We may add, that the plates are well executed, and the translator and editor has performed his office in a most respectable manner, that shews him to be acquainted with the subject as well as the language of the work which he here presents to the English reader.

ART. III. *History of the Progress and present State of Animal Chemistry. By* W. JOHNSON, *M.B.* In three Volumes.

THE utility of a work like the present cannot be better shewn than in the author's words.

"Modern chemistry has already thrown great light on several parts of the animal system; it has, within these last few years, commenced an investigation of several of the functions of the body, and explained the manner in which they are carried on with some degree of success. The processes of respiration, of digestion, of animalization, and the action of oxygen upon vital organization, no longer remain in that state of total darkness in which they were so lately developed, whilst the proficiency already attained in this department of the science has established the animal analysis upon so firm and broad a basis as to promise in future the happiest results. Other functions remain to be investigated, such as sanguification, ossification, nutrition, and the secretion of the different fluids; to which may be added the action of those powers that produce diseases, and that of medicines on the animal body; but it is by pursuing the same method of an analytical reasoning that their operations are to be explained, and their nature thoroughly understood. Every preparation is already made for this grand work, and there is reason to believe, that the route which has hitherto been explored will conduct the philosopher to a more precise and exact knowledge of the phenomena of the animal economy, and to the formation of a more perfect theory of the laws that govern the vital and mental world.

* * * *

"For such an undertaking a material advantage, however, seemed to be wanting: a compilation in which the enterprising experimentalist could be made acquainted with the facts and observations of those who had preceded him. It is true, several learned foreign chemists have attempted to supply this deficiency, and Gren, Hildebrandt, Jacquin, and De la Grange, have published compilations on the subject; but their plans appear to have been too limited, and their descriptions too concise: many of the phenomena recorded in the analysis of animal substances have been excluded, some of the most interesting particulars have been forgotten. In the work now presented to the public a different plan has been pursued, a more enlarged scale has been attempted, and an endeavour has been made to give the whole a more connected and systematic arrangement. For these purposes, the author is principally indebted for his information to the Elementa Physiologiæ of Haller, the Encyclopédie Méthodique of Morveau and Fourcroy, and to Leonhardi's German Translation of Macquer's Chemical Dictionary, with the excellent additions. At the same time, copious extracts have been occasionally selected from more recent publications, particularly those collections of different learned societies, to whose diligence and industry chemistry presents her choicest store. From the former, the early historical part has been chiefly taken; from the latter, the state of analysis of the present day. With such assistance, it is to be hoped, the deficiencies of former compilers may have been in some measure supplied, and the knowledge they have collected increased, by having had access to a more extensive mass of materials, and to later discoveries."

A compilation of this kind requires considerable talents. The author should be extensively read in physiology and in chemistry, and in some degree in natural history; he should have abundant patience and diligence in research, judgment in the arrangement, and impartiality in selection. Amidst the immense profusion of chemical detail which lies scattered in books of various languages, it is the most valuable present that can be made to the young physiologist to perform for him that task of selection which is so irksome to original genius, and which is rewarded with no higher reputation than that of pains-taking industry. It is therefore with great satisfaction that we find this important office performed in these volumes, in a way highly creditable to the author, who has presented by far the completest view of animal chemistry that exists, and one which is calculated to be a standard book of reference for every medical and chemical library.

The nature of the work renders any particular specimen unnecessary; we shall therefore only mention that the plan

is very simple and unembarrassed. The two first volumes are occupied with the chemical analysis of all the solids and fluids of animal bodies, including a history of every important series of experiments that have been made in modern times, and are scattered through journals, elementary works, miscellanies, &c. in different languages. Of these, the German authorities have been examined with considerable minuteness, and indeed the general execution of the work somewhat reminds us of German industry and of German exhaustiveness in selection.

The third volume examines the chemical changes that take place in the living body, of which the subjects of animal heat and respiration stand conspicuous, and are treated with peculiar care.

As the author only aims at accuracy in compilation, and clearness in description, it would be unfair to expect a different excellence; his task is well performed, and we doubt not that public approbation will bear testimony to its utility.

ART. IV. *A System of Theoretical and Practical Chemistry. In Two Volumes, with Plates. By* FREDERICK ACCUM, *Teacher of Practical Chemistry, Pharmacy, and Mineralogy, and Chemical Operator in the Royal Institution of Great Britain.* 8vo, pp. 800.

CHEMISTRY is now become a subject of such vast extent, that a familiar acquaintance with every branch of this science is hardly to be expected from any individual, nor have we yet seen a single system which has any real claim to be considered as perfect. In some the pneumatic part is chiefly insisted on, in others the metallic substances are the favourite objects, others again are principally valuable for the chemistry of vegetable and animal bodies. The *forte* of some authors consists in a clear and perspicuous account of the prevailing theories and opinions, while others endeavour to render themselves useful to the operating chemist.

The work before us is a very convenient manual for a lecturer, and will be found of equal use by the student who wishes to repeat in his own laboratory some of the most striking and beautiful experiments of modern chemistry. The first volume, which is principally occupied by caloric and the gasses, is the most useful, and contains a multitude of well selected experiments which are not generally known. The second volume, which comprehends the metals, earths, acids, alkalies, compound salts, vegetable and animal substances, &c. is much too crowded to be of any great value. The general plan which Mr. Accum has adopted, with regard to those substances that he treats of the most at length, is to appropriate a chapter to each, which he divides into two sections; in the first he enumerates the characters, and the several modes of obtaining the substance in a pure state, and the second is appropriated to experimental proofs of the various properties with the rationale of the more complicated processes.

As a specimen of the work we shall select part of the second section concerning phosphorated hydrogen gas.

"EXPERIMENT I.

"*Phosphorated hydrogen gas takes fire on coming into contact with atmospheric air.*

"This may be evinced by charging a small retort with potash, phosphorus and water, in the manner mentioned before, applying heat and dipping the mouth of the retort into a bason of water. The bubbles of the air, which come from the retort and pass through the water, will burst with a slight explosion, and produce flashes of fire in the circumambient air. A circular dense white smoke rises horizontally like a ring, enlarging itself continually, and forming a sort of corona extremely beautiful if the air be perfectly tranquil.

"The finest effect is produced when the flashes of gas succeed each other but slowly.

"*Rationale.* We have noticed before, that phosporated hydrogen gas is nothing but hydrogen gas holding phosphorus in solution. When this gaseous fluid is presented to the atmospheric air or oxygen gas, the minutely divided phosphorus rapidly attracts oxygen and kindles, setting fire at the same time to the hydrogen gas in contact with atmospheric air, and hence phosphoric acid and water are formed.

"The circular crown of white smoke which rises after the explosion of the gas, originates from the coat of water which enveloped the bubble of the gas; this water, together with what is formed during the explosion, is suddenly converted into vapour, it unites to the phosphoric acid produced, and thus constitutes the circular crown of smoke which rises in a ring.

"If a wider-mouthed phial be filled with phosphorated hydrogen gas, and left in that

Digitized by Google

situation over mercury, the gas will take fire when suffered to escape into the air by inclining the phial.

"*Remark.* This last is a hazardous experiment, the phial is often burst to pieces; it is therefore necessary to surround it with a cloth in order to avoid dangerous events. An elastic gum-bottle may be used for this purpose with safety.

"EXPERIMENT II.

"*Accension of phosphorated hydrogen gas by means of oxygen gas.*

"Fill a receiver with oxygen gas and convey into it a few bubbles of phosphorated hydrogen gas. At the instant of the union of the gases a brilliant flash of fire takes place, accompanied with a report.

"The rationale of this experiment is analogous to the former.

"*Remark.* Great caution is necessary in performing this experiment. The dilatation of the gases, which takes place during the explosion is so great, that the vessel is apt to be blown to pieces. Not more than a single small bubble of the phosphorated hydrogen gas should be conveyed into the oxygen gas at once, except the receiver be made of very thick glass.

"EXPERIMENT III.

"*Accension of phosphorated hydrogen gas, by means of oxigenated muriatic acid gas.*

"If fresh-prepared phosphorated hydrogen gas and oxygenated muriatic acid gas are mingled together over mercury, a considerable detonation takes place, accompanied with a lambent green flame and dense white vapours.

"*Rationale.* All that happened in the last experiments take place in this instance. The oxygenated muriatic acid gas is robbed of its oxygen, and becomes converted into simple muriatic acid gas; and water and phosphoric acid are produced. The evolved heat inflames the phosphorus which was dissolved in the gas.

"*Remark.* For the success of this experiment it is essential that both gases are fresh prepared. The receiver in which the mixture is made should be very strong, in order to guard against accidents.

"EXPERIMENT IV.

"*Phosphorated hydrogen gas burns with a green light in nascent oxygenated muriatic acid gas, under the surface of water.*

"Put into an ale-glass, or Florence flask, one part of phosphoret of lime, broken into pieces of the size of a pea (not in small fragments or in powder) and add to it half a part of oxygenated muriate of potash. Fill the vessel with water, and bring carefully into contact with the materials at the bottom of the fluid, three or four parts of concentrated sulphuric acid. This may be most conveniently done, by letting the acid fall through a long-necked funnel, reaching to the bottom of the vessel, or by causing it to pass down the sides of it. As soon as the decomposition of the water and that of the oxygenated muriate takes place, flashes of fire dart from the surface of the fluid, and the phosphoret illuminates the bottom of the vessel with a beautiful green light."

ART. V. *Lectures on the Elements of Chemistry; delivered in the University of Edinburgh, by the late* JOSEPH BLACK, *M. D. &c. Now published from his Manuscripts, by John Robison, LL. D. Professor of Natural Philosophy in the University of Edinburgh.* 4to. Two Vols.

THE name of Dr. Black will probably be remembered as long as the science of chemistry exists: his two great discoveries of latent heat and of the cause of that difference observable between the properties of the mild alkalies and alkaline earths, and of these substances, when in a caustic state, must be acknowledged, by all philosophers, as having communicated the impulse, and pointed out the way to the splendid investigations of modern chemistry. These claims on the remembrance of posterity could never have been set aside, even if the present publication had not taken place. Still it is in a high degree satisfactory to possess a record of them in the words of their author, more especially as we by this means become acquainted with the manner, and may form some faint idea of the effect produced by the lectures of this celebrated teacher. Professor Robison, the former pupil, and intimate friend of Dr. Black, was entrusted, by his executors, with the arduous and delicate office of revising the loose manuscript notes, from which Dr. Black delivered his lectures, and reducing them to a state proper for publication. The documents of Dr. Black's fame could not have been committed to abler hands: the volumes before us exhibit a very accurate representation, not only of the opinions, but, we doubt not, of the very words of the author; while the notes, which the editor has supplied, from the stores of his own knowledge, confer an additional value on the work.

A very interesting life of Dr. Black, by the editor, is prefixed, in which the progress of his discoveries is minutely and satisfactorily detailed, and a very equitable estimate formed of his philosophical merit. It was not to be expected that the friendly partiality of his biographer should touch otherwise than

very lightly upon the characteristic failing of Dr. Black's later years: it ought not, however, to have been either denied or justified: if a mean economy was allowed to interfere with his duty as a professor; if the laboratory establishment was scandalously deficient in apparatus of absolute necessity, what a strange proof of Dr. Black's "correctness and propriety of conduct" is it, to say, that "his house was spacious, his table plentiful and elegant, rather above than below his condition." The concluding scene of Dr. Black's life was most singularly calm and happy.

"'His only apprehension,' observes Professor Robison, 'was that of a long-continued sick bed; and this, perhaps, less from any selfish feeling than from the humane consideration of the trouble and distress occasioned to attending friends; and never was this modest and generous wish more completely gratified. On the 26th Nov. 1799, and in the seventy-first year of his age he expired, without any convulsion, shock, or stupor, to announce or retard the approach of death. Being at table with his usual fare, some bread, prunes, and a measured quantity of milk, diluted with water, and having the cup in his hand when the last stroke of his pulse was to be given, he set it down on his knees, which were joined together, and kept it steady with his hand, in the manner of a person perfectly at ease; and in this attitude expired, without spilling a drop, and without a writhe in his countenance; as if an experiment had been required to shew to his friends the facility with which he departed.' His servant opened the door to tell him that some one had left his name, but getting no answer, stepped about half way towards him, and seeing him sitting in that easy posture, supporting his bason of milk with one hand, he thought that he had dropped asleep, which he had sometimes seen happen after meals. He went back and shut the door; but before he got down stairs some anxiety, which he could not account for, made him return and look again at his master. Even then he was not satisfied, after coming pretty near him, and turned to go away; but again returned, and coming quite close to him he found him without life.

"So ended a life which had passed in the most correct application of reason and good sense to all the objects of pursuit which providence had prescribed to his lot; with many topics of agreeable recollection, and few things to ruffle his thoughts. He had long enjoyed the tender and affectionate regard of parents whom he loved, honoured, and revered; with the delightful consciousness of being a dutiful son, and being cherished as such;—one of a family remarkable for sweetness of disposition and manners, he had lived with his brothers and sisters in terms of mutual love and attachment. He had never lost a friend but by the stroke of mortality, and he felt himself worthy of that constancy of regard. He had followed a profession altogether to his taste, and had followed it in a manner, and with a success which procured the esteem and respect of all competent judges, and set his name among the most eminent, and he was conscious that his reputation was not unmerited; and with a success, in respect of emolument which secured the respect, even of the ignorant; and gave him the command of every rational gratification, and enabled him to add greatly to the comforts of the numerous descendents of his worthy parents,—heirs not only of their name but likewise of their unambitious moderation, and amiable simplicity of character."

The contents of these volumes have somewhat of an air of confusion, arising in some degree, perhaps, from the imperfect state in which Dr. Black's manuscripts were found at his death, but principally from the partial adoption of new nomenclature and late discoveries. These appear to have been inserted in his lectures at various times, as each approved itself to his judgment, while the natural feebleness of old age, added to an originally delicate constitution, disabled him from remodelling the whole into a harmonious system. A large, we will not say a disproportionate share of the work, is devoted to the illustration of the author's own immortal discoveries, which are related with great minuteness and in a most engaging manner; and it is particularly satisfactory to behold on all occasions a most happy exemption from jealousy of his fellow-labourers in the inexhaustible mine of experimental knowledge, and the most scrupulous equity in assigning the fame of great discoveries to the rightful claimants.

Digitized by Google

CHAPTER XXIV.

MINERALOGY.

ART. I. *A Comparative View of the Huttonian and Neptunian Systems of Geology: in Answer to the Huttonian Theory of the Earth, by Professor Playfair.* 8vo. pp. 256.

THE work of Professor Playfair, to which this is a reply, was reviewed in our last volume, p. 903. We there took notice of a few of the fundamental objections to the Huttonian theory, and shall therefore content ourselves with simply announcing the book that lies before us.

All the geological theories that have ever been invented appear to us to labour under insurmountable objections; in the comparison, therefore, of any two, it is easy by bringing forwards the chief difficulties on one hand, and concealing them on the other, to incline the balance to which ever side we choose.

We do not find any new arguments, or any very superior mode of stating them, in the present work. Mr. Kirwan's geological essays have been made very liberal use of, and the writer has shewn some judgment in omitting to bring forwards Mr. K.'s strange theory of the formation of coal, and certain other points, in the aqueous system of geology.

The demonstration of the falsehood of the Huttonian theory, from the diffusibility of heat, is strongly and, in our opinion, successfully urged; but it by no means follows, that fossils must have been formed by consolidation from aqueous solution in a chaotic fluid, because the appearances they present are incompatible with the supposition of their being formed by fire.

ART. II. *British Mineralogy, or coloured Figures to elucidate the Mineralogy of Great Britain. By* JAMES SOWERBY, *F. L. S.* 8vo.

WE are sorry to witness in this work the injudicious misapplication of ingenuity and talents, which we have often admired, and from which we have derived both pleasure and information. —The crystalline and other particular forms of minerals, together with their colour, in most instances may be represented by painting, and are so in the volume before us with considerable success; but the infinite gradations of lustre, the play of light, and the still more essential characters of fracture, it is utterly impossible for the best artist to delineate. Where the objections to a work are radical, it is useless to point out minuter imperfections.

Digitized by Google

CHAPTER XXV.

ARCHITECTURE AND THE FINE ARTS.

OUR intention in this chapter, is not to notice the various productions of the fine arts which have appeared during the last twelvemonth, but only those publications in which the principles of taste, and their application to general or particular cases is discussed. When, however, any work of transcendent merit appears, even though it should not strictly come within the limits of our plan, if it is calculated to be generally interesting, we shall, without scruple, take the opportunity of enriching our volume by its introduction. It is upon this principle that we have admitted into our present list Mr. Daniell's Views and Antiquities of India, as being a series of drawings that combine together masterly execution, fidelity of representation, novelty, and grandeur of form, in a higher degree than any work with which we are acquainted; and which place before our eyes, with a precision wholly beyond the power of language, the noblest specimens of architecture that characterize the ancient Hindoo natives, the Mahometan conquerors, and the present European lords of the Indian peninsula. Mr. Elsam's work on Rural Architecture, and Mr. Repton's on Landscape Gardening, are strictly within the limits of our plan, and therefore have a claim upon our notice which we cannot consistently overlook.

ART. I. *Oriental Scenery, or Views in Hindoostan, published by* THOMAS DANIELL, R.A. *Howland-street, 3 parts, 24 Views in each.*
Antiquities of India, by THOMAS DANIELL, R. A. 12 *Views.*
Hindoo Excavations in the Mountains of Ellora, near Aurungabad, in the Decan, 24 Views, published by THOMAS DANIELL, R. A. *from the Drawings of Mr.* WALES, *large folio.*

WE congratulate the public on the acquisition of a work of various and unrivalled merit: never before has oriental scenery been pictured with the vivacity, the accuracy, and beauty of nature. We are transported to another world, every thing denotes other skies, other manners; the palanquins, the elephants, and crowded retinue of Indian luxury, the naked native squatting in a veranda, or sauntering on a terrace, in prostrate adoration before his idol, or laving in the sacred Ganges;—the tufted palms, the banyan fig, parent of forests, and the impenetrable jungle creeping up the hills, and clothing the swampy margin of the rivers. Here we gaze on the gay and gilded magnificence of oriental palaces, or muse over the gigantic architecture of forgotten ages.

The views in the four first parts were taken by Mr. Daniell, with singular industry and perseverance, during a long residence in India: they contain the scenery of the country, British and Mahometan buildings, Indian pagodas, and the excavations of Elephanta and Salsette; the views of the excavations of Ellora, which form the fifth part, were executed from the drawings of Mr. Wales, who was prevented by death from finishing them himself. The whole are engraved in aquatinta, and coloured to the effect of drawings. The acknowledged skill of the painter is eminent in all the plates, and particularly because it is not obtrusive; too good an artist to seek for picturesque effects in the common arts of false lights, extravagant contrasts, and unnatural colours, Mr. Da-

Digitized by Google

nieli represents objects as he saw them, clear, brilliant, and natural; hence his views have an air of truth and accurate detail, satisfactory to the judgment, and particularly valuable where the subjects themselves are so interesting. No one knows better how to characterize objects; the animals, trees, and plants, are studies for the naturalist; the Indian sky is marked with admirable clearness, and the representation of water is almost unrivalled in transparency and fluidity. Many of the views are highly beautiful and romantic landscapes; but the circumstance that gives this work a peculiar interest to the architect and antiquary is, the detail of buildings, which are given with an accuracy of perspective, and minuteness of drawing, that leave nothing to be desired. India is indeed rich in architecture; the palaces, mausoleums, and mosques of its Mahometan emperors, may be cited as models in the splendid and luxurious style, while the buildings, and especially the excavations of the Hindoos, most powerfully arrest attention from their grotesque singularity of form, the countless labour of their execution, and the mysterious antiquity of their dateless origin.

In the architectural objects contained in these volumes, we distinguish three styles; the ancient Indian, the Mahometan, and the mixed and modern style.

The most striking of the Indian remains, the excavated mountain of Ellora is among the wonders of human industry.

"Ellora is an ancient town of the Hindoos, distant from Aurungabad in a N. W. direction about 18 miles, and from Bombay nearly E. about 230. The mountain containing these extraordinary efforts of human labour, accompanied by a very considerable degree of skill, is about a mile westward of the town of Ellora, of a semi-circular form. The antiquity of these excavations, which unquestionably must be very great, is quite out of the reach of enquiry; the use of the greater number of them has evidently been for religious purposes. Many of the statues, basso-relievos, capitals of the pillars, and other decorative parts, are executed in a very good style. The rock in which they are wrought is hard red granite: much of the sculpture is by time decayed, and many parts have designedly been mutilated, some of which have been repaired, though very clumsily. Several of the temples have been painted of various colours, and their ceilings, which have had suitable decorations, are now generally become so black with the smoke, from fires which of late years have been made in them, that scarcely any design can but in a few places be traced."

Many countries possess excavated rocks, but none comparable in extent and regularity, in ornament and beauty, to those of India. These monuments belong to a period when the manual operations of quarrying, of masonry, and sculpture, had arrived to a high degree of excellence, while the arts of scientific construction were unknown, when the priest or the monarch could command the patient industry of a thousand hands, but not the skill of one intelligent head. Excavation, however, though the most inartificial method of construction, sometimes assumes forms of scientific architecture which might mislead a superficial observer; thus the caves of Ellora and Salsette present examples of vaulted roofs and arches in basso-relievo, but it is evident that these do not at all partake of the principle of vaulting; a solid ceiling gains no additional strength by being hollowed in the middle, neither is the execution more difficult than of a flat lintle.

The imitation of wooden building is remarkable in the Indian excavations; the ceilings are seemingly supported by architraves from column to column, the vaults are sculptured with ribs, and in the temple of Viswakarma, a gallery front is copied with all the detail of beams, joists, and planks. The internal form of these excavations is generally that of quadrilateral flat-ceiled halls, one end is commonly recessed, and contains a small pagoda enclosing the idol; the pillars are elaborately ornamented, and the walls are enriched with compartments of basso-relievos, representing the various adventures and transformations of Indian mythology; here the ten-handed Rouen supports Goura and Parwati with their heavenly suite, there Budder issues from the lingam of Maha Deva. The exterior of the excavated pagodas is in the same style with those which are erected, and it is probable that the last mentioned were the models of the others, on account of the cornices and some other members which have no natural use in excavation, while they are essential in building.

Among these plates we particularly remark the internal view of Indra Sabha, perhaps the most advantageous example of Indian architecture, where elaborate

Digitized by Google

lecoration is so combined with simplicity nd beauty of form, that it would hardly uffer on comparison with the most disinguished works of art; its general form s a square hall enclosing four porticoes, broken pedestal occupies the middle, bove which the central compartment of he ceiling displays an expanded lotus. But the most magnificent and extraordiary of these excavations is the "Kaiasa, or Paradise of the Gods, and the bode of Cuvera, the God of Riches." This wonderful work bears the appearnce of a grand edifice standing in a onsiderable area, the whole of which as been excavated; its form is that of a uilding of two stories, flat roofed, with large central pyramidal pagoda, accompanied by five smaller pagodas; the ides are ornamented with rich piers and onsoles of a most complicated composiion, placed at regular spaces like pilasers, the intervals are occupied with mall pagodas, or tabernacles and staues; but its "variety, profusion, and ninuteness of ornament, beggar all decription." The basement is sculptured vith figures of elephants, lions, &c. "to ive, it should seem, the whole vast mass he appearance of mobility by those nighty animals." The interior of the emple, which is approached through seeral porticoes and vestibules, and by alls loaded with mythological sculpure, is a grand square apartment, with recess at the further end, containing he Lingam of Maha Deva, above which ises the larger pagoda. The area in hich the temple stands, is surrounded ith a portico, a pantheon of the Indian eities, whose actions and histories are isplayed on the whole extent of wall.

The dimensions of a few of the principal f these excavations will give ideas of laour almost incredible, when it is recolected that the whole is executed in granite, nd that the greater number of them are nished with the most minute delicacy and rofuse variety of ornament. Kailasa; uter area, broad 138 feet, deep 88 feet; reatest height of the rock through hich it is cut 47 feet. Inner area, in hich the temple stands, length 247 eet, breadth 150 feet, greatest height of he rock, out of which it is excavated, 00 feet. Doomar Leyna; the cut or lley through the rock to the beginning f the cave, 100 feet long, 8 feet broad, rom 31 to 61 feet high, length of the ave 136 feet, by a breadth varying from 50 to 135 feet, height 17 feet. Viswaarma, an area 45 feet square; length of the temple 79 feet, breadth 43 feet, height 35 feet to the top of the vault.

The religious *buildings* of the Hindoos have a general similarity of form, which is easily characterized; they consist of a tall pyramidal tower, containing the idol, to which is generally added a square flat roofed body, serving as a vestibule. These towers may be divided into two classes, the simpler of which are diminished by a curve line, giving the form of a truncated melon; they are in some instances ornamented with various projecting facets and carved facias; others are adorned with pannels inclosing flowers. They have a spreading umbrella-shaped termination. The other class of towers is enriched in a very extraordinary and elaborate manner, with series of pillars, cornices, niches, and statues; their shape is pyramidical, and they are terminated with a fantastic something quite beyond the power of description. This florid style is the style of the excavations of Ellora.

These remains of Indian architecture have considerable general resemblance to those of Egypt, particularly the interior of some of the excavations; in these we find the same massy proportions of columns and architraves, the same richness of ornament and profusion of sculpture, combined with the simple quadrilateral plan and flat-roofed elevation. The Indian style of decoration, however, is more florid and fantastic, the sculptures have greater variety of groups, more animation in attitude. They both astonish us with wonders of industry, but the mechanical state of the art was somewhat different. While the Egyptian transported and elevated masses that confound the mechanicians of modern times, the Indian was content with cowardly assiduity to scoop the rock and excavate the area of his temple. Their architecture has no principles of proportion and form; every Indian and Egyptian monument offers new compositions of capitals, new shapes of pillars, new mouldings and ornaments of entablatures; neither of these nations, therefore, can be said to have invented a style of architecture, and it is unreasonable, as some theorists have done, to derive from these sources Grecian architecture, founded on the principles of taste and good sense, and which has a natural origin in primitive con-

Digitized by Google

struction; individual mouldings and ornaments may have been adopted, but the style is original.

In the elaborate diversity and confused variety of Indian decoration, how shall we seize on general forms and characteristic ornaments—our readers must accept unconnected remarks and individual description. The shafts of the columns are very frequently circular in the upper, and square in the lower part, with or without bases. Many of the capitals consist of several tiers of circular mouldings: in one instance, the ashes of Ravana in Ellora, we observe volutes bearing some resemblance to the Ionic capital. Some octagon shafts occur, those of Viswakarma are quite plain, without any base or capital; but in the larger temple of Salsette the octagon shaft is terminated by a capital, consisting of a necking, a torus, and a very high abacus of several courses projecting regularly over one another; the base has the same mouldings as the capital reversed, above the capital is a plinth, on which is sculptured the figures of elephants and horses, apparently crouching under the weight of the ceiling. The plinth above the capital is usual in Indian, as well as in Egyptian remains, and is generally sculptured in both. Another member is almost universal, and may be considered as characteristic of Indian architecture: above the capital or the plinth, project consoles, the lateral ones supporting and lessening the bearing of the architrave, and that in front sustaining the cornice. This part in the excavations of Mauveliporam is sculptured with the figures of three horsemen; in other instances it is generally in the shape of a bracket. The entablatures are very simple, usually consisting of a plain massy architrave, and a cornice of one or two square members; which, with its great projection, serves the purpose, and evidently is merely a pent-house, to shelter from the tropical sun. The elephant and lion, the emblems of strength and courage, bear a conspicuous part in Indian decorations: sculptured in basso relievo, or detached from the rocks, we find them every where; they support the base of Kailasa, elephants sustain the columns of Jaganatha Sabha, and lions guard the pillars of Mauveliporam.

The Mahometan is a style of great merit, original and picturesque in its forms, regular and uniform in design, and rich in ornament. The pointed and scolloped arch, which are essential to this style, give it a resemblance to the Gothic; from which, however, it differs materially in its projecting cornices, flat roofs and domes: the two first are marks of the climate; the latter may, as is illustrated in the modern buildings of Egypt and Arabia, have originated from the want of wood in the native country of Mahometan architecture, which deficiency led to the practice of roofing buildings with stone: to do which, the vault and dome are the only convenient and economical methods. The projecting balconied windows and open cupolas, the minars and pinacles, are striking objects in these buildings. The domes are frequently contracted at bottom, so as to give them the resemblance of a pear, an instance of absurd imitation, as unpleasing to the eye as it is weak in construction. Large surfaces are generally ornamented with pannelling of various forms, and patterns, and the bases, cornices, and facias, are frequently carved with leaves. The "style of finishing which prevailed very much at Agra, Delhi, and other cities of Hindostan: before the time of the emperor Shah Jehan, was covering the domes, friezes, minars, and other parts, with glazed tiles, of various designs and colours. These porcelain embellishments were often applied with great taste, and from the richness of their colours and enamelled surface, produced a very splendid effect."

The mixture of Hindoo forms, which has been adopted in many of these buildings, does not much affect their general appearance; it is marked by greater simplicity and massiveness, and particularly by the porticos, which are not Mahometan arcades, but Indian colonades, with the cantalever supports to the entablature before described.

The Mahometan buildings in this work consist of mosques, mausoleums, palaces, and gateways. The mosques are distinguished by their domes and minars: the most striking among them is the Jummah Musjed, or Friday Mosque, in Delhi, the grand cathedral of the empire of Hindoostan, a superb edifice, of which the following description is extracted from the Asiatic Researches, vol. 4. "This mosque is situated about a quarter of a mile from the royal palace; the foundation of it was laid upon a rocky eminence, named Jujula Pahar, and has been scarped

Digitized by Google

n purpose. The ascent to it is by a flight f stone steps, through a handsome gate-ay of red stone. The doors of this gate-ay are covered throughout with plates f wrought brass. The terrace, on which ie mosque is situated, is a square of about 400 yards of red stone; in the center is fountain lined with marble for the pur-ose of performing the necessary ablu-ons previous to prayer. An arched olonade of red stone surrounds the whole f the terrace, which is adorned with oc-agon pavilions, at convenient distances, or sitting in. The mosque is of an ob-ong form, 261 feet in length, surmounted /ith three magnificent domes of white narble, intersected with black stripes, nd flanked by two minarets of white narble and red stone, alternately rising o the height of 130 feet. Each of these ninarets has three projecting galleries of /hite marble, and their summits are rowned with light octagon pavilions of he same. The whole front of the Jum-nah Musjed is faced with large slabs of eautiful white marble; and under the ornice are ten compartments, which are nlaid with inscriptions in black marble n the Nuski character, and are said to ontain great part, if not the whole, of he Koran. The inside of the mosque is aved with large flags of white marble, lecorated with a black border, and is vonderfully beautiful and delicate. The valls and roof are lined with plain white narble, and near the kibla is a hand-ome niche, adorned with a profusion of rieze work. The domes are crowned vith cupolas richly gilt, and present a glittering appearance from a distance. This mosque was built by Shah Jehan bout 1650, at the expence of ten lacks f rupees."

The Mausoleums are uniformly build-ngs on an equilateral plan; they gene-ally consist of several terraces and stories rising on diminished bases, which gives the whole pile a pyramidal effect, and termi-nated with a dome. The mausoleum of Amir Khusero is remarkable for simplici-ty of form; and that of the Ranee, wife of the emperor Jehangire, for richness and beauty. The terraces of these buildings are generally ballustraded with marble lattice-work, many examples of which are very magnificent.

We observe several beautiful speci-mens of palaces and domestic architec-ture, particularly the Chalees Satoon, or forty pillars, and the palace built by Ack-bar, which are in the mixed style of Hin-doo colonades with Mahometan minars and cupolas. The palaces and mosques are surrounded with high walls, and the lofty gateways, which give entrance to them, are a remarkable feature in Maho-metan architecture: these are piles of building of considerable size and mag-nificence; they are commonly equilateral in plan, with a very large arched gate-way in the middle, which sometimes reaches nearly to the roof, though more frequently has an apartment over it for music. The square front of these edi-fices, with the enormous central arch, and upper and side balconied windows, the terraced roof, with cupolas at the cor-ners, and the whole enriched with an exuberance of ornament, produce an effect of grandeur which scarcely any other entrance can parallel.

The exercise of the rite of ablution practised by the Hindoos has lined the banks of the Ganges with gauts or flights of steps, many of which have a striking effect: it has also produced the baolees or public baths, of which there is a fine example at Ramnagur. This is a square of buildings inclosing arcades and flights of steps, descending to a square bath in the middle.

ART. II. *An Essay on Rural Architecture, illustrated with original and economical Designs; being an Attempt also to refute by Analogy the Principles of Mr. James Malton's Essay on British Cottage Architecture, supported by several Designs. To which are added, rural Retreats and Villas in the Gothic Castle, Roman and Grecian Styles of Architecture, with Ideas for Park Entrances, a Mausoleum, and a Design for the Naval Pillar to immortalize British Naval Heroism: the whole comprizing* 30 *Plates in Aquatinta, designed by* RICHARD ELSAM, *Architect.* 4to. pp. 52.

THIS is one of the many books of de-igns that have of late years been offered o the public, which deserve attention, ather as shewing the state of public aste in architecture, than from their ntrinsic merit. Collectively speaking, they possess convenience, œconomy, ele-gance; but they frequently exhibit servile imitation and unreasonable novelty, sim-plicity carried to meanness, and tawdry ornament, while the rules of good archi-tecture are ignorantly neglected, or ab-

surdly despised. The rage for the picturesque is a mark of the prevailing taste, which has obtained the full command of ornamental gardening, and has deeply influenced the architecture of this kingdom: the avenue, the parterre, and fountain, havel ong yielded to the wood, the lawn, and the lake; and the house, no longer of primary and exclusive importance, no longer a center diffusing art and ornament over the subordinate garden, is dwindled to an object in the landscape, and made to partake of the picturesque character of the scenery. To this end the Gothic style is admirably calculated; but the monuments of this taste, striking and magnificent as they are, offer no proper models for a modern house: it is this want of definite models that has led the imitators of the Gothic style to the numberless absurdities which have justly drawn contempt and ridicule upon modern Gothic; and it will continue to be the stumbling-block of imitators, till they penetrate its elements of form, contained in its principles of construction, and cease to be the copyists of individual monuments; then we may have villas and mansions in a rational style of Gothic architecture, but not disguised into castles and monasteries.

The book before us, which contains several designs in the pretended Gothic style, abounds with the faults alluded to: "a villa in the style of an abbey;" "a villa in the castle style;" "a small house in the style of a chateau."—Away with these absurd desceptions, why should a British villa resemble a castle or an Abbey? We will, however, acquit Mr. Elsam, contrary to his own confession; for these designs are in a fantastic style of his own, and innocent of any likeness to abbeys and castles. "Two small houses in the Gothic style, with a Saxon gateway in the center." Can Mr. Elsam point out any use or advantage in this Saxon arch? We all know that ancient buildings, erected and repaired at different periods, frequently exhibit a medley of Saxon and Gothic forms; but is this to be copied? as well might we transcribe their dilapidations and water stains. Our author is fond of displaying his skill in various styles, but with singular ill success: the "mausoleum designed to the memory of the late Sir William Chambers, in the Grecian style of architecture," is both in plan and elevation, as unlike any thing Grecian as a Chinese pagoda. In short, we cannot compliment Mr. Elsam on the general merit of his labours: many of the plans are marked with whimsical singularity, and the elevations are subdivided to an excess inconsistent with simplicity and beauty. Some of the designs, however, are worthy of better company; among these we particularly remark plate 19, the plan and elevation of a villa to be erected in the county of Suffolk.

Accustomed as we are to very humble expectations of literary merit from works of this nature, we were yet rather surprised that any writer should disgrace himself with the faults of grammar and orthography which abound in this book.

The plates are tolerably drawn, and well engraved in aquatinta.

ART. III. *Observations on the Theory and Practice of Landscape Gardening; including some Remarks on Grecian and Gothic Architecture, collected from various Manuscripts in the Possession of the different Noblemen and Gentlemen, for whose Use they were originally written; the Whole tending to establish fixed Principles in the respective Arts.* By H. REPTON, *Esq.* 4to. p. 222.

THIS very *expensive*, (five guineas) very fine, and very pompous book demands our particular attention: more indeed for its tendency and probable effects on the public taste, than for its intrinsic merits. We shall, therefore, lay before our readers an analysis of its principal contents, with such extracts as will enable them to appreciate its true character, and the justice of our remarks. The work is inscribed to the king, after which follows an advertisement, succeeded by a preface: after that is a list of places referred to as examples, and next follows an introduction.

In the advertisement, the author states that

"Seven years have now elapsed since the publication of my "Sketches and Hints on Landscape Gardening," during which, by the continued duties of my profession, it is reasonable to suppose much experience has been gained, and many principles established. Yet so difficult is the application of any rules of art to the works of nature, that I do not presume to give this book any higher title, than "Observations tending to establish fixed Principles in the Art of Landscape Gardening."

Digitized by Google

This is a kind of paradox which we must leave our author to resolve. For it seems rather strange, that he should be unable to "establish fixed principles," when "much experience" has confirmed them. However, he apologizes for his inconsistency in the next sentence, by observing, that "after *various attempts* to *arrange systematically* the matter of this volume, I found the difficulties increase with the number of the subjects." This statement Mr. Repton completely contradicts in a subsequent part of his work, where he observes that "the WHOLE" (of it) "has been written in a carriage, during his professional journies from one place to another." He further informs us that "being seldom more than *three days together in the same place*, the difficulty of producing this volume, *such as it is*, can hardly be conceived by those who enjoy the *blessings* of stationary retirement, or a *permanent home*."

What can we infer from these jumbled opinions, but that the author does not enjoy a "permanent home," that he is *troubled* with too much business, that he was under *some obligation* to produce a book, and that he wrote it, "*such as it is*," in "a carriage," *or* during his three days stay at "the same place." Dr. Johnson remarks, that "whoever is engaged in a multiplicity of business, must transact much by substitutes, and leave something to hazard" Thus it is with Mr. Repton; after he has given a few directions about planting, digging, leveling, &c. some gardeners and labourers are left to execute the whole: and the present volume, we presume, was "laid out" in a similar manner; for we seek in vain for system, arrangement, or plan. It appears to consist of a series of unconnected extracts from his *red books**. This indeed he acknowledges in the following passage:

"When called upon for my opinion," he observes, "concerning the improvement of a place, I have generally delivered it in writing, bound in a small book, containing maps and sketches to explain the alterations proposed: this is called the Red Book of the place; and thus my opinions have been diffused over the kingdom in nearly two hundred such manuscript volumes. From many of these, with the permission of their respective proprietors, this volume has been composed; sometimes adopting the substance, and sometimes quoting the words of the Red Book."

In the latter end of the advertisement "*H. Repton, Esq.*" recommends in very warm terms his son, "*Mr. John Adey Repton*," as an architect of pre-eminent abilities, and gives a specimen of his designs, in a print, representing "a hall for a *gothic* mansion." This, like Mr. Repton's book, is very "pretty" to look at, but very expensive to execute, and though it might astonish the vulgar, it would offend the man of sense and taste, by being out of character for domestic architecture.

The preface professes to contain some observations on taste as relating to the laying out of grounds Here the author, as in several other places, indirectly recommends himself. "Improvements," he observes, "may be suggested by any one, but the *professor only* acquires a knowledge of effects before they are produced, and a facility in producing them by various methods, expedients and resources. the result of study, observation, and experience. He *ought* to know what to adopt, and what to reject." An artist possessing good taste matured by experience, would know these things immediately, and in the improvement of a place would not merely calculate on present effects, but would anticipate the change of seasons, and the progressive operations of nature. 'Tis not sufficient for the landscape gardener (a title Mr. R. has assumed) to plant and alter for the present times, but if he wishes to raise a monument to his own fame, he should dispose his materials in a manner, that their harmony and utility should "grow with their growth, and strengthen with their strength." By such a system the "polite art" of landscape gardening would properly keep place and assimilate with the other polite arts, which, in England, have within the last fifty years made a rapid progress towards excellence.

* When Mr. Repton is applied to for advice, or assistance in the embellishment of a place, he generally charges five guineas a day for travelling expences, a certain sum per day whilst visiting the party, and afterwards forty, fifty, or sixty guineas for a "Red Book." This book contains his opinions and observations on the present, and improvable state of the ground, and his recommended alterations are displayed in two drawings, one representing its present state, and the other what it would be when completed, if seen in an advantageous light, and with the accidental grouping of cattle, deer, &c. in certain situations.

Digitized by Google

Recurring to Mr. Repton's observations on taste, and after attentively reading his few cursory remarks, we were greatly disappointed; for we sought in vain for some new ideas, or a new illustration of those already published The author has however contrived a singular mode of giving his opinions, by a series of negative axioms; a plan which he adopts, he says, to avoid giving offence to those persons who may differ from him in opinion. "At the same time," he remarks, "I am conscious my opinion may, in some cases, be deemed *wrong*. The same motives which induce me to mention what I recommend, will also justify me in mentioning what I disapprove; a few observations are, therefore, subjoined to mark those errors or absurdities in modern gardening and architecture, to which I have never willingly subscribed, and from which it will easily be ascertained how much of what is called the improvement of any place in the list, may properly be attributed to my advice. It is rather upon *my opinions in writing*, than on the partial and *imperfect manner*, in which my plans have sometimes been executed, that I wish my fame to be established."

Mr. Repton's picturesque maxims are to be inferred from the ten following *objections*, as he terms them, though we cannot perceive the strict application of the term to some of the sentences.

OBJECTIONS.

No. 1. "There is no error more prevalent in modern gardening, or more frequently carried to excess, than taking away hedges to unite many small fields into one extensive and naked lawn, before plantations are made to give it the appearance of a park, and where ground is subdivided by sunken fences, imaginary freedom is dearly bought at the expence of actual confinement."

No 2. "The baldness and nakedness round a house is part of the same mistaken system, of concealing fences to gain extent. A palace, or even an elegant villa, in a grass field, appears to me incongruous; yet I have seldom had sufficient influence to correct this common error."

No. 3. "An approach which does not evidently lead to the house, or which does not take the shortest course cannot be right."

No. 4. "A poor man's cottage, divided into what is called a pair of lodges, is a mistaken expedient to mark importance in the entrance to a park."

No. 5. "The entrance gate should not be visible from the mansion, unless it opens into a court yard."

No. 6. "The plantation surrounding a place, called a Belt, I have never advised; nor have I ever willingly marked a drive, or walk, completely round the verge of a park, except in small villas, where a dry path round a person's own field is always more interesting to him than any other walk."

No. 7. "Small plantations of trees surrounded by a fence, are the best expedients to form groups, because trees planted singly seldom grow well; neglect of thinning and removing the fence, has produced that ugly deformity called a clump."

No. 8. "Water on an eminence, or on the side of a hill, is among the most common errors of Mr. Brown's followers: in numerous instances I have been allowed to remove such pieces of water from the hills to the valleys; but in many my advice has not prevailed."

No. 9. "Deception may be allowable in imitating the works of nature; thus artificial rivers, lakes, and rock scenery, can only be great by deception, and the mind acquiesces in the fraud after it is detected: but in works of art every trick ought to be avoided. Sham churches, sham ruins, sham bridges, and every thing which appears what it is not, disgusts when the trick is discovered."

No. 10. "In buildings of every kind the character should be strictly observed. No incongruous mixture can be justified. To add Grecian to Gothic, or Gothic to Grecian is equally absurd; and a sharp pointed arch to a garden gate, or a dairy window, however frequently it occurs, is not less offensive than Grecian architecture, in which the standard rules of relative proportions are neglected or violated.

"The perfection of landscape gardening consists in the fullest attention to these principles, Utility, Proportion, and Unity or harmony of parts to the whole."

We now come to the body of the work, the first chapter of which contains a few remarks on general principles, utility, and scale, with various examples of comparative proportion. The use of perspective is shown, and several examples of removing earth are adduced. The two first sentences in this chapter we lay before our readers to exercise their sagacity, for we have vainly endeavoured to comprehend the author's meaning.—"The theory and practice of landscape-gardening have seldom fallen under the consideration of the same author, because those who have delivered their opinions in writing on this art have had little practical experience, and few of its professors have been able to deduce their rules from theoretical principles. To such persons (what persons?) had its practice been committed, that it required no common degree of fortitude and perseverance to elevate the art of landscape-gardening to its proper rank, and

among those which distinguish the pleasures of civilized society from the pursuits of savage and barbarous nations." We would ask Mr. Repton, what is the reason that other professors besides himself, could not take advantage of theoretical principles? Some gentlemen we know, have not disdained to read and profit by the works of Whateley, Mason, G. Mason, Walpole, Delille, Price, Gilpin, Knight, Sir William Chambers, &c. all of whom have displayed considerable taste and judgment in their observations on those scenes of nature, which are characterised by beauty, picturesqueness, or sublimity; and from some of whose works we derive more information on these subjects than from Mr. Repton's book. But our author seems too confident in his own taste and science to benefit by the advice of others; especially from some of these writers who, inculcating principles diametrically opposite to those espoused by him, we are not surprised at his disdaining their suggestions. Mr. R. wishes to make the scenery *pretty*, and wherever a rugged inequality presents itself, the axe and shovel are directed to the smoothing operations. In the first chapter many examples of this kind are produced from the grounds at the Fort near Bristol, from Wentworth House, and some other places. In the second chapter Mr. R. prints a letter, which, he says, is written by "one of the most able men of the age," upon the question, "At what distance does any object appear at its greatest height?"

The third chapter descants on the situation and character of water, stating that, "it may be too naked or too much clothed." It farther remarks that, "a river is easier to imitate than a lake—and that a bubbling spring may be imitated." The two following chapters treat of planting, with the different and diversified effects that can be, and are produced by clumps, combination of masses to produce great woods, and on the character and shape of ground which ought to be studied to produce the most beautiful effects. This will not be doubted by any man of observation, nor will he object to many other similar maxims. In this part of the work, is a minute detail of the drive, or park-road at Bulstrode, whose noble proprietor, the Duke of Portland, first patronized, and lifted our author into notice. In the subsequent pages are detailed a variety of plans, the execution of which is calculated, according to our author's opinion, to produce beauty, elegance, and utility in the mansions and grounds of opulent landholders. The roads, walks, drives, lawns, waters, plantations, buildings, grounds, are all respectively considered; and in treating of each, the author endeavours to shew what is conformable, or in opposition to taste and beauty.

Even if we fully acknowledged the judgment of the author, and admitted his pretensions to sound taste, we should read his work with perpetual disgust, being constantly reminded, that any improvement and embellishment is only to be effected by *himself*. This is the continued theme, and we are repeatedly told, that no other person has combined *theory* with *practice*; consequently no other is competent to dress out nature in her most beautiful and captivating apparel. All his "Observations on Modern Gardening" tend to this one point—that H. Repton, esq. of Hare-street, near Romford, Essex, is the only scientific "landscape gardener" in Great Britain, and, that gentlemen who wish to have their parks and gardens beautified, or even want elegant and *appropriate mansions* for those parks, cannot display greater judgment than by applying to the man who has had "a *very large portion* of English scenery committed to his care for improvement."

In the preceding observations we have mostly dwelt on the defects of this volume; the pleasanter part of our duty remains behind. As a specimen of the best style and best taste of our author, we gladly extract the following passages which occur in his red-book at Corsham-house, Wiltshire, the magnificent seat of Paul Cobb Methuen, Esq.

"The following extract," he observes, "may serve to exemplify the impropriety of improving the grounds without previous attention to the style, character, and situation of the house.

"At the time Corsham-house was erected, instead of the modern houses now placed in the centre of parks, distant from every other habitation, it was the glory and pride of an English baron to live in or near the town or village which conferred its title on his palace, and often on himself. Nor was the proximity of the village attended with any inconvenience, so long as the house was disjoined from it by ample court-yards, or massive gates; some of its fronts might look into a garden, lawn, or park, where the neighbours could not intrude. Yet, even these views, in some

instances, were confined, formal, and dull, by lofty walls and clipped hedges.

"In determining the situation for a new house, it may often be advisable to place it at a distance from other habitations, that the modern taste for freedom and extent may be gratified; but in accommodating plans of improvement to houses already built, it requires due consideration how far such taste should be indulged, otherwise we may be involved in difficulties and absurdities; for it is not uncommon to begin, by removing walls which conceal objects far more offensive than themselves.

"When additions or alterations are made to an old house, internal convenience and improvement should certainly be the first objects of consideration; yet the external appearance and character must not be neglected. This is a circumstance which our ancestors seem to have little regarded, for we frequently distinguish the dates of additions to buildings by the different styles of architecture; and hence it often happens, that a large old house consists of discordant parts mixed together, without any attempt at unity either in date or character of building. This was of less consequence, when each front, surrounded by its court or parterre, became a separate and entire object; but since modern gardening, by removing those separations, has enabled us to view a house at the angle, and at once to see two fronts in perspective, we become disgusted by any want of unity in the design.

"The south front of Corsham is of the style called Queen Elizabeth's gothic, although rather of the date of King James. The north front is of Grecian architecture.

"The east front is in a correct, but heavy style of architecture; and to alter the old south front in conformity to it, would not only require the whole to be entirely rebuilt, but make an alteration of every room in that part of the house unavoidable. This not according with the intention of the proprietor of Corsham-house, the original south front becomes the most proper object for imitation.

"A house of Grecian architecture, built in a town, and separated from it only by a court-yard, always implies the want of landed property; because, being evidently of recent erection, the taste of the present day would have placed the house in the midst of a lawn or park, if there had been sufficient land adjoining; while the mansions built in the Gothic characters of Henry VIII, Elizabeth, and James, being generally annexed to towns or villages, far from impressing the mind with the want of territory, their size and grandeur, compared with other houses in the town, imply that the owner is not only the lord of the surrounding country, but of the town also.

"The valuable and celebrated collection of pictures at Corsham-house, in a modern Grecian edifice, might appear recent, and not the old inhabitants of an ancient mansion, belonging to a still more ancient family; and although Grecian architecture may be more regular, there is a stateliness and grandeur in the lofty towers, the rich and splendid assemblage of turrets, battlements, and pinnacles, the bold depth of shadow produced by projecting buttresses, and the irregularity of outline in a large Gothic building, unknown to the most perfect Grecian edifice.

"Gothic structures may be classed under three heads, viz. the Castle Gothic, the Church Gothic, or the House Gothic: let us consider which is the best adapted to the purposes of a dwelling.

"The Castle Gothic, with few small apertures and large masses of wall, might be well calculated for defence, but the apartments are rendered so gloomy, that it can only be made habitable by enlarging and increasing these apertures, and in some degree sacrificing the original character to modern comfort.

"The more elegant Church Gothic consists in very large apertures with small masses or piers: here the too great quantity of light requires to be subdued by painted glass; and however beautiful this may be in churches, or the chapels and halls of colleges, it is seldom applicable to a house, without such violence and mutilation, as to destroy its general character; therefore, a Gothic house of this style would have too much the appearance of a church; for, I believe, there are no large houses extant of earlier date than Henry VIII, or Elizabeth, all others being either the remains of baronial castles or conventual edifices.

"At the dissolution of the monasteries by Henry VIII, a new species of architecture was adopted, and most of the old mansions now remaining in England were either built or repaired, about the end of that reign, or in the reign of Queen Elizabeth: hence it has acquired in our days the name of Elizabeth's Gothic; and although in the latter part of that reign, and in the unsettled times which followed, bad taste had corrupted the original purity of its character, by introducing fragments of Grecian architecture in its ornaments, yet the general character and effect of those houses is perfectly Gothic; and the bold projections, the broad masses, the richness of their windows, and the irregular outline of their roofs, turrets, and tall chimnies, produce a play of light and shadow wonderfully picturesque, and, in a painter's eye, amply compensating for those occasional inaccuracies urged against them as specimens of regular architecture.

"Although the old south front should be the standard of character for the new elevations of Corsham-house, yet I hold it not only justifiable, but judicious, in the imitation of any building, to omit whatever is spurious and foreign to its character, and supply the places of such incongruities from the purest example of the same age. For this reason, in the plans delivered, the Grecian mouldings are omitted, which the corrupt taste of King James's time had introduced,

and the true Gothic mouldings of Elizabeth's reign are introduced.

"The turrets, chimney shafts, and oriels, will be found in the examples of Burleigh, Blickling, Hampton Court, Hatfield, &c. or in most of the buildings of Henry the VIIIth and Elizabeth. The centre of the north front, although of the same character, being in imitation of a building somewhat earlier than Elizabeth, together with the peculiarity of its form, it is necessary to describe why it has been adopted. Here another principle arises, viz. that in designing any Gothic building, it is presumed that some fragments exist of the style we propose to imitate, otherwise it ceases to be an imitation.

"In pursuance of this principle, We * looked for an instance of an octangular room projecting beyond the general line of the wall, in some building of that date. The chapel of Henry VIII, at Westminster, though not an octagon, was the only projecting regular polygon; this therefore became our model for the centre room of the north front, and this example not only furnished a precedent for a projecting room, but other parts of its composition peculiarly suited our situation."

This volume is ornamented with about forty plates, one of which is a portrait of the author, and the others are chiefly aquatint-coloured prints, with strips of paper, or flaps. Some of these are drawn with taste, and many of the proposed alterations appear to be very judicious. Upon the whole, we can safely recommend this volume to the attentive perusal of men of discrimination, who may derive both information and amusement from its contents; and if Mr. R. publishes again, we would recommend a little modesty and humility, in the full persuasion that it will by no means depreciate his works.

* "In speaking of this house I use the plural number, because the plans were the joint efforts of a connexion and confidence which then so intimately existed between Me and another professional person, that it is hardly possible to ascertain to whom belongs the chief merit of the design. Yet I claim to myself all that relates to the reasoning and principles on which the character of the house was adopted: to my son's knowledge and early study of the antiquities of England, may justly be attributed a full share of the general effect and proportions of the buildings; but we did not direct the execution of the work." This passage is strikingly characteristic of the arrogance which we complain of. We have been informed that Mr. Nash was employed as architect to this mansion, and that his designs were approved by the proprietor.

Digitized by Google

CHAPTER XXVI.

BIBLIOGRAPHY.

ART. I. *Bibliographia Poetica. A Catalogue of English Poets of the 12th, 13th, 14th, 15th, and 16th Centuries, with a short Account of their Works.* 8vo.

THIS article is the production of the late Mr. Joseph Ritson. The poets of England, from the earliest ages, are alphabetically arranged under the several centuries in which they flourished. To each name is subjoined, the year of the poet's birth, and of his death, where these could be ascertained, and an account of his works with the date of publication. Where the poems mentioned exist only in MS, or are very scarce, the reader is usually informed in whose possession they are to be found. This book, therefore, forms a manual which every antiquary and collector ought to possess, and which is indeed, indispensable to all who would study our ancient literature. The well known industry of the editor, insures the accuracy of information, which perhaps few, save himself, would have had patience to collect. It must mortify, or appal the poetical adventurer, to see how many hundreds of his predecessors survive only in such brief memorials as this.

Nixon, Anthony, wrote "The Christian Navy, wherein is playnely described the perfect course to sayle to the haven of happinesse," 1602, 4to. p. 287.—Even we ourselves, reviewers though we be, and little used to the melting mood, could scarce refrain from sighing, when we considered how few names of Mr. Ritson's long catalogue, have been rescued from the gulf of oblivion.

Son, come i Cigni, anco i Poeti rari
Poeti che non sian del nome endegni
Si perche il ciel de gli uomini preclari
Non pate mai, che troppa copia regni
Si per gran colpa de i Signori avari
Che lascian' mendicare i sacri ingegni.
ARIOSTO.

The information contained in Mr. Ritson's catalogue, is uncommonly minute and extensive. Some inaccuracies must necessarily be found in so laborious an investigation. Thus, Mr. Ellis is charged with having adopted, without authority, the anecdote of Chaucer's being fined two shillings for beating a Franciscan Friar in Fleet-street, which is termed a *hum* of Thomas Chatterton. In a subsequent note, Mr. Ritson acknowledges that this *hum* is as old as Fuller's Church History, and he might have added, that Speght quotes it on the authority of Mr. Buckely, whom he avers to have seen the record of the Inner Temple, where the fine is entered. Mr. Ritson seems also to have fallen into a mistake concerning the person alluded to, in the following beautiful verses on the death of Spenser, which we willingly embrace this opportunity of inserting.

"—Witness our Colin; whom though all the Graces
And all the Muses nurst; whose well-taught song
Parnassus' self, and Glorian embraces,
And all the learned, and all the shepherd throng.
Yet all his hopes were cross'd, all suits denied,
Discouraged, scorn'd, his writings vilifyed;
Poorly (poor man) he lived, poorly (poor man) he died.

" And had not that great Hart (whose honoured head
Ah lies full low), piti'd thy woful plight,
There thou hadst been unwept, unburied,
Unblest, nor graced with any common rite.
Yet shalt thou live, when thy great foe shall sink
Beneath his mountain tomb, whose fame shall stink,
And Time his blacker name shall blure with blackest ink."

Mr. Ritson conceives that Daniel, the author of these verses, has found another

patron for Spenser's remains, than the earl of Essex, who, according to Camden's authority, rendered them the last honours. To us, it is clear, that Essex, and no other, is meant by the *great Hart*, a common way of spelling heart, as is obvious from the antithesis to head, and from the pathetic allusion to the disastrous fate of the gallant earl. But although we notice these trivial inaccuracies, they are such as must necessarily occur in a long treatise concerning a variety of obscure topics.

We now and then observe some specimens of Mr. Ritson's vein of satire, though the subject was sufficiently unfavourable for its display. In his aversion to churchmen, he descends to invective against poor Lydgate, whom he terms a voluminous prosaic and drivelling monk, his works stupid and disgusting productions, which by no means deserve the name of poetry, and himself a still more stupid and disgusting author, who disgraces the name and patronage of his master, Chaucer. Few Englishmen of the old stamp, will relish Mr. Ritson's character of queen Bess, and of her writings, which he terms most abominable compositions, "the muses having favoured her just as much as Venus or Diana." In a subsequent passage, the said venerable and royal virgin is termed "a green-eyed monster, the illegitimate spawn of a bloody and lustful tyrant, who not only imprisoned that most beautiful and accomplished princess, (to whom she had hypocritically and seductively offered a refuge), for the eighteen best years of her life and reign, but upon the falsest suggestions, and the grossest forgeries, with a savage and malignant cruelty, unparalleled even in the furies or gorgons of antiquity, deprived of crown and kingdom, and deliberately shed the sacred and precious blood of her nearest relation, and even the presumptive heir to her own realm, to which, in fact, she had a better title than herself," p. 306. What would an "old courtier of the queen" have said to such blasphemy?

We must not omit to notice that this work is written in a strange perverted kind of orthography, which Mr. Ritson, for reasons best known to himself, thought proper to adopt in his later publications. We can neither discover reason nor analogy in the peculiarities of writing *mister* for master, i for I, doubling the e in the termination of some words, and clipping off a l from that of others, any more than in making the small s face about and march before the large one, instead of following humbly in the rear, as in the usual mode of printing. But we need not exclaim against innovations, which in all probability will die with their inventor.

Mr. Ritson had prepared for the press, previous to his death, a catalogue of Scottish poets, intended as a companion to the Bibliographia Poetica; and we understand there is a design of giving it to the public. We now take leave of the laborious Ritson. With all his wayward humours and peculiarities, we venture to prophecy that the post which he held among our investigators of antiquity, will neither be speedily nor easily filled.

ART. II. *A Bibliographical Dictionary, containing a chronological Account, alphabetically arranged, of the most scarce, curious, useful, and important Books in all Departments of Literature, which have been published in Latin, Greek, Coptic, Hebrew, Samaritan, &c.* Vols. 2, 3, 4. 8vo. pp. 912.

IN an advertisement prefixed to the fourth volume, the author appears to advert in terms of some dissatisfaction, to the account which was given in our last review (p. 537) of the former volume of his work. We beg leave to assure him that no part of that article was intended to be offensive to his feelings, and that it is our wish, cautiously to abstain from any expressions which can be justly considered as possessing that tendency.

With reference to the writers "*de re rustica*," we are still of opinion, that if it was proper to mention three inferior editions of the collection of those authors, it was proper to mention a greater number; and that this arrangement would also have been preferable to any other, for this obvious reason, that, if the writers are classed separately, as they are usually printed together, the editions must either be assigned arbitrarily, some to one author, and others to another, or must improperly, and inconveniently be repeated under different heads. But enough on a topic of but little moment. We would, however, recommend the editor, in future volumes of his work, to write Palladius, and not Palladio, as it has hitherto appeared.

We are sorry if we have under-rated the difficulties with which the editor has

had to contend; we should have wished to have seen his work rather more accurate, but are very willing to admit his profession, when he says that he labours intensely to make the inaccuracies as few as possible; and we believe that on the whole the present volumes are more correct than that which preceded them.

Vol. ii. p.112. In a passage, perhaps extracted from Dr. Harwood, the merits of Rhodomannus and Dausqueius, in their notes on Q. Calaber, are not estimated with sufficient discrimination. The annotations of the former are, in fact, of great merit, and those of the latter, in a critical view, of much inferior value.

P. 117. The anonymous edition of Callimachus at London in 1741, is, we believe, by T. Bentley, nephew of Dr. Richard Bentley. The annotations of the latter on Callimachus, appeared nearly half a century before.

In p. 154, Heyne's third improved edition of Tibullus in 1798, may be added.

Vol. iii. p. 129. An edition of Dion Chrysostom is mentioned, of the date of 1476. We are aware that De Bure gives the same account; we are aware also of the danger in many cases, of opposing probabilities to statements of facts. That an edition, of a voluminous sophist, should have preceded by twelve years the publication of Homer, or any other considerable work of Greek literature, would however, be a singular phænomenon in the history of learning. If such a book exist, it was unknown to Reiske, Morelli, and other writers. If there is any foundation for the account, perhaps some single oration of Dion may have been published that year as a praxis. Reiske's edition is here omitted; we observe, however, that it is afterwards noticed among the classic authors published by that editor.

P. 197. There is no entire edition of Euripides, printed literis majusculis. The edition which is here imperfectly described, is the same with that which occurs afterwards in p. 202, consisting of four plays. The plays published by Mr. Porson should have been mentioned. Dr. Harwood's disgraceful criticism of Musgrave's Euripides deserved severer censure.

Errors in dates may often be attributed to the printer; they are, we believe, in these volumes less frequent than in the first, we mention one, occurring in the last page of the fourth volume, merely because the book to which the article refers, happens to lie before us. This is the first edition of Gildas, printed in 1525 (not 26); a dedication is prefixed from Polydore Virgil, the editor, to Bishop Tonstall, dated viii Iduum April. 1525, Londini.

That a bibliographical work of this extent should have made its appearance in a provincial town, we regard as at least a pleasing proof of the spread of a literary taste, a result of the same spirit which produced the liberal and munificent institution of the Athenæum. We trust that our second commercial town will soon become no less distinguished, by the cultivation of letters and the sciences, than it already is by its opulence, and the mercantile enterprize of its inhabitants.

ERRATA—In the Law Chapter, the Title of Art. III. p. 808, should be "*The Continuation of a Digeſt of Statute Law*, by Thomas Walter Williams, Eſq. Vol. III."
Same Chapter, p. 815, read the Title of Art. XVI. "*An Abridgment of Caſes argued and determined in the Courts of Law during the Reign of his preſent Majeſty*, by T. W. Williams. Vol. V."

Digitized by Google

INDEX

OF

NAMES AND REMARKABLE PASSAGES, &c.

	Page
ACCUM's Chemistry — —	923
Addington's Right Hon. H. Speech —	330
Addisoniana — — —	685
Address from the Society for the Suppression of Vice — — —	187
Adolphus's History of France —	266
Aikin's Letters to a young Lady on English Poetry — — —	650
Aikin's General Biography — —	507
Aldini on Galvanism — —	919
Allingham's Mrs. Wiggins — —	595
Allingham's Hearts of Oak — —	596
Amelia Mansfield — —	611
Anderson's, Dr. Patent Hot-house —	708
Anstie on Machinery in Woollen Manufactory — — —	369
Answer to Cursory Remarks —	845
Appeal to the Archbishops and Bishops	218
Appeal against the Ambition of Bonaparte	335
Arms born by the principal Families of the United Kingdom — —	661
Asiatic Researches — —	898
Astle's Origin and Progress of Writing	623
Badger's, Charlotte, Friendly Admonitions	449
Barrister's Directions for the Student in Divinity — — —	187
Barber's Tour through South Wales	412
Barclay's New Anatomical Nomenclature	761
Barre's History of the French Consulate	510
Bates's Rural Philosophy —	183
Barrington's History of New South Wales	54
——— Account of a Voyage to New South Wales — — —	54
Bayley's Poems — —	546
Beddoes's Hygeia — —	738
Bell's, Charles, Anatomy — —	766
Bell's, Charles, Plates of the Nerves —	771
Beresford's Translation of the Life of General de Zieten — —	480
Belsham's Fast-day Sermon —	181
Bentley on the Divine Logos —	154
Bibliographical Dictionary — —	939
Bidlake's Sermon — —	188
Birch on Medical Electricity — —	792
Bissett's Reign of George III. —	239
Blackburne on Scarlet Fever —	788
Blaine on the Diseases of Horses and Dogs	805
Blair's Anthropology — —	774
Blair's Soldier's Friend — —	774
Blegborough on the Air Pump Vapour Bath	779
Black's, Dr. Lectures on Chemistry —	924
Bloomfield's, Nathaniel, Poems —	585
Blunt's Letters to Granville Sharp —	135
Boaden's Maid of Bristol — —	595
Boaden's Voice of Nature — —	ibid
Booker's Calisto — — —	564
Bowles's Picture, a Poem — —	582
Bristed's Tour through Part of the Highlands of Scotland — —	408
Button and Brayley's Beauties of England and Wales — — —	423
Broadhurst's Sermon — — —	176
Brougham's Enquiry into Colonial Policy	323
Bruce's Introduction to Geography and Astronomy — — —	454
Brown's, Dr. Sermons — —	154
Bryant's Observations upon Scripture	125
Buchan's Advice to Mothers —	754
Buddo's Essays and Sermons —	169
Bulkley's Notes on the Bible —	123
Burdin's Course of Medical Studies —	758
Burney's History of Discoveries in the S. Sea	3
Bulmer's Sermon — — —	175
Burn's Treatise on the Law of Stock Jobbing — — —	368
Butler's Fast-day Sermon — —	180
Butler's Travels through France, Italy, &c.	78
Cambridge's Works — —	583
Card's History of the Revolutions of Russia	280
Carey's British Traveller — —	420
Carey's, David, Pleasures of Nature —	585
Carnot's Geometrie de Position —	821
Carpue on Medical Electricity —	792
Carr's Stranger in France — —	90
Cartwright's, Major, England's Ægis	344
Cartwright's, Edmund, Poems —	561
Cassano's Flowers of Italian Poetry —	562
Cavallo's Elements of Natural Philosophy	917
Ceylon, Account of — —	37
Ceylonese, Account of, — —	42
Chalmers's British Essayists — —	686
Chalmers on the War in St. Domingo	328
Cheyne on the Diseases of Children —	750
Chirol's Translation into French of the Bishop of London's Work on the Christian Religion — — —	146
Christianity, mild Tenor of —	146
——— Introduction of, into Russia	281
Christians in Egypt — —	65
Church of Scotland, Constitution of	150
Clarke's Progress of Maritime Discovery	18
Clarke's View of the Disorganization of Europe — — —	303
Cobbett's four Letters — —	349
Colchester, History and Antiquities of	380
Coleridge's Poems — —	556
Collier's Law of Patents — —	813
Colquhoun's Duties of a Constable —	815
Colpitt's Letter on Improvemens in the Police — — —	367
Connoissance des Temps —	827
Coote's History of England —	230
Cormac's Lives of the Ancient Philosophers	607
Cotton Twist, on the Exportation of	370
Cowan's Tractati on General Education	450
Cowper Illustrated — — —	684
Cowper's, Dr. Robert, Tourifications of Malachi Meldrum — —	679

Digitized by Google

	Page
Cow-pock Inoculation, Report on the	743
Crawford's Poems — —	563
Creighton's Enquiry into the Origin of True Religion — —	148
Crimea, the Mineralogy of —	102
Crirrie's, Dr. Scottish Scenery —	409
Critical and Philosophical Essays —	639
Cursory Remarks upon the State of Parties	345
Curtis's Travels in Barbary — —	20
Dallas's History of the Maroons —	285
Daniel's Rural Sports — —	843
Daniell's Oriental Scenery — —	927
Darwin's Temple of Nature, a Poem	592
Davis's Travels in America —	54
Daubeney's Vindiciæ Ecclesiæ Anglicanæ	213
Day of Alarm — — —	350
Decameron, the, of Boccaccio, translated from the Italian — —	662
Defence of Mary W. Godwin —	495
Demoniacal Possession, Remarks on	120
Dewar on Diarrhœa — —	732
Diagram on the Human Ear —	766
Diagram of the Human Eye —	766
Dickinson's Antiquities of Nottinghamshire	374
D'Ivernois's Five Promises —	318
Disney's Fast-day Sermon —	181
D'Israeli's Narrative Poems —	577
Drake, Sir Francis; Epigrams on —	11
Duncan's Annals of Medicine —	714
Duncan's New Edinburgh Dispensatory	803
East's Pleas of the Crown —	809
Eaton's Conversation on Religious Bigotry	187
Eccentric Biography — —	501
Edinburgh Practice of Physic —	723
Edmond's Poems — —	577
Edwards on Perspective — —	830
Elegant Preceptor — —	463
Elegantiæ Latinæ — —	445
Elements of Opposition — —	347
Ellis's Specimens of early English Poets	548
England Delineated — —	427
Epic Poem, proposed Subject for —	221
Essay on the Beauties of the Universe	452
Essays, by the Students of the College of Fort William — —	672
Essays on the Population of Ireland	357
Estlin's Sermons — —	170
Ethelston's Poems — —	564
Evans's View of Lord Mansfield's Decisions	815
——— Fast Day Sermon —	180
——— Juvenile Tourist — —	428
Excursion among the Swiss Landscapes	79
Excentric Biography — —	501
Faber's Dissertation on the Mysteries of the Cabiri — —	
Falconer on Influenza — —	734
Farmer's Magazine — —	700
Fearon's Farriery — —	805
Fellowes's Supplement to a Picture of Christian Philosophy — —	186
——— (Capt.) Narrative of the Loss of the Lady Hobart — —	685
Feltham's Popular Anatomy —	724
Findlater's Agriculture of Peebles —	700
Findlay's Divine Inspiration of the Jewish Scriptures — — —	127
Fisher on Copyhold-tenure —	308
Foga's Medical Observations —	725
Foot on Vesicæ Lotura — —	764
Ford's Letters on Medical Subjects	726
Fordyce's 5th Dissertation on Fever	748
Forster's Anacreontic Odaria, &c —	430
Forsyth on the Management of Fruit-trees	709
La Fosse's Veterinarian's Manual —	804
Fosse on the Defence of Picquets —	697
Fothergill's Wanderer — —	684
Fox's (C. J.) Speech in the H. of Commons	329
——— (Joseph) on the Human Teeth	760
——— and Bradley's Medical Dictionary	725
Fox-hounds, speed of — —	847
Freeman's Epistle to the Quakers —	218
French (The) considered as a Military Nation — — —	308
Frend's Evening Amusements —	832
Gazetteer of Scotland — —	389
Genlis's (Madam) Depraved Husband	605
Gibbes on Bath-waters — —	795
Gilpin's Sermons — — —	163
Girdlestone's Translation of the Odes of Anacreon — — —	437
Gleig's Sermons — — —	158
Gloucester New Guide — —	396
Godwin's Life of Chaucer —	462
Golberry's Travels in Africa —	23
Goldsmith's Grammar of Geography	454
Good's Translation of Song of Songs	116
——— Life of Geddes — —	473
Gospels, three first, Origin of —	129
Gough's History and Antiquities of Pleshy	385
Gout, New Medicine for the —	755
Graglia's Guide to the Italian Language	447
——— Continuation to ditto —	ibid
——— Raccolta di Lettere, &c. —	448
Grandpre's Voyage in the Indian Ocean	48
La Grange's Manuel du Pharmacien	797
Grant's (Mrs) Poems — —	559
Greene's Observations on the Drama	635
Grey-hound, speed of the — —	848
Guide to the Watering and Sea-bathing Places — — —	427
Gum-Senegal, account of — —	27
Gymnotus Electricus, account of —	837
Hand's Solicitor's Practice — —	812
Hatfield's (Miss) Letters on the Importance of the Female Sex — —	449
Hales's Methodism inspected —	152
Hay's History of the Rebellion in Wexford	224
Hayley's Life and Posthumous Writings of Cowper — — —	457
Hebrew Metre — —	112
Helme's (W.) Evenings rationally amused	453
Helme's (Eliz.) St. Clair — —	608
Henderson on Bit-noben — —	793
———'s Petrarca, &c. — —	564
Herdman on Influenza — — —	736
Herries's Instructions for Volunteer Cavalry — — —	697
Hey's practical and surgical Observations	780
Highland Society, Prize Essays of	710
Hill's Theological Institutes —	149
Historical Account of the Orders of Knighthood — — —	655
Histoire Naturelle, Dict. de — —	867
History of Man — — —	453
Hockin's Account of the Pelew Islands	107

Digitized by Google

Page

Holcroft's Hear Both Sides — 595
Holloway's Poems — — 564
Hume on Strictures — — 776
Hood's Elements of War — — 698
Hooper on Influenza — — — 737
———'s Plates of the Viscera — 766
Horne's Admiralty Law — — 813
Howison on the Principles and Credit of Bank Notes, &c. — — 359
Hubbard's Triumphs of Poesy — 585
Hughe's Tour through France — 80
———'s Fast Sermon — — 176
Hume on the Diseases of Children — 753
Hungary, Constitution of — — 76
Hunter's Travels in Hungary — 72
———'s (Dr. Alex.) Georgical Essays 699
Hutchins's History of the County of Dorset 397
Huttonian and Neptunian Systems of Zoology compared — — — 926
Hutton's Remarks upon North Wales 417
———'s Mathematical Recreations 828
Hydrophobia in Dogs — — 846

Indian Oration — — — 57
Inquiry, a Poem — — 557
Introduction to Philosophical and Physical Geography — — — 453
Ireland's Rhapsodies — — 568
Ireland, Essays on the Population of 357
Jackson on the Army Medical Staff. 785
Jameson on Cheltenham Waters — 796
Jewis's Fast Day Sermon — — 179
Johnson's Animal Chemistry — — 922
Johnstone on the Anti-contagious Powers of Mineral Acid Vapours — 794
Jones's Poems — — — 562
Joyce's Sermon — — 176

Karamsin's Travels through Prussia, &c. 97
Kearsley's Traveller's Guide through Great Britain — — — 421
Kenney's Raising the Wind — — 596
———— Society, a Poem — 569
Kentish's Resignation Sermons — 174
——— Sermon — — ibid.
King's Letters from France — — 88
—— (Lord) on Restriction of Payment in Specie — — — 359

Lambe on Spring Water — 800
Lambert's (A. B.) Description of the Genus Pinus — — — 882
Lancaster's Improvement in Education 451
Lane's Student's Guide — — 963
Latham's Very Strange but very True! 605
Lathom's (Translation of the) Castle of the Tuilleries — — 689
Lavalle's Letters of a Mameluke — 95
Lavater, Anecdotes of — 98—100
Leibnitz on the Conquest of Egypt 306
Lee on Captures in War — 814
Leigh's Sermon — — 173
Lesser on cutting Hay and Straw — 707
Letter to a Noble Duke on the Truth of Christianity — — 148
Letter on Manumission — 329
Letters of Advice from a Mother to her Son — — 450
Letters of Miss Riversdale — 606
Levizac's Selection of the Lessons of Fenelon — — 453
Levizac's Bibliotheque Portative des Ecrivains Francois, &c. — — 686

Page

Leyden's Scenes of Infancy — 568
Scottish descriptive Poems — 579
Life of Moses — — 458
Lincoln's Inn, Account of — 384
Lives of Illustrious Seamen — 501
Llandaff's (Bishop of) Speech, intended to have been spoken — — 332
London Practice of Midwifery — 724
Luffman's Pocke Atlas — — 416
Lyricks of Horace, in English Verse 438

Macdonald's Translation of Rules, &c. for the French Infantry — — 698
Madan's Fast-day Sermon — 178
Madeira, discovery of — — 17
Magalhaem, Voyage of — — 6
Malays, Account of — — 41
Malthus's Essay on Population — 292
Manual for Volunteer Infantry — 697
Mapes, (Walter de) Account of — 495
Marriot's (John) Poems — — 562
Marriott's (Mrs.) Elements of Religion 137
Marsh's Illustration of the Hypothesis 129
Maseres on the Revolution of Equations 824
Mason's Life of Earl Howe — 499
Maxay's Translation of Florian's Estelle 605
M. Conochie on the Writer of the fourth Gospel — — 133
M'Creery's Press (a Poem) — 591
Maurice's Select Poems — — 554
Mayne's Glasgow — — 567
Mendham's Exposition of the Lord's Prayer 141
Methodists — 153—201
Mild Tenor of Christianity — 146
Millar's Historical View of the English Government — — 254
Minstrelsy of the Scottish Border — 583
Missionary Society, Transactions of 189
Moira's (Earl of) Speech — 331
Money's (Major General) Treatise on Balloons, in Military Observations — 697
Monro on Hernia — — 773
Montague's (Lady Mary Wortley) Works and Life — — 502
Montague on the Bankrupt Laws 811
Montefiore's Commercial Dictionary 691
Montefiore's Law of Copy-right — 816
Montucla's Histoire des Mathematiques 818
Moore's Poems — — 588
Morgan's Supplement on the Finances. 352
Morgan's Price on Reversionary Payments 829
Morrice's View of Modern France — 86
Mosely on Tropical Diseases — 718
Muirhead's Travels in the Low Countries 59
Murray's (Mrs.) Guide to the Western Highlands — — 402
Myles's History of the Methodists 201
Mythological Dictionary — 446

Nare's Sermons — — 165
Naylor's Fast-day Sermon — 183
Negro Schools — — 33
Negro Slaves, Rules for the Treatment of 721
Non Military Journal in Egypt — 63
Nott on Influenza — — 737

Observations on "Why do we go to War?" 341
Observations on Duelling — 689
Orr on the Possession of Louisiana by the French — — 323
Orr's Importance of Malta — 321
Overton's Sermon — — 175
Owen's Cambrian Biography — 424

Digitized by Google

	Page
Pallas's Travels through Taurida —	101
Parallel between England and Carthage, &c.	345
Paris as it was, and as it is —	93
Paris, State of Society in — —	84
Parr's Faſt-day Sermon —	181
Paterson's Roads of England and Wales	419
Pearl Fiſhery at Manar —	38
Pearſon (Dr. Richard) on Influmza	735
Pegge's Anecdotes of the Engliſh Language	631
Pelew Iſlands, recent Viſit to —	107
Peltier's Trial — —	816
Percival's Account of Ceylon —	35
Percival's (Dr.) Medical Ethics —	719
Pharmacopœia Coll. Edinburgenſis	798
Philoſophical Tranſactions of the Royal Society of London for 1803 —	889
—— —— —— Abridged	898
Pic-Nic — —	689
Pinkerton's Modern Geography abridged	371
Pleader's Guide — —	565
Plowden's Hiſtorical Review of the State of Ireland — —	248
Poetical Regiſter for 1802 —	580
Polwhele's Hiſtory of Cornwall —	398
Polyanthea — —	685
Poor Laws, Compendium of the —	812
Porter's (Miſs) Thaddeus of Warſaw	604
Pott's Law Dictionary —	816
Power on Egyptian Ophthalmia —	731
Pownall's (Governor) Memorial —	301
Praiſe of Paris — —	94
Pratt's Gleanings in England —	666
Preſton's Argonautics of Apollonius Rhodius — —	430
Bp. Pettyman's Charge to the Clergy of Lincoln — —	215
Prevoſt and Blagdon's Beauties of Dr. Moore — —	685
Prevoſt and Blagdon's Flowers of Literature — —	685
Prieſtley's Socrates and Jesus compared	148
Proceedings at a Meeting of Loyal North Britons — —	344
Progreſſive Exerciſes —	446
Public Characters for 1803-1804 —	495
Pump Valves, Subſtitute for —	53
Pye's Dictionary of Ancient Geography	445
Queſtion (The) "Why do we go to War?"	337
Reaſon (The) Why; Anſwer to "Why do we go to War?" —	340
Rees's Account of the principal Doctrines of Chriſtianity —	154
Rees's (Dr.) Cyclopædia —	908
Rees's (Dr.) Faſt-day Sermon —	180
Reflections on the Rupture with France	333
Remora, the Account of —	841
Reply to Hook's Anguis in Herba	217
Reply to two Pamphlets in Answer to "Why do we go to War?"	342
Reply to Financial Mis-statements —	351
Revolutionary Plutarch — —	510
Reynolds's Delays and Blunders —	595
Reynolds's Caravan — — —	596
Richerand's Elements of Phyſiology —	755
Rhode's Epigrams — —	558
Richards's Arithmetic — — —	455
Ring's Treatiſe on Cow-Pox — —	745
Ritchie's Memoirs of Europe — —	264
Ritſon's Ancient English Romance —	515
Roberdeau's Fugitive Verſe and Proſe	582
Roberts's early Hiſtory of the Ancient Britons — — — —	227
Robinſon's Evidences of Revealed Religion	144
Roman Catholic Clergy of Ireland, proposed Proviſion for the — —	355
Romances, Origin of — —	518
Roſe's Tranſlation of Amadis de Gaul	597
Roſetta, Account of — —	64
Rough Sketch of Modern Paris —	88
Rowe on the Rules of Deſcent —	806
Royal Letters — — —	353
St. John's Sermons — —	167
Sappho — — —	608
Saunders's, Charlotte, Holidays at Home	452
Sayer's Nugæ Poeticæ — —	561
Segur on the Condition and Influence of Women — — —	663
Select Criminal Trials — —	817
Semple's Walks and Sketches at the Cape of Good Hope — — —	30
Sermons by a Layman — —	169
Sewell's, Mrs. Poems — —	591
Seymour's Powers of Imagination —	591
Shaw's General Zoology — —	834
Shepherd's Sermons — — —	160
Sibbald's Hiſtory of the Sheriffdotry of Fife and Kinroſs — — —	393
Siddons's Tale of Terror — —	525
Simmons on the Efficacy and Duty of Cow-pock Inoculation — —	748
Skeleton of the Latin Accidence —	446
Sketches of the Force of France and Russia	310
Skurray's Sermon — — —	173
Slaves at the Cape of Good Hope —	30
Slaves in Carolina — — —	55
Slave-Trade in the West-Indies, Remarks on	325
Small-Pox, Origin of — —	61
Small on the Discoveries of Kepler —	825
Smirke's Review of a Battalion of Infantry	697
Spallanzani's Tracts by Dalzell —	865
Somerville's, Lord, Facts and Obſervations	705
Somerville's, Miss, Preludes to Knowledge	433
Southey's Amadis de Gaul — —	600
Sowerby's Britiſh Mineralogy —	936
Stael's, Madame de, Delphine —	616
Stael, Madame de, on Ancient and Modern Learning — — —	643
Statue of Ceres, Teſtimonies reſpecting the	489
Stephens's Hiſtory of the late War —	258
Stewart's Life of Dr. Reid — —	509
Stock's Tranſlation of Iſaiah —	111
Strangford's, Lord, Tranſlation of Camoens	569
Sturch's Letter to Kentiſh — —	174
Swanſea Guide — — —	395
Swinburne on Wills — —	804
Syr Reginalde — — —	568
Taplin's Sporting Dictionary —	709
Tartars Crimean, Manners of —	104
Tayler's Sermons — —	166
Tegg and Caſtleman's New Picture of London — — —	418
Thornton's Illuſtrations of Linnæus —	873
Thoughts on the threatened Invaſion	342
Tidd's King's Bench Practice —	814
Timbrel on Ruptures — —	779
Tinſeau's Statiſtical View of France —	279
Treatiſe on the Art of War —	698
Trotter's Medicina Nautica — —	736
Trye on Injuries of the Lower Extremities	776
Turner's Hiſtory of the Anglo-Saxons	290

Digitized by Google

	Page
Turner's Vindication of Ancient British Poems	512
Turton's Linnæus's System of Nature	871
Tytler's Poems	559
Vatteville, Abbé de, Account of	60
Verulamiana, or Opinions on Men, Manners, &c.	684
Vidler's Letters to Mr. Fuller	152
Vincent de Paul, Account of	146
Vindication of Scriptural Unitarianism	154
View of London	418
Vindication of the Celts	223
Volcanoes of Mud	103
Volunteer's Guide	697
Urquhart's Commentaries on Classical Learning	641
Walker on the Constitution of Women	720
Walker's Defence of Order, a Poem	557
Walsh's Journal of the Campaign in Egypt	696
Wall, Governor, Anecdote of	91
Wallis Pocket Itinerary	421
Walter's Plates of the Nerves	772
Warner's English Diatessaron	122
Warner's Sermons	162
Warren's Beneficence, a Poem	579
Warton's, Thomas, Poetical Works and Life, by Mant	543
Watson's, Bishop, intended Speech	332
Wellbeloved's Funeral Sermon	173
Wellbeloved's Fast-Day Sermon	177
Whately on the Irish Fishery	356
Wheatley's Remarks on Currency and Commerce	862
White's Poems	552
Wieland, Account of	98
Wilkinson on Cortex Salicis	796
Willan's United Gospel	120
Williams's Abridgment of Cases	816
Williams's, Helen Maria, Correspondence of Lewis XVI.	278
Williams's, T. W., Abridgement of Law Cases, Vol. V.	808
Wilson's Memorabilia Cantabrigiæ	394
Winchester's Dissertation on the 17th Article	216
Winter on the Irish Nation	354
Winterbottom's Account of Sierra Leone	32
Winterbottom's Medical Directions for Hot Climates	717
Wittman's Travels in Turkey, &c.	66
Woodhouse's Poems	558
Wood's Importance of Malta	822
Word of Advice to Church-Reformation Mongers	217
Wrangham's Sermon	172
Wyatt's Dickens's Reports	808
Yorke's Annals of Public Economy	689
Young's Natural Philosophy	830
Zschokke's History of the Invasion of Switzerland	285

END OF THE SECOND VOLUME.

Digitized by Google

WORKS

PUBLISHED BY

T. N. LONGMAN AND O. REES, No. 39, PATERNOSTER-ROW.

SINCE THE PUBLICATION OF THE FIRST VOLUME.

I.

THE NEW CYCLOPÆDIA; or, UNIVERSAL DICTIONARY of ARTS, SCIENCES, and LITERATURE.

Parts V. and VI. Price 18s. each.

Formed upon a more enlarged Plan of Arrangement than the Dictionary of Mr. Chambers; comprehending the various Articles of that Work, with Additions and Improvements; together with the New Subjects of Biography, Geography, and History: adapted to the present State of Literature and Science.

By ABRAHAM REES, D. D. F. R. S.

Editor of the last Edition of Mr. Chambers's Dictionary; with the Assistance of eminent professional Gentlemen.

Illustrated by New Plates, including Maps, designed and engraved for this Work by some of the most distinguished Artists.

*** Three, or, if possible, four parts will continue to be published in the year; and when the arrangements are fully completed, a more rapid publication will be adopted.

The Plates are chiefly executed by Messrs. Lowry and Milton, almost wholly from original Drawings; and as early impressions are very important in a work containing such numerous, highly finished, and beautiful Engravings, a few proofs are taken off, on Royal Paper, with corresponding Letter-press, which are sold at 1l. 16s. each Part.

The Public may be assured that no expence, or exertion will be spared to support the high character the Work has obtained, and that it may merit a continuance of the distinguished encouragement it has received.

The following Gentlemen are the principal Writers in this Work.

Abraham Rees, D.D. F.R.S. Editor; John Abernethy, Esq. F. R. S.; Mr. Arthur Aikin; C. Aikin, Esq.; Mr. E. Aikin: R. Bland, M.D. A. S. S.; Charles Burney, Mus. D. F. R. S.; William Blair, Esq. A.M.; John Bonnycastle; Henry Brougham, Esq. Jun. F. R. S.; Mr. John Britton; Mr. Bracy Clark, F. L. S. Veterinary Surgeon; Mr. E. Donovan, F. L. S.; R. W. Dickson, M.D.; Humphrey Davy, Esq.; Mr. Henry Ellis; John Flaxman, Esq. R. A.; Rev. William Hincks, of Cork; William Morgan, Esq. F.R.S.; James Macartney, Esq.; Andrew Mackay, LL. D. F. R. S. Ed; Mr. Mushett; George Nayler, Esq. F. S. A. York Herald; Mr. William Nicholson; Mr. Peter Nicholson; John Opie, Esq. R.A.; Mr. William Owen, F. S. A.; Richard Pearson, M.D. F. S. A.; Mr. W. Symonds; Rev. William Tooke, F. R. S.; Sharon Turner, Esq. F. S. A.; Mr. Charles Taylor; Mr. J. Thomson; and the Rev. W. Wood.

II.

THE SYNONYMES of the LATIN LANGUAGE, alphabetically arranged; with a Critical Dissertation upon the Force of its PREPOSITIONS, both in a simple and compound State.

By JOHN HILL, LL. D. Professor of Humanity in the University, and Fellow of the Royal Society of Edinburgh.

In one large volume quarto. Price 1l. 11s. 6d. in boards.

III.

VOCABULARY, intended as an introduction to the Study of The SYNONYMES of the LATIN LANGUAGE.

By JOHN HILL, L. L. D. Et Lit. Hum. P. In one volume small octavo, price 2s. bound.

IV.

AN ELEMENTARY and PRACTICAL TREATISE on the LANDED PROPERTY OF ENGLAND: containing the PURCHASE, the IMPROVEMENT, and the MANAGEMENT of LANDED ESTATES.

By MR. MARSHALL, Author of different Works on RURAL ECONOMY.

In one volume quarto, elegantly printed, and illustrated by diagrams. Price two guineas in boards.

V.

AN EXCURSION in FRANCE, and other Parts of the CONTINENT of EUROPE, from the Cessation of Hostilities in 1801, to the 13th of December, 1803; including a Narrative of the unprecedented Detention of the English Travellers in that Country as Prisoners of War.

By CHARLES MACLEAN, M D.

In one volume octavo. Price 6s. in boards.

Digitized by Google

VI.

THE HISTORY of the INVASION of SWITZERLAND by the FRENCH, and the Deſtruction of the Democratical Republics of SCHWITZ, URI, and UNTERWALDEN.

By HENRY ZSCHOKKE, National Prefect of the Canton of Baſil.

Tranſlated from the French of J. B. BRIATTE, Secretary of Legation to the Helvetic Republic at Paris. By J. AIKIN, M. D. With a Preface and Supplement by the Tranſlator.

Price 7s. boards

"The foreign preſſes do not often present us with a volume ſo inſtructive and intereſting as the preſent. The author is an inhabitant of that country, to preſerve the glory of which is the object of his labours; and he appears intimately converſant with the characters, meaſures, and ſcenes which are the ſubjects of his work. Our attention has been frequently drawn to theſe little Cantons, but we never met with a guide who was apparently ſo well informed and faithful.

"We had flattered ourſelves that we had a tolerable acquaintance with the happy and eſtimable ſequeſtered Shepherds of the Alps, their government, characters, and habits: but Mr. Zſchokke has convinced us that we had many additional important particulars to learn, and which his candid and authentic pages impart to us. If in his details, the Alpine tribes be exhibited as mere human beings, ſharing in the imperfections of their ſpecies; if the imagination be leſs gratified and enthuſiaſm leſs excited than in other repreſentations, the figures are more within nature, the eye dwells longer on them, and the ſolid if leſs intenſe pleaſures inſeparable from the exhibitions of truth are felt. The picture ſtill calls forth admiration; and we ſee that flattering artiſts have not drawn too ſtrongly the features of heroiſm, patriotiſm, and genuine ſimplicity, which characterize the deſcendants of William Tell.

"The early ſtruggles of theſe petty tribes for liberty and independence, the miracles of bravery which wrought their infant freedom, their long undiſturbed poſſeſſion of that bleſſing, and their final ill-fated undeſerved lot, will intereſt the curious and feeling boſom as long as any of the moſt precious memorials of hiſtory ſhall live."

Appendix to Monthly Review, Vol. 38.

VII.

AN INQUIRY into the NATURE and ORIGIN of PUBLIC WEALTH, and into the Means and Cauſes of its Increaſe.

By the EARL of LAUDERDALE.

In one volume octavo. Price 8s. 6d. in boards.

VIII.

INDIAN RECREATIONS; conſiſting chiefly of Strictures on the Domeſtic and Rural Economy of the Mohammedans and Hindoos.

By the Rev. WILLIAM TENNANT, LL. D. M. A. S. And lately one of His Majeſty's Chaplains in India.

In two volumes octavo. with plates. Price 18s. in Boards.

"This book contains a great deal of curious and important matter: we have peruſed it with uncommon ſatisfaction, which was enhanced by the modeſty of the Author, who did not raiſe our expectations to too high a pitch at the commencement. One important feature will be diſtinguiſhed by the reader throughout the Work, which is that the Author writes with moderation. He neither rates too high, nor wiſhes to depreciate the Brancinical learning: neither conceals the defects of the Britiſh Government in India, nor under-rates the advantages with which it has certainly been attended to the native Inhabitants.

Upon the whole, theſe volumes contain much more information both curious and important on a variety of ſubjects, than the title of the book could poſſibly have led us to expect."

Literary Journal, April 1ſt

IX.

A DESCRIPTION of a PATENT HOT-HOUSE, which operates chiefly by the Heat of the Sun, without the aid of Flues, or Tan Bark, or Steam, for the purpoſes of heating it. To which is added, AN APPENDIX, containing Remarks upon a Letter from J. A. KNIGHT, Eſq. on the Subject of Mr. FORSYTH'S PLASTER.

By JAMES ANDERSON, LL. D. F. R. S. F. A. S. E. &c.

Author of Eſſays on Agriculture, and ſeveral other Performances.

In one volume 12mo. Price 5s. in boards.

X.

ESSAYS LITERARY, POLITICAL, and ŒCONOMICAL.

By JOHN GARDINER, M. D.

Fellow of the Royal College of Phyſicians, and of the Royal Society of Edinburgh, &c.

In two Volumes octavo. Price 16s. in boards.

Theſe Volumes contain—Conjectures on the Origin of Language; on the different Races of Men; on the Formation of the Minds of Children, previous to a literary Education: on the principal Cauſes that promote or retard Population, being the circumſtances from which the preciſe degree of Power in every State may be eſtimated; Hiſtorical Remarks and Obſervations on Government, and on the Cauſes which have at all times obſtructed its advancement to a Free Conſtitution; Obſervations on the principal Cauſes which promote or retard the advancement of Literature, Commerce, and the Arts.

Digitized by Google

XI.

THE HISTORY, Ancient and Modern, of the SHERIFFDOMS of FIFE and KINROSS, with a Deſcription of both, and of the Firths of FORTH and TAY, and the Iſlands in them; with an Account of the Natural Products of the LAND and WATERS.

By Sir ROBERT SIBBALD, M. D.

In one volume demy octavo, embelliſhed with elegant Engravings, Price 9s. in boards, and on fine paper, royal octavo, Price 12s. in boards, a new Edition with Notes and Illuſtrations.

XII.

THE HISTORY OF SCOTLAND, from the Union of the Crowns on the Acceſſion of James VI. to the throne of England, to the Union of the Kingdoms in the reign of Queen Anne. The ſecond edition corrected, with a Preliminary Diſſertation on the Participation of Mary Queen of Scots in the Murder of Darnley. By MALCOLM LAING, Eſq. Four Volumes 8vo. 1l. 16s. boards.

†‡† For the accommodation of purchaſers of the former edition of the Hiſtory, the Diſſertation on the participation of Mary Queen of Scots in the Murder of Darnley, forming Vols. I. and II. of the preſent Work, may be had ſeparate, price 16s. in boards.

XIII.

THE HISTORY AND LIFE OF KING JAMES SEXT, written towards the latter end of the ſixteenth century. 8vo. Beautifully printed by BALLANTINE. 10s. boards.

XIV.

AN ABRIDGEMENT of all the STATUTES now in force, relative to the REVENUE of EXCISE in GREAT BRITAIN, methodically arranged, and alphabetically digeſted.

The SECOND EDITION, reviſed, and brought down to the end of the year 1803.

By JAMES HUIE, Collector of Exciſe.

In one volume octavo. Price 10s. 6d. in boards.

This Work is publiſhed under the patronage of his Majeſty's Commiſſioners of Exciſe, who have ordered *One Thouſand Copies* for the uſe of their officers—and it will be found highly uſeful to Merchants, Manufacturers, and in general to every perſon whoſe profeſſion or trade is connected with this branch of the public revenue.

XV.

THE LIFE of TOBIAS SMOLLET, M. D. with critical Obſervations on his Works.

By ROBERT ANDERSON, M. D.

The Fourth Edition, in one volume octavo. Price 7s. in boards.

XVI.

EVERSION, or the Refutation of the Principles of MUNDANE PHILOSOPHY.

THOMAS CORMOULS, A. M. Editor.

In one volume octavo. Price 7s. in boards.

XVII.

THE HISTORY of FREE MASONRY, drawn from authentic Sources of Information; with an Account of the Grand Lodge of Scotland, from its Inſtitution in 1736, to the preſent time, compiled from the Records; and an Appendix of original papers.

By ALEXANDER LAURIE, Bookſeller to the Grand Lodge of Scotland.

In one volume octavo. Price 7s. 6d. in boards.

XVIII.

ELEMENTS of GENERAL HISTORY, tranſlated from the French of the ABBE MILLOT.

Part the firſt, Ancient Hiſtory, in two volumes 12mo. Price 8s. in boards. Part the ſecond, Modern Hiſtory, in three volumes 12mo. Price 15s. in boards.

XIX.

AN ESSAY on NAVAL TACTICS, Syſtematical and Hiſtorical, with Explanatory Plates, in four Parts.

By JOHN CLERK, Eſq. of Eldin.

Second Edition, in one volume quarto. Price 1l. 16s. in boards.

XX.

THE DECAMERON, or TEN DAYS ENTERTAINMENT of BOCCACCIO. Tranſlated from the Italian. To which are prefixed, Remarks on the Life and Writings of Boccaccio, and an Advertiſement, by the Author of "Old Nick," &c. &c.

The Second Edition, corrected and improved, in two volumes octavo. Price 16s. in boards.

*** An Edition in 2 volumes royal octavo. Price 1l. 4s. in boards.

"The Tales of Boccaccio are too well known to the public to render any critical account of their merits or demerits neceſſary, at this period. It is ſufficient, therefore, to obſerve of the preſent Edition, that the tranſlator has carefully improved the language of the former Engliſh Edition, and expunged many of the paſſages that were offenſive to decency. The book too is extremely well printed, and to it is prefixed an engraved head of the Author from Titian, very well executed.

The Editor of this Work has diſplayed conſiderable diligence in reſearch, and ſkill in application;

Digitized by Google

and has furnished the best life of his Author, now extant. In his "*Advertisement*" he briefly notices the defects of the former translation, and the improvements in the present, which are not more judicious than they were necessary." *Anti Jacobin Review, March* 1804.

XXI.

ENGRAVINGS of the BONES, MUSCLES, and JOINTS, illustrating the first volume of the Anatomy of the Human Body.

By JOHN BELL, Surgeon.

In quarto, with about 200 pages of explanatory Letter-press. Price 1l. 11s. 6d. in boards.

XXII.

A SYSTEM of DISSECTIONS, explaining the Anatomy of the Human Body; the manner of displaying the parts, and their varieties in disease. Vol. III. Part II. containing the dissections of the Arm, of the Neck and Face, of the nervous System of the Viscera, with a short account of the manner of dissecting the Brain and Eye; with Plates.

By CHARLES BELL, Fellow of the Royal College of Surgeons. Price 7s. 6d. in boards.

**** This Number completes the plan of the Work, which is intended chiefly to remove the difficulties which the student has to encounter in the study of Anatomy, and to direct his attention to the points of practical importance. The Publishers have to regret, that, owing to the other unavoidable avocations of the Author, they have not been sooner able to fulfil their engagements to the public.

XXIII.

ELEMENTS of MATERIA MEDICA and PHARMACY.

By JOHN MURRAY, Lecturer on Chemistry, Materia Medica, and Pharmacy.

In two volumes octavo. Price 14s. in boards.

XXIV.

AN ESSAY, MEDICAL, PHILOSOPHICAL, and CHEMICAL, on DRUNKENNESS, and its Effects on the Human Body.

By THOMAS TROTTER, M. D.

Late Physician to his Majesty's Fleet, Member of the Royal Medical Society of Edinburgh, &c. &c.

In one volume octavo. Price 5s. in boards.

XXV.

AN ESSAY on RESPIRATION. Parts I. and II.

By JOHN BOSTOCK, M. D.

In one volume octavo. Price 6s. in boards.

XXVI.

A TREATISE on TROPICAL DISEASES, on MILITARY OPERATIONS; and on the CLIMATE of the WEST INDIES.

By BENJAMIN MOSELEY, M. D.

Author of Tracts on Coffee; Medical Tracts, &c. Physician to Chelsea Hospital, Member of the College of Physicians of London, of the University of Leyden, of the American Philosophical Society at Philadelphia, &c. &c.

The fourth edition, in one volume octavo. Price 12s 6d. in boards.

XXVII.

MEDICAL TRACTS. 1. On Sugar. 2. On the Cow Pox. 3. On Yaws. 4. On Obi, or African Witchcraft. 5. On the Plague, and Yellow Fever of America. 6. On Hospitals. 7. On Bronchocele. 8. On Prisons.

By BENJAMIN MOSELEY, M. D. &c. &c,

In one volume 8vo. Price 6s. 6d. in boards.

XXVIII.

DISCOURSES on the MANAGEMENT of INFANTS, and the Treatment of their Diseases. Discourse First. By JOHN HEARDMAN, M. D. 8vo. 2s. 6d. sewed.

XXIX.

DESULTORY OBSERVATIONS on the INCOME ACT, addressed to the Landed Interest of Great Britain. By a LANDHOLDER. 8vo. sewed. 1s. 6d.

XXX.

AN ANTIDOTE to the ALARM of INVASION. A discourse, delivered at the Meeting House in the Old Jewry, on Wednesday October 19th, 1803. Being the day appointed for a General Fast.

By ABRAHAM REES, D. D. F. R. S. Editor of the New Cyclopædia. Price 1s.

**** A volume of Sermons on Miscellaneous Subjects, by the same Author, is in the Press, and will speedily be published.

Digitized by Google

XXXI.

DISCOURSES on THEOLOGICAL and LITERARY SUBJECTS.
By the late Rev. ARCHIBALD ARTHUR, M. A.
Profeſſor of Moral Philoſophy in the Univerſity of Glaſgow.
With an Account of ſome PARTICULARS in his LIFE and CHARACTER,
By WILLIAM RICHARDSON, M. A. Profeſſor of Humanity in the Univerſity of Glaſgow.
In one volume octavo. Price 8s. in boards.

XXXII.

SERMONS on PUBLIC OCCASIONS, and a LETTER on THEOLOGICAL STUDY.
By ROBERT DRUMMOND, late Archbiſhop of York.
To which are prefixed *Memoirs of his Life*,
By GEORGE HAY DRUMMOND, A. M. Prebendary of York.
In one volume octavo. Price 6s. in boards.

XXXIII.

A SERMON on INVASION, preached by the Rev. SYDNEY SMITH, A. M. before the Mary-Le-Bonne Volunteers, in Portman Chapel, Baker Street. Price 1s.

XXXIV.

WOMEN: their CONDITION and INFLUENCE in SOCIETY.
By JOSEPH ALEXANDER SEGUR. Tranſlated from the French.
In three volumes 12mo. Price 12s. in boards.

"Theſe Volumes will, probably, be received as a very acceptable preſent by our people of faſhion; ſince, in the courſe of them, ſubjects of the firſt importance to theſe parties, though they may be conſidered as incidentally introduced, are treated very much at large. While, however, many of its parts will induce the Beaux and the Belles to regard this performance as ſolely deſigned for them, the Philoſopher and the Stateſman may not deem it altogether unworthy of their attention. Near the termination of this work, we are preſented with a most intereſting tale, founded on the loves of Elerz and Zulinda, and the adventures of Florvel; the object of which is to expoſe the folly and miſery of libertiniſm, by contraſting it with virtuous love. A young Pariſian ſupports the part of the libertine; and a pair in Delicarlia, in the north of Sweden, diſplay the charms, the pure enjoyments, and the unbroken felicity, which in ſequeſtered ſcenes, ever attend love, innocence and competence. The addreſs which is diſcovered in this little production, the delicate touches which occur in it, its ſtructure, and its moral, prove the powers of the author to be of the firſt rate."

Appendix to Monthly Review, Vol. 42.

"Theſe volumes contain entertaining anecdotes of the more diſtinguiſhed characters of France, from the earlieſt period of French hiſtory to the preſent time. The firſt volume contains general remarks and anecdotes of the ſex, and all will afford a reasonable share of amuſement; ſome of the anecdotes are new, and related with a conſiderable degree of vivacity and intereſt."

Britiſh Critic, Nov. 1803.

XXXV.

THE SWISS EMIGRANTS, A Tale.
In one volume 12mo. Price 4s. in boards.

"A pleaſing and entertaining narrative. The whole is apparently from the heart; and it will beguile the feeling mind of Pity's ſofteſt drops." *Critical Review, March* 1804.

"This is an intereſting, affecting, and inſtructive Tale, replete with good ſenſe and good morals. The narrative is ably written, the language is good, and the ſentiments are unexceptionable."

Anti Jacobin, Feb. 1804.

XXXVI.

ST. CLAIR of the ISLES; or the Outlaws of Barra. A Scottiſh Tradition.
By ELIZABETH HELME, Author of "Louiſa, or a Cottage on the Moor;" &c. &c.
In four volumes. Price 14s. boards.

XXXVII.

THE ADVANTAGES of EDUCATION, or the HISTORY of MARIA WILLIAMS, a Tale, for very young Ladies.
By Mrs. WEST, Author of "A Goſſip's Story," "Tale of the Times," "Infidel Father," &c. &c.
The ſecond edition. In two volumes 12mo. Price 7s. in boards.

XXXVIII.

MODERN LITERATURE, A Novel. By ROBERT BISSET, LL. D.
In three Volumes 12mo. Price 13s. 6d. in boards.

XXXIX.

THE HIGHLANDERS, or SKETCHES of HIGHLAND SCENERY and MANNERS: with ſome REFLECTIONS on EMIGRATION. A Poem in five parts; with POEMS on various ſubjects.
By Mrs. GRANT, Laggan.
In one volume octavo. Price 10s. 6d. boards.

Digitized by Google

XL.

ALFRED; an EPIC POEM, in Twenty-four Books.
By JOSEPH COTTLE.
The second Edition with considerable Additions. In two volumes foolscap octavo.
Price 10s. 6d. in boards.

"We observe, that Mr. Cottle has, with a laudable industry, availed himself of every relic of information, which is left upon record respecting the character and conduct of his hero. He has skilfully contrived to keep the interest of his readers awake by interweaving into his story the process and termination of his hero's domestic distresses. By the exhibition of the perilous adventures of Alfwitha, his amiable Queen, and her infant son, he happily preserves throughout great part of his work, the pleasing, painful uncertainty of the drama. He seems to dwell with peculiar delight upon the representations of the gentler passions, and strives rather to melt the heart than to nerve the arm of heroism. He has adopted, as his model, the Odyssey in preference to the Iliad."

Critical Review, Feb. 1801.

XLI.

SCENES of INFANCY; Descriptive of Teviotdale. A Poem.
By JOHN LEYDEN.
With a Frontispiece, finely printed by Ballantyne of Edinburgh, in foolscap octavo.
Price 6s. in boards.

XLII.

SOCIETY, a POEM, in two parts; with other Poems.
By JAMES KENNEY.
In one volume foolscap octavo. Price 4s. in boards.

XLIII.

SIR TRISTREM, a Metrical Romance of the thirteenth century, by THOMAS OF ERCILDOUNE, called the RHYMER. Edited from the Auchinleck MS. by WALTER SCOTT, Esq. editor of the Minstrelsy of the Scottish Border. Superbly printed in Royal Octavo by Ballantyne. (Only 150 copies printed.) 2l. 2s. boards.

XLIV.

INVASION, a Descriptive and Satirical Poem.
By J. AMPHLETT.
In one volume, 12mo. Price 3s. boards

XLV.

ALMAHIDE and HAMET, a Tragedy in five acts; to which is prefixed a Letter to John Philip Kemble, Esq. on Dramatic Composition.
By BENJAMIN HEATH MALKIN, Esq. M. A.
Handsomely printed by Bensley, on royal octavo. Price 6s. in boards.

XLVI.

THE POWERS of the IMAGINATION, a POEM, in three parts.
By Miss CHARLOTTE SEYMOUR.
In one volume, quarto, embellished with a highly finished Portrait of the Author.
Price 1l. 1s. in boards.

XLVII.

THE MAID of BRISTOL, a Play, in three Acts. As performed at the Theatre Royal in the Hay-market. By JAMES BOADEN,
With the Address to the Patriotism of the British People, as an Epilogue, written by GEORGE COLMAN the younger. Price 2s.

XLVIII.

RAISING the WIND, a Farce in two Acts, as performed with universal Applause at the Theatre Royal, Covent-garden. By JAMES KENNEY. Price 1s. 6d.

XLIX.

AN INTRODUCTION to MR. BYROM'S UNIVERSAL ENGLISH SHORT-HAND; or the Way of Writing English in the most easy, concise, regular and beautiful manner. Designed for the use of Schools. By T. MOLINEUX.
The third Edition. Price 10s. 6d. half bound

L.

ESSAYS on HISTORY, particularly the JEWISH, ASSYRIAN, PERSIAN, GRECIAN and ROMAN; with EXAMINATIONS for the use of YOUNG PERSONS.
In one volume, 12mo. Price 5s. in boards.
By JOHN HOLLAND.

LI.

A SYSTEM of GEOGRAPHY, with a Series of Geographical Examinations.
By JOHN HOLLAND.
In one volume 12mo. Price 2s. 6d. in boards.

Digitized by Google

WORKS IN THE PRESS

I

UNDER the PATRONAGE of HIS MAJESTY.

ENGRAVINGS, with a deſcriptive Account in Engliſh and French, of EGYPTIAN MONUMENTS, in the BRITISH MUSEUM, collected by the INSTITUTE in EGYPT under the direction of BUONAPARTE, and ſurrendered to the BRITISH COMMANDER in CHIEF, LORD HUTCHINSON, by GENERAL MENOU.

In the number of theſe Monuments is the celebrated Stone with the *Hieroglyphic, Egyptian, and Greek Inſcriptions*, found at ROSETTA; alſo the magnificent Sarcophagus of ALEXANDER the GREAT.

The Drawings have been made by Mr. ALEXANDER, with all poſſible fidelity, and are engraving by Mr. MEDLAND in the beſt ſtyle of the Art.

The whole Collection will be compriſed in *Eight Diviſions*, at a Guinea each; the firſt to be publiſhed in November, and the reſt at intervals of Three Months in ſucceſſion. Subſcriptions are received by the Publiſher; by Mr. Medland, Abingdon-Street, Weſtminſter; and by Mr. Miller, Bond-Street, where Specimens of the Engravings may be ſeen.

In the Liſt of Subſcribers already received are

His Royal Highneſs the Prince of Wales.
His Royal Highneſs the Duke of York.
His Royal Highneſs the Duke of Clarence.
His Royal Highneſs the Duke of Cambridge.
The Right Honourable the Earl of Liverpool.
Lord Hutchinſon.
Alderman Boydell.
C. Townley, Eſq.
W. Boſanquet, Eſq.
Hon. John Peachy.
George F. Stratton, Eſq.
Lord Spencer Chicheſter.
Sir George Thomas, Bart.
Hon. Thomas Coventry.
John Townley, Eſq.

II.

A TOPOGRAPHICAL DESCRIPTION of the PLAIN and SITE of TROY, together with ſuch Parts of the Coaſt of PHRYGIA MINOR as have been Objects of Criticiſm. Dedicated, by permiſſion, to her Grace the Dutcheſs of Devonſhire.

By WILLIAM GELL, Eſq. B. A. and F. A. S. late Fellow of Emanuel College, Cambridge.

In the work will be given about 45 etched and coloured Plates, taken from accurate Drawings made on the ſpot by the Author, and chiefly engraved by Mr. Medland. Each Plate will have its appropriate letter-preſs Deſcription, in which every precaution will be taken, to render the Subject intelligible to the Reader. The Work is deſigned to afford an Opportunity to ſuch as have not viſited the Country, of forming their own opinions of the Topography of Homer. Thoſe Verſes of the Iliad and Odyſſey will alſo be cited, which deſcribe, or appear to deſcribe, the particular Portions or Monuments of the Troad. The Views will conſiſt of a Delineation of the whole Coaſt of Phrygia from Antandros in the Gulph of Adramyttium, to the Vale of Thymbra on the Helleſpont, after which the following will be given to aſſiſt in forming an exact idea of the immediate Vicinity of Troy.

View of the Mouth of Simoeis and Scamander.
View of the Junctions of theſe Rivers.
View of the Ford of Scamander.
View 3 feet in length exhibiting the whole Plain from the Tomb of Antilochus.
View of the Tomb of Antilochus.
View of the Tumulus of Achilles.
View from the Summit of the Tumulus of Achilles.
View of the Tumulus of Æſyetes.
View of the modern Ford of Simoeis.
View of the Site of Troy.
View of the warm Springs of Scamander.
View of the cold Springs of Scamander.
Side View of the Hill of Troy.
View of Bounarbaſhi.
View Weſtward from Bounarbaſhi.
View N. E. from Bounarbaſhi.
View of the Hill from the Aga's Houſe of Bounarbaſhi.
View of the Road to the Weſt of Troy.
View of the Tumuli in the Acropolis.
View 3 feet in length of the Plain from the Acropolis.
View of the Foundations in the Acropolis.
View of the Vale of Simoeis behind the Acropolis.
View of a deep Ravine on the Eaſt of the Acropolis.
View of the Foundations of the Walls of the Acropolis.
View of Acropolis from the Vale of the Simoeis.
Map of the Site of Troy.

This work is printing in a folio Volume, that form being neceſſary for the Plates.

*** This Work is nearly ready for Publication.

Digitized by Google

III.

ENGRAVINGS to illuſtrate the Iliad of Homer,
——————————Odyſſey of Homer,
——————————Tragedies of Æſchylus,
From the Compoſitions of JOHN FLAXMAN, R. A. Sculptor to the King.
New Editions, with additional Plates.
*** Theſe Works are nearly ready for Publication.

IV.

THE SCENERY, ANTIQUITIES, NATURAL HISTORY, and CUSTOMS of NORTH WALES; delineated from two Excurſions through all the intereſting Parts of that Country in the Summers of 1798 and 1801.
By the Rev. W. BINGLEY, A. M. Fellow of the Linnean Society, and late of St. Peter's College, Cambridge.
Illuſtrated with Engravings and Muſic. In 2 Vols. octavo.
*** This Work is nearly ready for Publication.

V.

The Third (and laſt) Volume of the BEAUTIES of WILTSHIRE, diſplayed in Statiſtical, Hiſtorical, and Deſcriptive Sketches, interſperſed with Anecdotes of the Arts.
By JOHN BRITTON.
Embelliſhed with Plates and a New Map of the County.

VI.

An ACCOUNT of SOUTH WALES.
By BENJAMIN HEATH MALKIN, Eſq. M. A.
In one volume, 4to. with Plates by La Porte, after original Drawings by himſelf.
*** This Work is nearly ready for Publication.

VII.

TRAVELS in Abyſſinia, by the late JAMES BRUCE, of Kinnaird, Eſq. A new Edition in octavo, with a Life of the Author, compiled from his original Papers in the poſſeſſion, of the Family and his literary Correſpondence; copious Extracts from his original Journals; Corrections and Improvements made by the Author himſelf, on the firſt Edition; and, beſide the Engravings in that Work, various Maps, Drawings, and Additions never before given to the Public.
*** This Work will be publiſhed in the Autumn.

VIII.

THE THEORY and PRACTICE of NAVIGATION. By ANDREW MACKAY, LL. D. F. R. S. Ed.
*** This Work is nearly ready for Publication.

IX.

A COLLECTION of MATHEMATICAL TABLES.
By ANDREW MACKAY, LL. D. F. R. S. Ed.
*** This Work is nearly ready.

X.

THE LAY of the LAST MINSTREL, a Poetical Romance.
By WALTER SCOTT, Eſq. Editor of the Minſtrelſy of the Scottiſh Border.
*** This Work will be publiſhed early in the next Winter.

XI.

AUBREY, a Novel. By R. C. DALLAS, Eſq.
In four volumes 12mo.
*** This Work is nearly ready.

XII.

THE PRINCIPLES of SURGERY, By JOHN BELL, Surgeon.
Vol. II. Part. 1.

The Diviſion of this Work which is about to be publiſhed, comprehends a moſt important Department of Surgery,—the Diſeaſes of the Urinary Organs, illuſtrated with numerous Engravings of the Anatomy of the Parts, and Plans of the ſeveral Operations. It contains the following Treatiſes.

SECTION I.

Studies of the Anatomy of the Parts contained within the Pelvis, with practical Inferences from the Structure, and Remarks on their various Diſeaſes. This Part, the Anatomy of the Urinary Organs, is illuſtrated with a great Variety of ſplendid Engravings, drawn from Diſſection, of the Size of Life.

SECTION II.

Biographical, Critical, and Hiſtorical Sketches of the Lives of the moſt celebrated Lithotomiſts, with a Review of their ſeveral Operations; the Merits and Defects of which are fully explained, and every uſeful Inference from their Errors or Succeſſes applied to the modern Operation. This Department is illuſtrated by Plans deduced from the true Drawings exhibited in the firſt Department, and each Plan ſerves as a Leſſon on ſome difficult Point in the modern Operation.

SECTION III.

Contains the Hiſtory of the Lateral Lithotomy invented by the Engliſh Surgeons, Proofs of its Excellence, with plain and ſimple Directions for performing the Lateral Operation, either with the Knife or with the Gorget.

This Department is illuſtrated with both Plans and Drawings, explaining, firſt, the various Properties of the Inciſion made with the Knife, and the Inciſion made with the Gorget. Secondly, the Poſture of the Patient, the Form and Size of the Inciſion. Thirdly. Plans expreſſing, in a particular manner, the ſeveral Dangers of the Operation, and eſpecially the moſt imminent Danger of the Gorget ſlipping from off the Staff.

SECTION IV.

In this Section is contained a View of the ſeveral Diſeaſes of the Urinary Organs, Directions for the Cure of Inflammation, Contraction and Paralyſis of the Urinary Bladder, of Strictures and other Diſeaſes of the Urethra, of Fiſtula in the Perineum, of Strangury, and ſudden Obſtruction of Urine, with particular Inſtructions for the Uſe of Bougies, the Introduction of the Catheter, the Puncture of the Urinary Bladder, and all the leſſer and more delicate Operations neceſſary to complete the Department of Surgery.

*** This Work is nearly ready.

XIII.

The fourth and laſt Volume of the ANATOMY of the HUMAN BODY.
By CHARLES BELL, Surgeon, Edinburgh.
*** This Work is nearly ready.

XIV.

NAVAL and MILITARY MEMOIRS of GREAT BRITAIN, from the Year 1727 to the Concluſion of the American War, 1783.
By R. BEATSON, Eſq. Author of the Political Index to the Hiſtories of Great Britain and Ireland. In ſix volumes, 8vo.
*** This Work will be publiſhed in the courſe of the Summer.

"Captain Beatſon is already known as the Author of the Political Index to the History of Great Britain and Ireland. The preſent publication is of a higher kind. We are now to regard him as contributing not only to the information but to the amuſement of the Public; and ſince he has exerted his attention and diligence for ſo commendable a purpoſe, we cannot but wiſh him ſucceſs. His work bears the marks of veracity and a conſtant attention to the authenticity of the materials which he has induſtriouſly collected. The narrative is frequently intermingled with obſervations and reflections, which indicate the man of virtue and of public ſpirit. As we have peruſed the volumes with ſatisfaction, we are led to conclude that they will be acceptable not merely to thoſe who are intimately converſant with military and naval affairs, but alſo to the Public at large. We regret that the limits to which our Work is confined, will not allow us to lay before our readers many intereſting particulars which might be eaſily ſelected from theſe volumes: but we hope that the few which we have extracted from this entertaining Work, will not be unacceptable to our readers, and eſpecially to the gentlemen of the navy."

Monthly Review, Feb. and March, 1791.

"The intereſting nature of this work has forced us to exceed our intended limits; but we hope that our extracts will prove neither uninentertaining nor uninſtructive. To the deſign and to the execution we muſt give applauſe, as being in no mean degree uſeful and meritorious. It is a work of utility and merit; and we ſhall be glad to ſee the remaining three volumes."

Critical Review, April and May 1791.

XV.

THE HISTORY of ENGLAND, related in Familiar Converſations, by a Father to his Children; interſperſed with moral and inſtructive Remarks and Obſervations on the moſt leading and intereſting ſubjects. Deſigned for the Peruſal of Youth.
By ELIZABETH HELME. In two volumes 12mo.

XVI.

MADOC, an Epic Poem. By ROBERT SOUTHEY.
In quarto, with Engravings.
*** This Work will be publiſhed early in the next Winter.

XVII.

SERMONS on the EVILS that are in the WORLD, and various other Topics. From the German of the Rev. G. J. ZOLLIKOFER.
By the Rev. WILLIAM TOOKE, F. R. S.
In two volumes octavo, embelliſhed with a Head of the Author.
††† This work is nearly ready.

XVIII.

OCCASIONAL DISCOURSES on VARIOUS SUBJECTS.
By the RICHARD MUNKHOUSE, D.D. of Queen's College, Oxford, and Miniſter of St. John Baptiſt's Church, in Wakefield.
In three volumes octavo, embelliſhed with a Portrait of the Author.
††† This work will be publiſhed early in the next Winter.

Digitized by Google

XIX.

ELEMENTS of MECHANICAL PHILOSOPHY.
By JOHN ROBINSON, LL. D. Professor of Natural Philosophy in the University of Edinburgh.
One volume octavo, illustrated by Plates.
†‡† This work is nearly ready.

XX.

A SYSTEM of MINERALOGY; comprehending Oryctognosie, Geognosie, Mineralogical Geography, Chemical Mineralogy, and Economical Mineralogy.
By ROBERT JAMESON, Fellow of the Royal and Antiquarian Societies of Edinburgh—of the Linnæan Society of London—Honorary Member of the Royal Irish Academy—and the Mineralogical Societies of Jena, &c.
†‡† This Work is nearly ready.

XXI.

SURGICAL OBSERVATIONS.
By JOHN ABERNETHY, F. R. S. Honorary Member of the Royal Medical Societies of Paris, Philadelphia, &c. Assistant Surgeon to St. Bartholomew's Hospital, and Teacher of Anatomy and Surgery.
†‡† This Work is nearly ready.

XXII.

THE HISTORY of CANADA, from its first Discovery; comprehending an Account of the Original Establishment of the Colony of Louisiana.
†‡† This Work is nearly ready.

XXIII.

THE LAKE of KILLARNEY. A Novel in three volumes.
By ANNA MARIA PORTER.

XXIV.

POEMS and PLAYS.
By WILLIAM RICHARDSON, A. M. Professor of Humanity in the University of Glasgow.
In two volumes small octavo.

XXV.

SPECIMENS of the MODERN ENGLISH POETS; with PRELIMINARY REMARKS, &c.
By ROBERT SOUTHEY.
Designed as a Sequel to the "SPECIMENS of EARLY ENGLISH POETS."
By GEORGE ELLIS, Esq.

Digitized by Google

T. Gillet, Printer, Salisbury Square, Fleet-street.

Digitized by Google

Digitized by Google

Digitized by Google

Digitized by Google

THE NEW YORK PUBLIC LIBRARY
REFERENCE DEPARTMENT

This book is under no circumstances to be taken from the Building

Form 418

Digitized by Google